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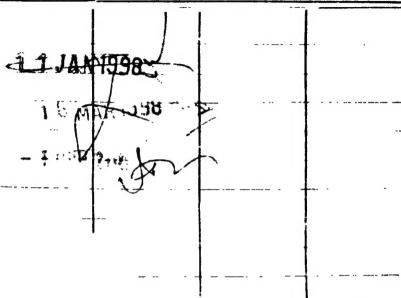
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THE ĀʿĪN-I AKBARĪ

Complete English Translation

volumes 1, 2 & 3

THE

A'ÎN-I AKBARÎ

(A gazetteer and Administrative manual of Akbar's Empire and part history of India)

BY

ABŪ 'L-FAZL 'ALLĀMĪ

Vol. - I

TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH BY

H. BLOCHMANN.

FUITEL BY

LILUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILL OTT,

Vol. - I(& III

TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH BY

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THE ASIATIC SOCIETY

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FOREWORD

The enormous importance of the Ain-i-Akbari of Abū 'L - Fazi as a historical document of the Mughal period of Indian history needs no elaboration. In his preface to the first edition of the English translation of the book, written in 1873, H. Blochmann had described it as 'by far the greatest work in the whole series of Mohammedan histories of India'. That assessment of the book as a source material has not changed much inspite of the significant progress in historical research of medieval India. Thorough editing of a work of this nature needs profound scholarship and years of painstaking dedicated research. This is borne out by the fact that it had taken more than half a century to bring out a new edition with only minor editorial additions and changes.

This is the first time that the Asiatic Society is bringing out the three volumes of Ain-i-Akbari in a single volume. We would have been happy if the book could be thoroughly re-edited in the light of the latest researches. That would have required much time besides versatile scholorship and dedicated single minded hard work and research. But the persistent demand from scholars for a handy volume of this great work has prompted the Society to publish the volume without waiting for an unknown period of time hoping for a new thoroughly revised edition. We hope the book will be welcomed by scholars as well as a wide circle of readers interested in one of the most fascinating periods of niedieval India.

22nd March, 1993

Chandan Roy Chaudhuri General Secretary

Ā^cĪN-I AKBARĪ



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Ä*ĪN-I AKBARĪ ENGLISH TRANSLATION

THE

A'ÎN-I AKBARÎ

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$

ABŪ 'L-FAZL SALLĀMĪ

TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH BY

H. BLOCHMANN, M.A.

SECOND EDITION

EUITED BY

LIEUT. COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, M.A. PH.D., F.A.S.B.

THE ASIATIC SOCIETY

1, PARK STREET
CALCUTTA - 700 016

PREFACE

(First Edition)

The Asin-i Akbari is the third volume of the Akbarnāma, by Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl, and is by far the greatest work in the whole series of Muhammadan histories of India. The first volume of this gigantic work contains the history of Timur's family as far as it is of interest for the Indian reader, and the reigns of Bābar, the Sūr kings, and Humāyūn whilst the second volume is devoted to the detailed history of nearly forty-six years of the reign of the Great Emperor. The concluding volume, the A-in-i-Akbari, contains that information regarding Akbar's reign, which, though not strictly historical, is yet essential to a correct understanding of the times, and embodies, therefore, those facts for which, in modern times, we would turn to Administration Reports, Statistical compilations, or Gazetteers. It contains the $\bar{a}^*\bar{i}n$ (i.e. mode of governing) of Akbar, and is, in fact, the Administration Report and Statistical Return of his government as it was about A.D. 1590. The contents. therefore, of the A*in are naturally varied and detailed. The first of its five books treats of Akbar's household and court, and of the emperor himself, the soul of every department, who looks upon the performance of his duties as an act of divine worship, and who enters into the details of government in order to create a harmonious whole. Vouchsafed as king with a peculiar light from on high, his person is prominently put forward as the guide of the people in all matters temporal and spiritual; in whose character and temper the governed find that rest and peace which no constitution can give, and in whom, as the author of a new and advanced creed, the dust of intoleration is for ever allayed.

The second book treats of the servants of the throne, the military and civil services, and the attendants at

court whose literary genius or musical skill receives a lustre from the encouragement of the emperor, and who in their turn reflect a brilliant light on the government.

The third book is entirely devoted to regulations for the judicial and executive departments, the establishment of a new and more practical era, the survey of the land, the tribal divisions, and the rent-roll of the great Finance minister whose name has become proverbial in India.

The fourth book treats of the social condition and literary activity, especially in philosophy and law, of the Hindus, who form the bulk of the population, and in whose political advancement the emperor saw the guarantee of the stability of his realm. There are also a few chapters on the foreign invaders of India, on distinguished travellers, and on Muhammadan saints and the sects to which they respectively belong.

The fifth book contains the moral sentences and epigrammatical sayings, observations, and rules of wisdom of the emperor, which Abū 'l-Fazl has gathered as the disciple gathers the sayings of the master.

In the Å*in, therefore, we have a picture of Akbar's government in its several departments, and of its relations to the different ranks and mixed races of his subjects. Whilst in most Muhammadan histories we hear of the endless turmoil of war and dynastical changes, and are only reminded of the existence of a people when authors make a passing allusion to famines and similar calamities, we have in the Å*in the governed classes brought to the foreground: men live and move before us, and the great questions of the time, axioms then believed in, and principles then followed, phantoms then chased after, ideas then prevailing, and successes then obtained, are placed before our eyes in truthful, and therefore vivid, colours.

It is for this reason that the Ā*īn stands so unique among Muhammadan histories of India, and we need not wonder that long before curious eyes turned to other native sources of history and systematically examined their

contents, the A'in was laid under contribution. Le Père Tieffentaller, in 1776, published in his Description Géographique de l'Indostan long extracts from the rent-roll given in the Third Book; Chief Sarishtadár Grant used it largely for his Report on Indian Finances; and, as early as 1783, Francis Gladwin, a thorough Oriental scholar, dedicated to Warren Hastings his " Ayeen Akberi", of which in 1800 he issued a printed edition in London. In his translation, Gladwin has given the greater part of the First Book, more than one-half of the Second and Third Books, and about one-fourth of the Fourth Book; and although in modern times inaccuracies have been discovered in the portions translated by him-chiefly due, no doubt, to the fact that he translated from MSS. in every way a difficult undertaking-his translation has always occupied a deservedly high place, and it may confidently be asserted that no similar work has for the last seventy years been so extensively quoted as his. The magnitude of the task of translating the Å*in from uncollated MSS. will especially become apparent, when we remember that, even in the opinion of native writers, its style is "not intelligible to the generality of readers without great difficulty."

But it is not merely the varied information of the Åin that renders the book so valuable, but also the trustworthiness of the author himself. Abū 'l-Fazl's high official position gave him access to any document he wished to consult, and his long career and training in various departments of the State, and his marvellous powers of expression, fitted him eminently for the composition of a work like the Akbarnāmah and the Ain. His love of truth and his correctness of information are apparent on every page of the book, which he wished to leave to future ages as a memorial of the Great Emperor and as a guide for inquiring minds; and his wishes for the stability of the throne and the welfare of the people, his principles of toleration, his noble sentiments on the rights of man, the total absence

of personal grievances and of expressions of ill-will towards encompassing enemies, show that the expanse of his large heart stretched to the clear offing of sterling wisdom. Abū 'l-Fazl has far too often been accused by European writers of flattery and even of wilful concealment of facts damaging to the reputation of his master. A study, though perhaps not a hasty perusal, of the Akbarnamah will show that the charge is absolutely unfounded; and if we compare his works with other historical productions of the East, we shall find that, while he praises, he does so infinitely less and with much more grace and dignity than any other Indian historian or poet. No native writer has ever accused him of flattery; and if we bear in mind that all Eastern works on Ethics recommend unconditional assent to the opinion of the king, whether correct or absurd, as the duty of man, and that the whole poetry of the East is a rank mass of flattery at the side of which modern encomiums look like withered leaves—we may pardon Abū 'l-Fazl when he praises because he finds a true hero.

The issue of the several fasciculi of this translation has extended over a longer time than I at first expected. The simultaneous publication of my edition of the Persian Text, from which the translation is made, the geographical difficulties of the Third Book, the unsatisfactory state of the MSS., the notes added to the translation from various Muhammadan historians and works on the history of literature, have rendered the progress of the work unavoidably slow.

I am deeply indebted to the Council of the Philological Committee of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for placing at my disposal a full critical apparatus of the Asia, and entrusting me with the edition of the text, for which the Indian Government had most liberally sanctioned the sum of five thousand Rupees. My grateful acknowledgments are also due to Dr. Thomas Oldham, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India and late President of the Asiatic Society, for valuable advice and ever ready assistance in

the execution of the work; and to Col. H. Yule, C.B., and to H. Roberts, Esq., of the Doveton College, for useful hints and corrections.

I have thought it advisable to issue the first volume with a few additional notes, and two indexes, one of persons and things and the other of geographical names, without waiting for the completion of the whole work. I have thus had an opportunity of correcting some of the errors and inconsistencies in the spelling of names and supplying other deficiencies. That defects will still be found, notwithstanding my endeavours to remove them, none of my readers and critics can be more sensible than I myself am.

H. BLOCHMANN.

CAUCUTTA MADRASAH.
23r4 September, 1873.

PREFACE

SECOND EDITION OF BLOCHMANN'S TRANSLATION

OF THE

A'IN-LAKBARI

Some explanation is needed of the present edition. Blochmann's original translation has for some time been out of print. The Asiatic Society of Bengal has asked me to undertake the preparation of a reprint, and I lightly accepted the task, not realizing the amount of labour involved. Blochmann's translation and notes form a work of infinite detail and thorough scholarship; and though it has seldom been necessary to correct, it has often been necessary to investigate. This present edition is, however, in the main a mere reprint. This of itself is no small testimony to Blochmann's thoroughness. The transliteration, however, has been brought into line with a more modern system, and a few additional notes [in square brackets] have been added; those with a suffixed B. are Blochmann's own MS, notes from a printed copy in my possession; I have not incorporated all of them, as many I was unable to decipher. Notes to which a P. is suffixed are my own.

D. C. P.

FELSTED BURY,
FELSTED, Eschiz.
1997.

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NOTE

Lieut.-Col. Phillott, who most generously had undertaken to prepare a revised reprint of Blochmann's translation of the first volume of the Ā'īn-i-Akbarī, had progressed to the end of the text when illness precluded him from finishing his labours. What remained to be done was the revision of the index, the correction of the additional notes as already revised by him on the copy, and the entering of the modifications necessary in the proofs of pages xvii to xxxii, and xlix to lix of the preliminary matter, as also of pages 1 to 10 of the work itself.

For a long time lingering illness prevented the taking of immediate steps to terminate the volume, but in September, 1930, the regretted death of the learned Editor necessitated consideration of the problem of bringing the reprint to a close. The fact that the volume was being printed in England and that no details as to the method of the revision were at the disposal of the office of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal caused considerable delay, but ultimately arrangements were made to complete the work in the office of the Society.

Mr. D. K. Das was charged with the revision of the index, involving the changing of all page numbers, and the drawing up of a list of errata found in the body of the reprint during the course of his work. Mr. Das has performed his work with great care and has rendered valuable service in doing so. The new errata are to be found on page 600 of this volume. The plan adopted for the reprint has been explained by the Editor on page xi.

The circumstances explained above are responsible for the date of the Editor's Preface, as well as for the fact that the date of issue on the title page is given as 1927, whilst the actual publication was not possible till 1939.

The Council of the Society wishes to record its great indebtedness to the late Lieut.-Col. Phillott for his self-sacrificing labour on the present volume, and to pay its grateful homage to the memory of its late Member and Fellow, a devoted friend, a valued helper, and a distinguished scholar.

B. S. Guha, General Secretary,

LIST OF PLATES

IN THE

FIRST VOLUME

OF THE

°ĪN-I-AKBARĪ

PLATES I TO III. THE WORKMEN OF THE MINT, p. 18.

- 1, 2. Preparation of acids.—3. Washing of ashes.—4, 9, 10, 12, melting and refining.—5. Weighing.—6, 8. Making of plates.
 - 7. Work of the parrab, p. 22.—11. Engraving.—12. The Sikkacki, p. 22.

PLATE IV. THE IMPERIAL CAMP (p. 50).

a, b, c, d, f, g, roads and bazars. "The principal bazar is laid out into "the form of a wide street, running through the whole extent of the army, now on the right, now on the left, of the Diwan-i khase."—Bernier.

 The Imperial Harem (shabistan-i iqbal). At the right hand side is the Do-dahiyana Manzil: vide p. 56.

2. Open space with a canopy (shāmyāna).

3. Private Audience Hall (Diwan i khaes), p. 48.

4. The great camp light (abla-diya), p. 52.

"The aquacy-dis resembles a lofty mast of a ship, but is very slender, and takes down in three pieces. It is fixed towards the hing's quarters, near the tent called Nagar-hans, and during the night a lighted lantern is suspended from the top. This light is very useful, for it may be seen when every object is enveloped in impenetrable darkness. To this apot persons who lose their way resort, either to pass the night secure from all danger of robbers, or to resume their search after their own ledgings. The name Aquacy-die may be translated 'Light of Heaven the lantern when at a distance appearing like a star."—Bernier.

5. The Naquira Mans, pp. 49, 50.

AB, or distance from the Harem to the camp Light = 1,530 yards; AC = 360 yards; p. 49.

6. The house where the saddles were kept (zin thine).

7. The imperial stables (istable).

8. Tents of the superintendents and overseers of the stables.

9. Tents of the clerk of the elephant statles.

- 10. The Imperial Office (dafter).
- 11. Tent for palkis and carts.

12. Artillery tent (top-thine).

13. Tont where the hunting hoperds were kept (chite-lifens).

- The Tents of Maryam Makini (Akhar's mother), Guibedan Begum (Humiyên's sister, p. 49), and Prince Dányāl; p. 49.
- 15. The tente of Sultan Salim (Jahangir), to the right of the Imperial Harem.
- 16. The tents of Sultan Murid, to the left of the Imperial Hazem; p. 50.
- 17. Store roume and workshops (buydels).
- 18. Tent for keeping basins (aftabchi-hidna).
- 19. Tent for the perfumes (Muchbe-Mana).
- 20. Tent for storing mattrees (seehab-jiffina).

- 21. Tent for the tailors, etc.
- 22. Wardrobe (kurbyarāq-khāna), p. 93.
- 23. Tent for the lamps, candles, oil, etc. (chiragh-khāna).
- 24. Tents for keeping fresh Ganges water (abdar-khāna), p. 57.
- 25. Tent for making sharbat and other drinks.
- 26. Tent for storing pan leaves.
- 27. Tent for storing fruit (mews khone).
- 28. Tent for the Imperial plate (rikāb-khāna).
- 29. The Imperial kitchen (mathakh).
- 30. The Imperial bakery (nanba-khana).
- 31. Store room for spices (hawej-khāna).
- 32. The Imperial guard.
- 33. The Arsenal (que-khana).
- 34. Women's apartments.
- 35 to 41. Guard houses.

Round about the whole the nobles and Mansabdars with their contingents, pitched their tents.

"The king's private tents are surrounded by small bandte (quadte, standing screens), of the height of a man, some lined with Masulipatam chintz, worked over with flowers of a hundred different kinds, and others with figured satin, decorated with deep silken fringes."—Bernier. Bernier's description of the Imperial camp (second letter, dated Lähor, 25th February, 1665), agrees with minute detail with the above.

PLATE V. CANDLESTICKS, p. 50.

- Double candlestick (dushākh2).—2. Fancy candlestick with pigeons.—3. Single candlestick (wakshākha).
- 4. The Akts-diya, or Camp-light; vide pl. iv, No. 4.

PLATE VI. THE EMPEROR ARBAR WORSHIPS FIRE, p. 50.

in front of Akbar twelve candles are placed, and the singer of sweet melodies sings to the praise of God, as mentioned on p. 51, 1. 6 ff.

The faces of the emperor and the singer are left blank, in accordance with the Muhammadan dislike to paint likenesses of beings on, below, or above the earth. The emperor sits in the position called disting.

PLATE VII. THEONES, p. 52.

1, 2. Different kinds of thrones (awrang) with pillows (masnad) to lean against, the royal umbrells (chair), and the footstool (sandali).

PLATE VIII. THE NAQQĀRA KHĀNA, p. 52.

1. Cymbals (sanj).—2. The large drum (kuwarga or damima).—3, 4, 5. The Karanā.—6. The Surnā.—7. The Hindi Surnā.—8. The Nafir.—9. The Singh, or horn.—10. The Nagadras.

PLATE IX. THE ENSIGNS OR ROYALTY, p. 52.

- The Jhanda, or Indian flag. "The Royal standard of the great Mogul is a
 Couchant Lion shadowing part of the body of a sun."—Terry.
- 2. The Kowkaba.
- 3. Böyabón er Áftságir.
- 4. The Tumentog (from the Turkish tog, or togh, a flag, and tumen or tamen, a division of ten thousand).
- 5. The Chair, or (red) royal umbrella.
- 6. A standard, or Salam.

7. The Chatrioq. As Abū 'l-Faşl says that this standard is smaller than the preceding, it is possible that the word should be pronounced chaturoq, from the Turkish chatur, or chatar, short. The flag is adorned with bunches of hair (quide) taken from the tails and the sides of the Tibetan Yak.

PLATES X and XI. THE IMPERIAL TENTS, p. 54.

Plate X.—The three tents on the top, commencing with the left, are (1) the Shāmyāna; (2) A yakdart Kharyāh, or tent of one door; (3) the Dūdari, or tent of two doors; p. 57, 8. Rolled up over the door is the chigh; p. 236, A^{ϵ} in 88.

Below these three tents, is the Sarā-parda and Gulâl-bār, pp. 47, 57. At the foot of the plate is the Nam-gira (pr. dew-catcher), with carpet and pillow (masnad); p. 48.

Plate XI.—On the top, the bargah, p. 55. Below it, on the left, is the Do-ashiyana Manzil, or two-storied house; vide Pl. IV, No. 1. At the window of the upper story, the emperor showed himself; vide Index, darsan, and iharoka. To the right of this two-storied tent, is the Chūbin Rāwatī (as the word ought to be spelt, from chobin, wooden, and rāwaṭī, a square tent), p. 56. Below it, the common conical tent, tied to pegs stuck in the ground; hence it is called zamīndōz, with one tent pole (yak-suruaha, from the Turkish suruah, or surūgh, a tent pole).

Below is a Zamindoz with two poles (düsurugha). At the bottom of the plate, to the left is the Mandal, p. 56; and to the right, the *Ajā*ibi, p. 56.

PLATE XII. WEAPONS, p. 116.

The numbers in brackets refer to the numbers on pp. 117 to 119.

- 1. The sword, shamsher (1).
- 2. The straight sword, khādā (2).
- 3, 3a. The gupti and (3).
- 4. The broad dagger, jamdhar (4).
- 5. The bent dagger, !hanjar (5).
- 6. The jam khak, or curved dagger (7).
- 7. The bent knife, bak (8).
- 8. The jhanburg, or hiltless dagger (9).
- 9. The katara, a long and narrow dagger (10).
- 10. The narsink moth (narsing moth?), a short and narrow dagger (11).
- 11. The bow, haman (12).
- 12, 13. The small bow and arrow, toches hands and ifr (13).
- 14a. Arrow.
- 14b. The pendantest, or arrow-drawer (19).
- 15. The quiver, tarback (16).
- 16. The laner, wess (20).
- The Hindustani lance, barchka (21).
- The Mis. or broad-headed lance (22).
- 19, 20. The sainthi (23) and scient (24).
- The shushbur, or club. This I believe to be the correct name (instead of shashpar), from shush, lungs, and bur, tearing.
- 22. The axe, tobor.
- 23. The club, gurz (25). On p. 117, No. 39, the word pipter has been translated by "club", and this seems to be the current meaning; but the plates in some MSS, call "pipter" a long knife, with straight back, ending in a point.
- 24. The pointed are, sighad, i.e. crow-bill (30).
- 25. The chahar (wheel) and bessis (31).
- 26. The double are, taker sighest (32).
- [1 Sigh a name largely applied to a chargh, orow, jackdaw and magpie.--P.]

- 27. The tarangāla (33).
- 28. The knife, kard (34).

PLATE XIII. WEAPONS (continued), p. 118.

- 29. The gupti kard, or knife concealed in a stick (35).
- 30. The whip, qamchi-kard (36).
- 31. The clasp knife, chāqu (37).
- 32. A bow, unstrung.
- 33. The bow for clay bullets, kamtha, or Kamūn-i guroka (38).
- 31. The tube, or pea-shooter, tufak-i dahān 1 (40).
- 35. The pushtkhar (41).
- 36. A lance called girih-kushā, i.e. a knot-unraveller (43).
- 37. The khār-i mākī, i.e. fish-spine (44).
- 38. The sling, gobhan (45).
- 39. The gajbāg, or ankus, for guiding elephants (46).
- 40. The shield, siper (47).
- 41. Another kind of shield, dhal (48).
- 42. The plain cane shield, pakri, or phari (50).
- 43. The helmet, dubalgha (52).
- 44. The ghuges, a mail coat for head and body, in one piece (55).
- 45. The helmet, with protection for the neck, sirik bulth (54).
- 46. The mailed coat, zirik (57).
- 47. The mailed coat, with breast plate, bagtar (58).
- 48. An armour for cheet and body, joshan (59).
- 49. The breast and back-plates, char-asing (60).

PLATE XIV. WEAPONS AND ARMOURS (continued), p. 118.

- 50. The coat with plates and helmet, kothi (61).
- 51. An armour of the kind called sadiqs (62).
- 52. A long coat worn over the armour, angirkha (63).
- 53. An iron mask, chihrahzirih-i āhanī (65).
- 54. A doublet worn over the armour, chihilqad (67).
- 55. The long glove, dastroana (68).
- 56. The small one is the moza-yi āhani, or iron stocking (71); and the large one the rāk (69).
- 57. The kajem, or kejam, a mailed covering for the back of the home (72).
- 58, 59. The artak-i knjem, the quilt over which the preceding is put (73).
- 60. The quakque. or head protection for the horse (74).
- 61. The Kanika sobkā (70).
- 62. The rocket. ban (77).

PLATE XV. ARBAR'S MACHINE FOR CLEANING GUNS, p. 118; vide p. 122, Å*in 38, or the 1st Book.

PLATE XVI. HARNESS FOR HORSES, p. 144; Å*in 52, p. 143.

PLATE XVII. GAMES, p. 314.

The upper figure shows the board for Chaupar, p. 315, and the lower figure is the board for the Chandal Mandal game. Both boards were made of all sizes; some were made of inlaid stones on the ground in an open court yard, as in Fathpür Sīkri, and slave girls were used instead of pieces. The players at Chandal Mandal sat on the ground, round the circumference, one player at the end of each of the sixteen radii.

BIOGRAPHY

OF

SHAYKH ABŪ 'L-FAZL-I 'ALLĀMĪ

Shaykh Abū 'L-Fazl, Akbar's minister and friend, was born at Agra on the 6th Muharram, 958,1 during the reign of Islam Shah.

The family to which he belonged traced its descent from Shaykh Mūsā, Abū 'l-Fazl's fifth ancestor, who lived in the ninth century of the Hijra in Siwistān (Sindh), at a place called Rel (ريل). In "this pleasant village", Shaykh Mūsā's children and grandchildren remained till the beginning of the tenth century, when Shaykh Khizr, the then head of the family, following the yearnings of a heart imbued with mystic lore, emigrated to Hindūstān. There he travelled about visiting those who, attracted by God, are known to the world for not knowing it; and after passing a short time in Hijāz with the Arabian tribe, to which the family had originally belonged, he returned to India, and settled at Nāgor, north-west of Ajmīr, where he lived in the company of the pious, enjoying the friendship of Mīr Sayyid Yahyā of Bukhārā.

The title of Shaykh, which all the members of the family bore, was to keep up among them the remembrance of the home of the ancestors.

Not long afterwards, in 911, Shaykh Mubarak, Abū 'l-Fazl's father, was born. Mubarak was not Shaykh Khizr's eldest child; several children had been born before and had died, and Khizr rejoicing at the birth of another son, called him Mubarak, i.e. the blessed, in allusion, no doubt, to the hope which Islam holds out to the believers that children gone before bless those born after them, and pray to God for the continuance of their earthly life.

Shaykh Mubarak, at the early age of four, gave abundant proofs of intellectual strength, and fashioned his character and leanings in the company of one Shaykh Atan (Lie), who was of Turkish extraction and had come during the reign of Sikandar Lodi to Nagor, where he lived in the service of Shaykh Sālār, and died, it is said, at the advanced age of one hundred and twenty years. Shaykh Khizr had now resolved to settle at Nagor permanently, and with the view of bringing a few relations to his adopted home, he returned once more to Siwistan. His sudden death during the journey left the family at Nagor in great

distress; and a famine which broke out at the same time stretched numbers of the inhabitants on the barren sands of the surrounding desert, and of all the members of the family at Nagor only Mubarak and his mother survived.

Mubarak grew up progressing in knowledge and laying the foundation of those encyclopedial attainments for which he afterwards became so famous. He soon felt the wish and the necessity to complete his education and visit the great teachers of other parts; but love to his mother kept him in his native town, where he continued his studies. guided by the teachings of the great saint Khwaja Ahrar,1 to which his attention had been directed. However, when his mother died, and when about the same time the Maldeo disturbances broke out. Mubarak carried out his wish, and went to Ahmadabad in Gujarat, either attracted by the fame of the town itself, or by that of the shrine of his countryman, Ahmad of Khattū.2 In Ahmadabad he found a second father in the learned Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl, a khatīb, or preacher, from Kazarun, in Persia, and made the acquaintance of several men of reputation, as Shaykh CUmar of Tattah and Shaykh Yusuf. After a stay of several years, he returned to Hindustan, and settled, on the 6th Muharram. 950, on the left bank of the Jamuna, opposite Agra, near the Charbach Villa, which Babar had built, and in the neighbourhood of the saintly Mir Rafico 'd-Din Safawi of Inju (Shiraz), among whose disciples Mubārak took a distinguished place. It was here that Mubārak's two eldest sons, Shaykh Abū 'l-Fayz and, four years later, Shaykh Abu 'l-Fazl, were born. Mubarak had now reached the age of fifty, and resolved to remain at Agra, the capital of the empire; nor did the years of extraordinary drought which preceded the first year of Akbar's reign, and the dreadful plague, which in 963 broke out in Agra and caused a great dispersion among the population, incline him to settle elsewhere.

The universality of learning which distinguished Mubarak attracted a large number of disciples, and displayed itself in the education he gave his sons; and the filial piety with which Abū 'l-Fazl in numerous passages of his works speaks of his father, and the testimony of hostile writers as Badā,onī, leave no doubt that it was Mubarak's comprehensive-

¹ Died at Samasqand, 29th Rabis I, 895, or 20th February, 1490.

² Vide p. 570, note. Ahmed of Khattā is buried at Sarkhich near Ahmadābād. He died in 849 (A.D. 1445).

² Leter called Hasht Bihisht, or the Nürafshän Gardens. It is now called the Ram Bigh.

Born A.H. 954, or A.D. 1547. Vide p. 548.

ness that laid in Abū 'l-Fayz and Abū 'l-Fazl the foundation of those cosmopolitan and, to a certain extent, anti-Islamitic views, for which both brothers have been branded by Muhammadan writers as atheists, or as Hindus, or as sunworshippers, and as the chief causes of Akbar's

apostacy from Islam.

A few years before A.H. 963, during the Afghan rule, Shaykh Mubarak had, to his worldly disadvantage, attached himself to a religious movement, which had first commenced about the year 900, and which continued under various phases during the whole of the tenth century. The movement was suggested by the approach of the first millefinium of Islam. According to an often quoted prophecy, the latter days of Islam are to be marked by a general decadence in political power and in morals, which on reaching its climax is to be followed by the appearance of Imam Mahdi, "the Lord of the period," who will restore the sinking faith to its pristine freshness. Christ also is to appear; and after all men, through his instrumentality, have been led to Islam, the day of judgment will commence. Regarding this promised personage, the Rawzatu 'l-A,imma, a Persian work on the lives of the twelve Imama,* has the following passage-

Muslim, Abū Dā*ūd, Nisā,ī, Bayhaqī, and other collectors of the traditional sayings of the Prophet, state that the Prophet once said, "Muhammad Mahdi shall be of my family, and of the descendants of Fatima (the Prophet's daughter and wife of 'Ali)." And Ahmad, Abū Da'ūd, Tirmizi, and Ibn Mājah state that the Prophet at some other time said, "When of time one day shall be left, God shall raise up a man from among my descendants, who shall fill the world with justice, just as before him the world was full of oppression"; and again, "The world shall not come to an end till the King of the earth shall appear, who is a man of my family, and whose name is the same as mine." Further, Ahmad and other collectors assert that the Prophet once said, "Muhammad Mahdi belongs to my family, eight and nine years." Accordingly, people believe in the coming of Mahdi. But there is also a party in Islam who say that Imam Mahdi has already come into the world and exists at present; his patronymic is Abū 'l-Qasim, and his epithets are "the elect, the stablisher, Mahdi, the expected, the Lord

A.E. 1271, 144 pp., royal 8vo.

¹ Sabib-i zamān. He is the 13th Imām. The first eleven succeeded the Prophet.
'Mahdi' (which in India is wrongly pronounced Mehadi, "myrtle") means "guided", Hadi means "a guide".

By Sayyid Classe C All, son of Sayyid Pir 'Ali of Resulpur. Lithographed at Lakhnes

of the age". In the opinion of this party, he was born at Surraman-raa (near Bachdad) on the 23rd Ramazan, 258, and in 265 he came to his Sardāba (prop. "a cool place", "a summer villa"), and disappeared whilst in his residence. In the book entitled Shawahid, it is said that when he was born, he had on his right arm the words written. "Say, the truth has come and error has vanished, surely error is vanishing" (Qūr'an, xvii, 83). It is also related that when he was born into the world. he came on his knees, pointed with his fingers to heaven, sneezed, and said, "Praise be to God, the Lord of the world." Some one also has left an account of a visit to Imam Hasan Askarī (the eleventh Imam) whom he asked, "O son of the Prophet, who will be Khalifa and Imam after thee?" SAskari thereupon went into his room, and after some time came back with a child on his shoulders, that had a face like the full moon and might have been three years old, and said to the man, " If theu hadst not found favour in the eyes of God. He would not have shown you this child; his name is that of the Prophet, and so is his patronymic." The sect who believe Mahdi to be alive at present say that he rules over cities in the far west, and he is even said to have children. God alone knows the truth!

The alleged prophecies of the Founder regarding the advent of the Restorer of the Faith, assumed a peculiar importance when Islām entered on the century preceding the first millennium, and the learned everywhere agitated the question till at last the Mahdi movement assumed in India ¹ a definite form through the teaching of Mīr Sayyid Muḥammad, son of Mīr Sayyid Khān of Jaunpūr. This man was a descendant of the Prophet, and bore his name; the fall of Jaunpūr was to him a sign that the latter days had come; extraordinary events which looked like miracles, marked his career; and a voice from heaven had whispered to him the words, "Anta Mahdī," "thou art Mahdī." Some people indeed say that Mīr Sayyid Muḥammad did not mean to declare that he was the promised Mahdī; but there is no doubt that he insisted on his mission as the Lord of the Age. He gained many adherents, chiefly

¹ Badā,cnī, in his 'Najāts' 'r-rashīd', gives a few particulars regarding the same movement in Badajhshān from where the idea seems to have spread over Persia and Indis. In Badajhshān, it was commenced by Sayyid Muhammad Nūrbajhsh, a pupil of Abū Is-hāq Khatišni, who gained numerous adherents and created such disturbances, that troops were sent against him. He was defeated and fied to 'Sīrāq, in the mountainous districts of which country he is said to have gained thirty thousand followers. He had often to fight with the governors, but defied them all. Badā,onī has preserved a copy of the proclamation which Nūrbajhah sent unto all the saints. One of his disciples was Shayih Muhammad Lähijī, the commentator of the "Gulshan-i Rās".

through his great oratorical powers, but pressed by enemies he went to Gujarāt, where he found an adherent in Sultān Maḥmūd I. From Gujarāt he proceeded, at the request of the king and to the joy of numerous enemies, on a pilgrimage to Makkah. From there also he seems to have been driven away. On his return, it was revealed to him that his teaching was vexatious, and he said to the disciples that accompanied him, "God has removed from my heart the burden of Mahdī. If I safely return, I shall recant all." But when he reached the town of Farāh in Balochistān, where his arrival had created a great sensation, he died (A.H. 911; A.D. 1505). His tomb became a place of general pilgrimage, although Shāh Ismā'āl and Shāh Tahmāsp tried to destroy it. The movement, however, continued. Some of his followers adhered to their belief that he was Mahdī; and even the historian Badā,onī, who was strongly attached to the cause, speaks of him as of a great saint.

Other Mahdīs appeared in various parts of India. In 956 (A.D. 1549), a Mahdī of great pretensions arose in Biānah. S.W. of Āgra, in the person of Shaykh Alā,ī. This man was a Bangālī Musalmān. His father had been looked upon in his country as a learned saint, and after visiting Makkah, he had settled, in 935, with his younger brother Naṣra 'llah, likewise a learned man, at Biānah, where they soon became respected and influential men. Shaykh Alā,ī had shown from his youth the learning of the lawyer and the rigour of the saint; and on the death of his father, he gathered numerous pupils around himself. "But the love of power issues at last from the heads of the just," and on the day of the Id, he kicked an influential Shaykh from his hauda, and, supported by his brothers and elder relatives, he proclaimed that he alone was worthy of being the Shaykh of the town.

About the same time, one Miyan Abdu 'llah, a Niyazi Afghan and disciple of Mir Sayyid Muḥammad of Jaunpūr, arrived from Makkah and settled at a retired spot near Bianah. Like his master, he was a man of oratorical powers and was given to street preaching; and in a short time he gained numerous followers among the woodcutters and water-carriers. Shaykh 'Ala,ī also was overawed by the impressive addresses of Miyan 'Abdu'llah; he gave up teaching and struggling for local influence, turned faqīr, told his wife either to follow him to the wilderness or to go, distributed his whole property, even his books, among the poor adherents of the Niyazī, and joined the fraternity which they had formed. The brethren had established among themselves community of property, divided the earnings obtained by begging, and gave up all work, because it was said in the Quran, "Let not men be

allured by trade or selling to give up meditating on God." Religious meetings, the object of which was to prepare people for the advent of the promised Mahdi, were daily held after the five prayers, which the brethren said together, and wherever they went they appeared armed to the teeth. They soon felt strong enough to interfere with municipal matters, and inspected the bazars and removed by force all articles forbidden in the law, defying the magistrates, if opposed to them, or assisting them, if of their opinion. Their ranks increased daily, and matters in Bianah had come to such a pass, that fathers separated themselves from their children and husbands from their wives. Shavkh Alā,ī's former position and the thoroughness of his conversion had given him the rank of second leader; in fact, he soon outdid Miyan Abdu'llah in earnestness and successful conversions, and the later at last tried to rid himself of his rival by sending him with six or seven hundred armed men towards Makkah. Ala, i marched with his band over Basawar to Khawaspur, converting and preaching on the way, but on account of some obstacles they all returned to Bianah.

Shaykh 'Alā,ī's fame at last reached the ear of Islām Shāh, who summoned him to Agra; and although the king was resolved to put him to death as a dangerous demagogue, and was even offended at the rude way in which 'Alā,ī behaved in his presence, he was so charmed by an impromptu address which 'Alā,ī delivered on the vanities of the world and the pharisaism of the learned, that he sent cooked provisions to 'Alā,ī's men. To the amusement of the Afghān nobles and generals at court, 'Alā,ī on another occasion defeated the learned on questions connected with the advent of Mahdī, and Islām Shāh was day after day informed that another of his nobles had gone to 'Alā,ī's meetings and had joined the new sect.

It was at this time that Shaykh Mubārak also became a "disciple", and professed Mahdawī ideas. It is not clear whether he joined the sect from religious or from political motives, inasmuch as one of the objects of the brethren was to break up the party of the learned at Court, at whose head Makhdūmu'l-Mulk stood; but whatever may have been his reason, the result was, that Makhdūm became his inveterate enemy, deprived him of grants of land, made him flee for his life, and persecuted him for more than twenty years, till Mubārak's sons turned the tables on him and procured his banishment.

[&]quot; "Makhdāma'l-Mulk' was the title of SAbda'llah of Sultanpur, regarding whom the reader may consult the index for references. The following biographical notice from the

The learned at Court, however, were not to be baffled by 'Alā,ī's success, and Makhdūm's influence was so great, that he at last prevailed on the king to banish the Shaykh. 'Alā,ī and his followers readily obeyed the command, and set out for the Dakhin. Whilst at Handiah on the Narbadā, the frontier of Islām Shāh's empire, they succeeded in converting Bahār Khān A'zam Humāyūn and half his army, and the king on hearing of this last success cancelled his orders and recalled Shaykh 'Alā,ī.

About the same time (955) Islam Shah left Agra, in order to put down disturbances in the Panjab caused by certain Niyazi Afchans, and when he arrived in the neighbourhood of Bianah Makhdumu'l-Mulk drew the king's attention to Miyan Abdu'llah Niyazi, who after Shaykh Alā,ī's departure for the Dakhin roamed about the hills of the Bianah district with three or four hundred armed men, and was known to possess great influence over men of his own clan, and consequently over the Niyazī rebels in the Panjab. Islam Shah ordered the governor of Bianah, who had become a Mahdawi, to bring Miyan Abdu'llah to him. The governor advised his religious leader to conceal himself; but Miyan SAndu'llah boldly appeared before the king, and so displeased him by his neglect of etiquette, that Islam Shah gave orders to beat him to death. The king watched on horseback for an hour the execution of the punishment, and only left when Miyan Abdu'llah lay apparently lifeless on the ground. But he was with much care brought back to life. He concealed himself for a long time, renounced all Mahdawi principles and got as late as 993 (A.D. 1585) from Akbar a freehold, because he,

Khazinata'l. Asfiyā (Lahor, pp. 443, 464) shows the opinion of good Sunnis regarding Makhdum.

"His son Hajl CAbd" 'l-Karim went after the death of his father to Lahor, where he became a religious guide. He died in 1045, and lies buried at Lahor, near the Zib" 'n-Nisa Villa, at Mawrac Kot. His sons were Shayih Yabya, Ilah Nür, CAbd" 'l-Haqq and Ack Huzur. Shayih Yabya, like his father, wrought miracles."

Avm puper. mayin 1 s nys, use me rateer, wronget musicios.

In this account the date is wrong: for Makhdūma 'l-Mulk died in 990, and as Badā,oni, Makhdūm's supporter, says nothing of poison (Bad. II, 311) the statement of the Khazinata 'l-Aşliyā may be rejected. Badā, onl also says that Makhdūm's sons were worthises men. The titles of Makhdūma 'l-Mulk's works are not correctly given either; vide p. 814.

[&]quot;Mawlana SAbd" likh Ansari of Sultanpur belongs to the most distinguished learned men and saints of India. He was a Chishii in his religious opinions. From the time of Sher Shah till the reign of Akbar, he had the title of 'Makhdum" l-Mulk '(prop. served by the empire). He was learned in the law and austers in practice. He sealously persecuted heretics. When Akbar commenced his religious innovations and converted people to his 'Divine Faith' and sunworship, ordering them to substitute for the creed the words' There is no God but Allah, and Akbar is the vicerogent of God', Mawlana SAbdullah opposed the emperor. Oriven at last from Court, he retired to a mosque; but Akbar said that the mosque belonged to his realm, and he should go to another country. Makhdum therefore went to Makkah. On his return to India, Akbar had him poisoned. He has written several works, as the india in Assaff 'I-ghummah; the "Land als Siffer 'I-Antigot, the will give Minhdia' 'd-dia, etc. He was poisoned in a.R. 1806.

too, had been one of Makhdumu'l-Mulk's victims. He died more than

90 years old, in 1000, at Sarhind.1

Islām Shāh, after quelling the Niyāzī disturbances, returned to Agra, but almost immediately afterwards his presence was again required in the Panjab, and it was there that Shaykh Ala,i joined the royal camp. When Islam Shah saw the Shaykh he said to him in a low voice. "Whisper into my ear that you recant, and I will not trouble you." But Shaykh SAlā, i would not do so, and Islām Shāh, to keep up the appearance of authority ordered a menial to give him by way of punishment a few cuts with the whip in his presence. Shaykh Ala, I had then scarcely recovered from an attack of the plague, which for several years had been raging in India, and had a few badly healed wounds on his neck. Whilst he got the cuts, one of the wounds broke open, and Ala,i fainted and died. His body was now thrown under the feet of an elephant, and orders were given that no one should bury him, when all at once, to the terror of the whole camp and the king who believed that the last day had dawned, a most destructive cyclone broke forth. When the storm abated, Ala,i's body was found literally buried among roses and other flowers, and an order was now forthcoming to have the corpse interred. This happened in 957 (A.D. 1550). People prophesied the quick end of Islam Shah and the downfall of his house.2

Makhdūmu'l-Mulk was never popular after that.

The features common to all Mahdawi movements, are (1) that the preachers of the latter days were men of education and of great oratorical powers, which gave them full swav over the multitudes; and (2) that the Mahdawis assumed a hostile position to the learned men who held office at Court. Islam has no state clergy; but we find a counterpart to our hierarchical bodies in the 'Ulamas about Court, from whom the Sadrs of the provinces, the Mir SAdls, Muftis, and Qazis were appointed. At Dihli and Agra, the body of the learned had always consisted of staunch Sunnis, who believed it their duty to keep the kings straight.

no less than thirteen men of respectable parentage, who had likewise claimed to be Christ.

The circumstances connected with SAlā, i's death resemble the end of Sidi Mūlāh

during the reign of Jalala 'd-din Firuz Shah.

¹ Badā,onī visited him in Sarhind, and it was from SAbdu'llāh that he heard of Mīr Sayyıd Muhammad's repentance before death. Among other things, SAbdu'llāh also told him that after the Mir's death in Farah, a well-known man of that town seized on lands belonging to Palochis and proclaimed himself Christ; and he added that he had known

The piace in the l'anjāb, where the scene took place, is called Ban. (Bad. 1, 408). The fact that Badā, on spent his youth at Basāwar near Biānah, i.e. in the very centre of the Mahdawi movement, accounts perhaps for his adherence, throughout his life, to Mahdawi principles.

How great their influence was, may be seen from the fact that of all Muhammadan emperors only Akbar, and perhaps Alaus'd-Din Khilji, succeeded in putting down this haughty set

The death of Shaykh Alā,ī was a great triumph for the Court Ulamas, and a vigorous persecution of all Mahdawi disciples was the immediate result. The persecutions lasted far into Akbar's reign. They abated only for a short time when the return of Humayun and the downfally of the Afghan power brought about a violent political crisis, during which the learned first thought of their own safety, well knowing that Humayun was strongly in favour of Shisism; but when Akbar was firmly established and the court at Agra, after the fall of Bayram Khan, who was a Shi a, again teemed with Hindustani Sunnis, the persecutions commenced. The hatred of the court party against Shaykh Mubarak especially, rose to such a height that Shaykh SAbdu'n-Nabi and Makhdumu'l-Mulk represented to the emperor that inasmuch as Muhārak also belonged to the Mahdawis and was, therefore, not only himself damned, but led also others into domnation, he deserved to be killed. They even obtained an order to bring him before the emperor. Mubarak wisely fled from Agra, only leaving behind him some furniture for his enemies to reek their revenge on. Concealing himself for a time, he applied to Shaykh Salīm Chishtī of Fathpūr Sikrī for intercession; but being advised by him to withdraw to Gujarat, he implored the good offices of Akbar's foster-brother, the generous Khan-i Aszam Mirza Koka, who succeeded in allaying all doubts in the mind of the emperor by dwelling on the poverty of the Shaykh and on the fact that, different from his covetous accusers, he had not cost the state anything by way of freeholds, and thus obtained at least security for him and his family. Mubarak some time afterwards applied indeed for a grant of land for his son SAbū 'l-Fayz, who had already acquired literary fame, though he was only 20 years old, and waited personally with his son on Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabī. the latter, in his theological pride, turned them out of his office as men suspected of Mahdawi leanings and Shifa tendencies. Even in the 12th year of Akbar's reign, when Fayzi's poems 1 had been noticed at Court-Akbar then lay before Chitor-and a summons had been sent to the young poet to present himself before his sovereign, the enemies at Agra saw in the invitation a sign of approaching doom, and prevailed on the governor to secure the victim this time. The governor thereupon sent a detachment of Mughul soldiers to surround Muharak's house. Faysi

^{1 5}Abda 'l-Fays wrote under the nom-de-plume of Faysi,

was accidentally away from home, and the soldiers suspecting a conspiracy, subjected Mubarak to various sorts of ill-treatment; and when Fayzī at last came, he was carried off by force to Chītor.¹ Nor did his fedrs for his father and his own life banish, till his favourable reception at court convinced him both of Akbar's good will and the blindness of his personal enemies.

Abū 'l-Fazl had in the meantime grown up zealously studying under the care of his father. The persecutions which Shaykh Mubārak had to suffer for his Mahdawī leanings at the hands of the learned at Court, did not fail to make a lasting impression on his young mind. There is no doubt that it was in this school of misfortune that Abū 'l-Fazl learned the lesson of toleration, the practice of which in later years formed the basis of Akbar's friendship for him; while, on the other hand, the same pressure of circumstances stimulated him to unusual exertions in studying, which subsequently enabled him during the religious discussions at Court to lead the opposition and overthrow by superior learning and broader sentiments the clique of the Culamās, whom Akbar hated so much.

At the age of fifteen, he showed the mental precocity so often observed in Indian boys; he had read works on all branches of those sciences which go by the name of hikami and nagli, or masqul and mangul. Following the footsteps of his father, he commenced to teach long before he had reached the age of twenty. An incident is related to show how extensive even at that time his reading was. A manuscript of the rare work of Isfahani happened to fall into his hands. Unfortunately, however, one half of each page, vertically downwards from top to bottom, was rendered illegible, or was altogether destroyed, by fire. Abū'l-Fazl determined to restore so rare a book, cut away the burnt portions, pasted new paper to each page, and then commenced to restore the missing halves of each line, in which attempt after repeated thoughtful perusals he succeeded. Some time afterwards, a complete copy of the same work turned up and on comparison, it was found that in many places there were indeed different words, and in a few passages new proofs even had been adduced; but on the whole the restored portion presented so many points of extraordinary coincidence that his friends were not a little astonished at the thoroughness with which Abū'l-Fazl had worked himself into the style and mode of thinking of a difficult author.

Page 609, note.

¹ 20th Rabi' I, 975, or 24th September, 1567. The ode which Fayri presented will be found in the Abarnama.

Abū'l-Fazl was so completely taken up with study that he preferred the life of a recluse to the unstable patronage of the great, and to the bondage which attendance at court in those days rendered inevitable. But from the time Fayzī had been asked by Akbar to attend the Court hopes of a brighter future dawned, and Abū'l-Fazl, who had then completed his seventeenth year, saw in the encouragement held out by the emperor, in spite of Mubarak's numerous enemies at court, a guarantee that patient toil, on his part, too, would not remain without fruit. The skill with which Fayzī in the meantime acquired and retained Akbar's friendship, prepared the way for Abū'l-Fazl; and when the latter, in the very end of 981 (beginning of A.D. 1574) was presented to Akbar as Fayzi's brother, the reception was so favourable that he gave up all thoughts of leading a life among manuscripts. "As fortune did not at first assist me," says Abū'l-Fazl in the Akbarnāma, "I almost became selfish and conceited, and resolved to tread the path of proud retirement. The number of pupils that I had gathered around me, served but to increase my pedantry. In fact, the pride of learning had made my brain drunk with the idea of seclusion. Happily for myself, when I passed the nights in lonely spots with true seekers after truth, and enjoyed the society of such as are empty-handed, but rich in mind and heart, my eyes were opened and I saw the selfishness and covetousness of the so-called learned. The advice of my ather with difficulty kept me back from outbreaks of folly; my mind had no rest, and my heart felt itself drawn to the sages of Mongolia, or to the hermits of Lebanon; I longed for interviews with the lamas of Tibet or with the padris of Portugal, and I would gladly sit with the priests of the Parsis and the learned of the Zendavesta. I was sick of the learned of my own land. My brother and other relatives then advised me to attend the Court, hoping that I would find in the emperor a leader to the sublime world of thought. In vain did I at first resist their admonitions. Happy, indeed, am I now that I have found in my sovereign a guide to the world of action and a comforter in lonely retirement; in him meet my longing after faith and my desire to do my appointed work in the world; he is the orient where the light of form and ideal dawns; and it is he who has taught me that the work of the world, multifarious as it is, may yet harmonize with the spiritual unity of truth. I was thus presented at Court. As I had no worldly treasures to lay at the feet of his Majesty, I wrote a commentary to the Ayat" 'l-Kursī, and presented it when the emperor was at Agra.

¹ Name of the 256th verse of the second chapter of the Quran.

I was favourably received, and his Majesty graciously accepted my offering."

Akbar was at that time busily engaged with his preparations for the conquest of Bihār and Bengal. Fayzī accompanied the expedition, but Abū'l-Fazl naturally stayed in Āgra. But as Fayzi wrote to his brother that Akbar had inquired after him, Abū'l-Fazl attended Court immediately on the emperor's return to Fathpūr Sīkrī, where Akbar happened to notice him first in the Jāmi's Mosque. Abū'l-Fazl, as before, presented a commentary written by him on the opening of a chapter in the Qur'ā entitled "Sūratu 'l-Fath,", "the Chapter of Victory".1

The party of the learned and bigoted Sunnis at Court, headed by Makhdumu 'l-Mulk and Shaykh 'Abdu 'n-Nabī, had every cause to feel sorry at Fayzi's and Abū'l-Fazl's successes 2; for it was now, after Akbar's return from Bihar, that the memorable Thursday evening discussions commenced, of which the historian Bada, on has left us so vivid an account. Akbar at first was merely annoyed at the "Pharaoh-like pride" of the learned at court; stories of the endless squabbles of these pious casuits had reached his ear; religious persecutions and a few sentences of death passed by his Chief-Justice on Shīcas and "others heretics" affected him most deeply; and he now for the first time realized the idea that the scribes and the pharisees formed a power of their own in his kingdom, at the construction of which he had for twenty years been working. Impressed with a favourable idea of the value of his Hindu subjects, he had resolved when pensively sitting in the mornings on the solitary stone at Fathpur Sikri, to rule with even hand men of all creeds in his dominions; but as the extreme views of the learned and the lawyers continually urged him to persecute instead of to heal, he instituted the discussions, because, believing himself to be in error, he thought it his duty as ruler to "inquire". It is not necessary to repeat here the course which these discussions took.3 The unity that had existed among the learned disappeared in the very beginning; abuse took the place of argument, and the plainest rules of etiquette were, even in the presence of the emperor, forgotten. Akbar's doubts instead of being cleared up only increased; certain points of the Hanafi law, to which most Sunnis cling, were found to be better established by the dicta of lawyers belong-

Vide pp. 179 ff.

¹ The details of Abū 'l-Faşl's introduction at Court given in Badā, on! differ slightly from Abū 'l-Faşl's own account.

² Badā.onī ascribes to Makhdūm²l-Mulk an almost prophetic insight into Abū 'l-Faại's character; for the first time he saw Abū 'l Faạl, he said to his disciples, "What religious mischief is there of which that man is not capable?" Bad., III, 72.

ing to the other three sects; and the moral character of the Prophet was next scrutinized and was found wanting. Makhdumu 'l-Mulk wrote spiteful pamphlet against Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabi, the Sadr of the empire and the latter retorted by calling Makhdum a fool and cursing him Abu'l-Fazl, upon whom Akbar from the beginning had fixed as the leade. of his party, fanned the quarrels, by skilfully shifting the disputes from one point to another, and at last persuaded the emperor that a subject ought to look upon the king not only as the temporal, but also as the only spiritual guide. The promulgation of this new doctrine was the making of Abū'l-Fazl's fortune. Both he and Akbar held to it to the end of their lives. But the new idea was in opposition to Islam, the law of which stands above every king, rendering what we call a constitution impossible; and though headstrong kings as Alatu 'd-din Khilji had before tried to raise the law of expediency (____, maslahatwaqt) above the law of the Quranthey never fairly succeeded in separating religion from law or in rendering the administration of the empire, independent of the Mulla. Hence when Abu'l-Fazl four years later, in 986, brought up the question at the Thursday evening meetings, he raise a perfect storm; and while the disputations, bitter as they were, had hitherto dwelt on single points connected with the life of the Prophet, o with sectarian differences, they henceforth turned on the very principles of Islam. It was only now that the Sunnis at Court saw how wide durin the last four years the breach had become; that "the strong embankment of the clearest law and the most excellent faith had been broken through"; and that Akbar believed that there were sensible men in al religions, and abstemious thinkers and men endowed with miraculous power among all nations. Islam, therefore, possessed in his opinion no superiority over other forms of worship.1 The 'earned party, seein' their official position endangered, now showed signs of readiness to yield but it was too late. They even signed the remarkable document which Shaykh Muharak in conjunction with his sons had drafted, a document which I believe stands unique in the whole Church History of Islam Bada, on has happily preserved a complete copy of it.2 The emperor was certified to be a just ruler, and was as such assigned the rank of a "Mujtahid", i.e. an infallible authority in all matters relating to Islam. The "intellect of the just king" thus became the only source of legislation, and the whole body of the learned and the lawyers bound themselves to abide by Akbar's decrees in religious matters. Shayk SAbdu 'n-Nabi and Makhdumu'l-Mulk signed indeed the document agains their will, but sign they did; whilst Shaykh Mubārak added to his signature the words that he had most willingly subscribed his name, and that for several years he had been anxiously looking forward to the realization of the progressive movement. "The document," says Abū-'l-Fazl in the Akbarnāma, "brought about excellent results—(1) The Court became a gathering place of the sages and learned of all creeds; the good doctrines of all religious systems were recognized, and their defects were not allowed to obscure their good features; (2) perfect toleration (sulh-i-kul or "peace with all") was established; and (3) the perverse and evil-minded were covered with shame on seeing the disinterested motives of his Majesty, and thus stood in the pillory of disgrace." The copy of the draft which was handed to the emperor, was in Shaykh Mubārak's own handwriting, and was dated Rajab, 987 (September, 1579).

A few weeks afterwards, Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabī and Makhdūmu 'l-Mulk were sent to Makkah, and Shaykh Mubārak and his two sons triumphed over their enemies. How magnanimous Abū'l-Fazl was, may be seen from the manner in which he chronicles in the Akbarnāma the banishment of these men. Not a sentence, not a word, is added indicative of his personal grievances against either of them, though they had persecuted and all but killed his father and ruined his family; the narrative proceeds as calm and statesmanlike as in every other part of his great work, and justifies the high praise which historians have bestowed upon his character that "neither abuse nor harsh words were ever found in his household".

The disputations had now come to an end (A.D. 1579) and Fayzī and Abū'l-Fazl had gained the lasting friendship of the emperor. Of the confidence which Akbar placed in Fayzī, no better proof can be cited than his appointment, in the same year, as tutor to Prince Murad; and as both brothers had entered the military, then the only, service and had received mansabs. or commissions, their employment in various departments gave them repeated opportunities to gain fresh distinctions. Enjoying Akbar's personal friendship, both remained at court in Fathpūr Sīkrī, or accompanied the emperor on his expeditions. Two years later, Fayzī was appointed Ṣadr of Āgra, Kālpī, and Kālinjar, in which capacity he had to inquire into the possibility of resuming free tenures (saywahāl), which in consequence of fraudulent practices on the part of government officers and the rapaciousness of the holders themselves had so much increased as seriously to lessen the land revenue; and Abū'l-Fazī in the very beginning of 1585,¹ was promoted to the mansab

of Hazārī, or the post of a commander of one thousand horse, and was in the following year appointed Dīwān of the Province of Dihlī. Fayzī's rank was much lower; he was only a commander of Four Hundred. But he did not care for further promotion. Devoted to the muse, he found in the appointment as Poet Laureate, with which Akbar honoured him in the end of 1588, that satisfaction which no political office, however high, would have given him. Though the emperor did not pay much attention to poetry, his appreciation of Fayzī's genius was but just; for after Amīr Khusraw of Dihlī, Muhammadan India has seen no greater poet than Fayzī.

In the end of 1589, Abū'l-Fazl lost his mother, to whose memory he has devoted a page in the Akbarnāma. The emperor, in order to console him, paid him a visit, and said to him, "If the people of this world lived for ever and did not only once die, kind friends would not be required to direct their hearts to trust in God and resignation to His will; but no one lives long in the caravanserai of the world, and hence the afflicted do well to accept consolation." **

Religious matters had in the meantime rapidly advanced. Akbar had founded a new religion, the Din-i Hahi, or "the Divine Faith", the chief feature of which, in accordance with Shaykh Mubarak's document mentioned above, consisted in belief in one God and in Akbar as His viceregent (khalifa) on earth. The Islamitic prayers were abolished at court, and the worship of the "elect" was based on that of the Parsis and partly on the ceremonial of the Hindus. The new era (tarikh-ilahi), which was introduced in all government records, as also the feasts observed by the emperor, were entirely Parai. The Muhammadan grandees at court showed but little resistance; they looked with more anxiety on the elevation of Hindu courtiers than on Akbar's religious innovations, which after all, affected but a few. But their feeling against Abu'l-Fazl was very marked, and they often advised the emperor to send him to the Dakhin hoping that some mismanagement in war or in administration would lessen his influence at court. Prince Salim (Jahangir) also belonged to the dissatisfied, and his dislike to Abu'l-Fazl, as we shall see below, became gradually so deep-rooted, that he looked upon him as the chief obstacle to the execution of his wild plans. An unexpected visit to Abu'l-Fazl gave him an excellent opportunity to charge him with

¹ For his works, vide p. 161.

اگر جهانیان طراز بایندگی داشته و جزیگ راد نیستی نسپرفت دوستان شناسا دل را آز رضا و تسلیم گزیر نبود. ۹ حرکاه درین کارولین مرا هاینهکس دیرنماند تکوهش تاشکهانی را گها اندازه توان گرفت !!

duplicity. On entering the house, he found forty writers busy in copying commentaries to the Quran. Ordering them to follow him at once, he took them to the emperor, and showing him the copies he said, "What Abū'l-Fazl teaches me is very different from what he practises in his house." The incident is said to have produced a temporary estrangement between Akbar and Abū'l-Fazl. A similar, but less credible, story is told by the author of the Zakhīrat"'l-Khawānīn. He says that Abū'l-Fazi repented of his apostacy from Islam, and used at night to visit incognito the houses of dervishes, and, giving them gold muhurs, requested them "to pray for the stability of Abū'l-Fazl's faith", sighing at the same time and striking his knees and exclaiming, "What shall I do' " And just as writers on the history of literature have tried to save Fayzi from apostacy and consequent damnation, by representing that before his death he had praised the Prophet, so have other authors succeeded in finding for Abū'l-Fazl a place in Paradise; for it is related in several books that Shah Abū 'l-Masalī Qadirī of Lahor, a man of saintly renown,1 once expressed his disapproval of Abū 'l-Fazl's words and deeds. But at night, so runs the story, he saw in his dream that Abū' l-Fazl came to a meeting held by the Prophet in Paradise; and when the Prophet saw him enter, he asked him to sit down, and said, "This man did for some time during his life evil deeds, but one of his books commences with the words, 'O God, reward the good for the sake of their righteousness, and help the wicked for the sake of thy love,' and these words have saved him." The last two stories flatter, in all probability, the consciences of pious Sunnis; but the first, if true, detracts in no way from that consistency of opinion and uniform philosophic conviction which pervades Abū 'I-Fazl's works; and though his heart found in pure deism and religious philosophy more comfort and more elements of harmony than in the casuistry of the Mullas, his mind from early youth had been so accustomed to hard literary work, that it was perfectly natural for him, even after his rejection of Islam to continue his studies of the Quran, because the highest dialectical lore and the deepest philological research of Muhammadan literature have for centuries been concentrated on the explanation of the holy book.

To this period also belong the literary undertakings which were commenced under the auspices of the Emperor himself. Abū 'l Fazl, Fayzī, and scholars as Badā,onī, Naqīb Khān, Shaykh Sultān, Ḥājī Ibrāhīm, Shaykh Munawwar and others, were engaged in historical and

¹ Born A.H. 960 : died at Lähor, 1024. Khazīnat" 'l-Asfiyā, p. 139.

scientific compilations and in translations from the Sanskrit or Hindi into Persian. Fayzī took the Līlāwati, a well-known book on mathematics. and Abū 'l-Fazl translated the Kalīla Damna under the title of Avār Danish from Arabic into Persian. He also took a part in the translation of the Mahabharat, and in the composition of the Tarikh-i Alfi, the "History of the Millennium". The last-mentioned work, curious to say, has an intimate connexion with the Mahdawi movement, of which particulars have been given above. Although from the time of Shaykh Ala, i's death, the disciples of the millennium had to suffer persecution, and movement to all appearances had died out, the idea of a restorer of the millennium was revived during the discussions in Fathpur Sikri and by the teachings of men of Sharif-i Amuli's stamp, with this important modification, that Akbar himself was pointed to as the "Lord of the Age", through whom faded Islam was to come to an end. This new feature had Akbar's full approval, and exercised the greatest influence on the progress of his religious opinions. The Tārīkh-i Alfī, therefore, was to represent Islam as a thing of the past; it had existed a thousand (alf) years, and had done its work. The early history, to the vexation of the Sunnis, was related from a Shi'ah point of view, and worse still, the chronology had been changed, insemuch as the death of the Prophet had been made the starting point, not the hijra, or flight, of the Prophet from Makka to Madina.

Towards the middle of A.H. 1000 (beginning of A.D. 1592), Akbar promoted Abū 1-Fazl to the post of Dūhazārī, or commander of two thousand horse. Abū 1-Fazl now belonged to the great Amīrs (umarā-yi kibār) at court. As before, he remained in immediate attendance on the emperor. In the same year, Fayzī was sent to the Dakhan as Akbar's ambassador to Burhānⁿ 1-Mulb, and to Raja Alī Khān of Khāndesh, who had sent his daughter to Prince Saiīm. Fayzī returned after an absence of more than sixteen months.

Shayki Mubarak, who after the publication of his famous document had all but retired from the world, died in the following year at Lahor (Sunday, 17th Zi Qasda, 1001, or 4th September, 1593). He had reached

1 Vide pp. 110, 111.

² Page 502. We hear the last of the Mahdawi movement in 1628, at the accession of Shāhjahān. Akbar was dead and had not restored the Millennium: during Jahāngīr's reign, especially in the beginning, the court was indifferent to religiou, and the king retained the ceremony of siyda, or prostration, which Muhammadars believe to be due to God alone. But Shāhjahān, or, his accession, restored many Muhammadar rites that had fallen in abeyance at court; and as he was born in a.u. 1000, he was now pointed to as the real restorer. Since that time the movement has found no disciples.

the age of 90, and had occupied himself in the last years of his life with the compilation in four volumes of a gigantic commentary to the Quran, to which he had given the title of $Manba^{qu} Naf\bar{a}, is^{u'l-q}Uy\bar{u}n$. He completed it, in spite of failing eyesight, a short time before his death.

The historian Badā, on speaks of him as follows:-

Shaykh Mubarak belonged to the most distinguished men of learning of the present age. In practical wisdom, piety, and trust in God, he stood high among the people of his time. In early life he practised rigorous asceticism; in fact, he was so strict in his views regarding what is lawful and unlawful, that if any one, for example, came to a prayer meeting with a gold ring on his finger, or dressed in silk, or with red stockings on his feet, or red or yellow coloured clothes on him, he would order the offending articles to be removed. In legal decisions, he was so severe as to maintain that for every hurt exceeding a simple kick, death was the proper punishment. If he accidentally heard music while walking on the street, he ran away, but in course of time he became, from divine zeal, so enamoured of music, that he could not exist without listening to some voice or melody. In short, he passed through rather opposite modes of thought and ways of life. At the time of the Afghan rule, he frequented Shaykh Alā,ī's fraternity; in the beginning of His Majesty's reign when the Nagahbandis had the upper hand, he settled matters with that sect; afterwards he was attached to the Hamadani school, and lastly, when the Shīsahs monopolized the court, he talked according to their fashion. "Men speak according to the measure of their understanding "-to change was his way, and the rest you know. But withat he was constantly engaged in teaching the religious sciences. Prosody also, the art of composing riddles, and other branches, he understood well; and in mystic philosophy he was, unlike the learned of Hindustan, a perfect master. He knew Shātibi 1 by heart, explained him properly, and also knew how to read the Quran in the ten different modes. He did not go to the palaces of the kings, but he was a most agreeable companion and full of ancodote. Towards the end of his life, when his eyesight was impaired, he gave up reading and lived in seclusion. The commentary to the Quran which he composed, resembles the Tafsīr-i Kabir (the "Great Commentary"), and consists of four thick volumes, and is entitled Mambas " Nafāis" 'l-SUyūn. It is rather extraordinary that there is a passage in the preface in which he seems to point to himself

A writer on 'Tajwid', "the art of reading the Qura an correctly".

as the renovator of the new century. We know what this "renovating" means. About the time he finished his work he wisely committed the Fārizī Ode (in t) which consists of seven hundred verses, and the Ode Barda, the Ode by Kacb ibn Zubayr, and other Odes to memory, and recited them as daily homilies, till on the 17th Zī Qacda, 1001, he left this world at Lähor for the judgment-seat of God.

I have known no man of more comprehensive learning; but alas! under the mantle of a dervish there was such a wicked love of worldly preferment, that he left no tittle of our religion in peace. When I was young, I studied at Agra for several years in his company. He is indeed a man of ment; but he committed worldly and irreligious deeds, plunged into lust of possession and rank, was timeserving, practised deceit and falsehood, and went so far in twisting religious truth, that nothing of his former ment remains. "Say, either I am in the correct path or in clear error, or you" (Quran, xxxiv, 23). Further, it is a common saying that the son brings the curse on the head of his father; hence people have gone beyond Yazid and say, "Curse on Yazid.2 and on his father, too."

Two years after Shaykh Mubārak's death. Abū 'l-Fazl also lost his brother Fayzī, who died at the age of 50, after an illness of six months on the 10th Safar, 1004 (5th October, 1595). When in his last moments, Akbar visited him at midnight, and seeing that he could no longer speak, he gently raised his head and said to him, "Shaykh Jīo, I have brought Ḥakīm 'Alī with me, will you not speak to me?" But getting no reply, the emperor in his grief threw his turban to the ground, and wept loud; and after trying to console Abū 'l-Fazl, he went away. How deeply Abū l-l'azl loved his elder brother, is evident from the numerous passages in the Akbarnāma and the Ā'ān in which he speaks of him, and nothing is more touching than the lines with which he prefaces the selections in the Ā'ān made by him from his brother's poems. "The gems of thought in his poems will never be forgotten. Should leisure permit and my heart turn to worldly occupations. I would collect some

Bada,oni, ii, 406.

Badā, onī says in his Najāta 'r rashid that Jalāla d-Din Suyūtī, in his time the most universal scholar of all Arabia, pointed likewise to himself as the renovator of the tenth century.

[&]quot;Hisayn, in whose remembrance the Muharram lamentations are chanted, was murdered by Yazid: hence the latter is generally called Yazid-1-mai(sün, "Yazid, the accuract" Badā, oni here calls Abū 'l-Fazi Yazid. Poor Badā, oni had only the thousand bighas which Akbar had given him rent-free, but his school fellow Yazid Abū 'l-Fazi was a commander of two thousand and the friend of the emperor.

of the excellent writings of this unrivalled author of the age, and gather, with the eye of a jealous critic, yet with the hand of a friend, some of his poems. But now it is brotherly love alone, which does not travel along the road of critical nicety, that commands me to write down some of his verses." Abū 'l-Fazl, notwithstanding his onerous duties, kept his promise, and two years after the death of his brother, he collected the stray leaves of Fayzī's Markizu 'l-Adwār, not to mention the numerous extracts which he has preserved in the Akbarnāma.

It was about the same time that $Ab\bar{u}$ 'l-Fazl was promoted to the post of a Commander of two thousand and five hundred horse. Under this rank he has entered his own name in the list of grandees in the $A^a\bar{\imath}n-i$ Akbar $\bar{\imath}$, which work he completed in the same year when he collected his brother's literary remains (1596–7).

In the following year, the forty-third of Akbar's reign, Abū 'l-Fazl went for the first time on active service. Sultan Murad had not managed matters well in the Dakhin, and Akbar now dispatched Abū 'l-Fazl with orders to return with the Prince, whose excessive drinking caused the emperor much anxiety, provided the officers of the imperial camp made themselves responsible to guard the conquered territory. If the officers were disinclined to guarantee a faithful conduct of the war, he was to see the Prince off, and take command with Shahrukh Mirza. The wars in the Dakhin, from their first commencement under Prince Murad and the Khan Khanan, are marked by a most astounding duplicity on the part of the imperial officers, and thousands of men and immense stores were sacrificed, especially during the reign of Jahangir, by treacherous and intriguing generals. In fact, the Khan Khanan himself was the most untrustworthy imperial officer. Abū 'l-Fazl's successes, therefore, were chiefly due to the honesty and loyalty with which he conducted operations. When he arrived at Burhanpur, he received an invitation from Bahadur Khan, king of Khandesh, whose brother had married Abu 'l-Fazl's sister. He consented to come on one condition. namely, that Bahadur Khan should vigorously assist him, and thus aid the cause of the emperor. Bahadur was not inclined to aid the imperialists in their wars with the Dakhin, but he sent Abū 'l-Fazl rich presents, hoping that by this means he would escape the penalty of his refusal. Abu 'l-Fazl, however, was not the man to be bribed. "I have made a vow, ' he said in returning the presents, " not to accept presents till four conditions are fulfilled—(1) friendship; (2) that I should not value the gift too high; (3) that I should not have been anxious to get a present; and (4) necessity to accept it. Now supposing that the first

three are applicable to the present case, the favour of the emperor has extinguished every desire in me of accepting gifts from others."

Prince Murad had in the meantime retreated from Ahmadnagar to Ilichpur, and as the death of his infant son Mirza Rustam made him melancholy, he continued to drink, though dangerously ill with delirium tremens. When informed of Abū 'l-Fazl's mission, he returned at once towards Ahmadnagar, in order to have a pretext for not going back to his father, and he had come to the banks of the Pürnä,1 twenty kos from Dawlatābād, when death overtook him. Abū 'l-Fazl arrived the same day, and found the camp in the utmost confusion. Each commander recommended immediate return; but Abū 'l-Fazl said that he was determined to march on; the enemy was near, the country was foreign ground, and this was no time for returning, but for fighting. Several of the commanders refused to march on, and returned; but Abū 'l-Fazl, nothing daunted, after a delay of a few days, moved forward, humoured the officers, and supplied in a short time all wants. Carefully garrisoning the country, he managed to occupy and guard the conquered districts with the exception of Nasik, which lay too far to the west. But he sent detachments against several forts, and conquered Baitāla. Taltum, and Satonda. His headquarters were on the Godawari. He next entered into an agreement with Chand Bibi, that, after punishing Abhang Khan Habshi, who was at war with her. she should accept Janir as fief and give up the fort of Ahmadnagar.

Akbar had in the meantime gone to Ujjain. The Dakhin operations had also become more complicated by the refusal of Bahādur Khān to pay his respects to Prince Dānyāl, and war with Khāndesh had been determined on. Akbar resolved to march on Āsīc, Bahādur Khān's stronghold, and appointed Prince Dānyāl to take command at Aḥmadnagar. Dānyāl sent immediate instructions to Abū 'l-Fazl to cease all operations, as he wished to take Aḥmadnagar personally. When the Prince therefore left Burhānpūr, Abū 'l-Fazl at Akbar's request, left Mīrzā Shāhrukh, Mīr Murtazā, and Khwāja Abū 'l-Ḥasan in charge of his corps, and hástened to meet the emperor. On the 14th Ramaṣān, 1008 (beginning of the 44th year of Akbar's reign), he met Akbar at Khargō, near Bīlāgarh. The emperor received him with the following verse—

¹ The southern Pürnä is resent. The northern Pürnä flows into the Tapti in Khändesh; whilst the southern Pürnä, with the Düdnä, flows into the Godäwari. Prince Muräd had gone from Ilichpür to Narnäle, and from there to Shähpür, which he had built about eight miles south of Bäläpür. It is now in ruins.

فرخند شبے باید و خوش مهتا ہے تا با تو حکایت کنم از هرباہے

Serene is the night and pleasant is the moonlight, I wish to talk to thee on many a subject.

and promoted him for his excellent management to a command of four thousand. The imperial army now marched on Asir and commenced the siege.1 One day, Abū 'l-Fazl inspected some of his trenches, when one of the besieged, who had deserted to Akbar's camp, offered to show him a way by which the Imperialists might get over the wall of the Mālai Fort, an important fortification below Āsīrgarh itself. Half way up the mountain, to the west and slightly to the north, were two renowned outworks, called the Mālai and Antar Mālai, which had to be conquered before Asir itself could be reached; and between the northwest and north, there was another bastion called Chuna Malai. A portion of its wall was not finished. From east to south-west there were hills. and in the south was a high mountain called Korhia. A hill in the southwest, called Sapan, was occupied by the Imperialists. Abū 'l-Fazl determined on availing himself of the information given by the deserter, and selected a detachment to follow him. Giving orders to the officer commanding the trench to listen for the sound of the trumpets and bugies, when he was to hasten to his assistance with ladders, he went in the dark of night, whilst it was raining, with his selected men on Mount Sāpan, and sent a few of his men under Qarā Beg along the road that had been pointed out to him. They advanced, broke open a gate of Mālai Fort, and sounded the bugle. The besieged rose up to oppose them, and Abū 'l-Fazl hastened to his men and joined them at break of day when the besieged withdrew in confusion to Asir. On the same

De Laët is wrong in a few minor details. I cannot identify the name Cho-Tranin. "Commerghar" is the Persian "Kamargah", "the middle of a mountain." The names of Fort Chunah Malai and of Mount Korhiah are doubtful, the MSS, having Khwaja Malai

and Korthah, Kortah, Kodhiah, and similar variations.

Vide also, Guzetteer, Central Provinces, p. 8.

^{1&}quot; Akbar had no sooner crossed the Nerebada (Narbadā), when Radzia Bader-xa (Rāja Bahādur Shāh) who had possession of the fortress of Hasser (Asir) fortified the same against the king, and collected provisions from the neighbourhood. The king, thinking it dangerous to leave this fortress in his rear, considered how it might be exptured. This fortress has three eastles, of which the first is called Cho-Tzanin, the second Commerghar; and the third is placed on the very summit of the hill, so that it is a conspicuous object at the distance of six coss. The king with no delay surrounded it on all sides; and so energetically pressed the siege night and day, that at the end of six months it was on the point of being captured. Bader-xa however perceiving his danger, having obtained a pledge that his life and property should be safe, came as suppliant to the king and surrendered himself. . . . Whilst the king was at this place, Abdul Fazel (Abū 'l-Fast) came to him and so worked upon his mind, that he fully determined to set out for the war in the linecan. "From Professor Lethbridge's Fragment of Indian History, translated from De Lact's India Vera, and published in the Calcutta Review for 1873.

day, other detachments of the army occupied Chūna Mālai and Mount Korhia, and Bahādur Khān, unable to resist longer, sued for pardon (1009). Prince Dānyāl, who had in the meantime conquered Ahmadnagar, now joined his father at Āsīr.

About this time disturbances broke out in the Dakhin, caused by Rājū Mannā, and a party set up the son of Alī Shāh as king. As the latter found numerous adherents, the Khān Khānān was ordered to march against him, and Abū 'l-Fazl was sent to Nāsik; but a short time afterwards, he was told to join the Khān Khānān. Akbar returned, in the 46th year, to Agra, leaving Prince Dānyāl in Burhānpūr. Abū 'l-Fazl had no easy life in the Dakhin. The Khān Khānān stood idle at Ahmadnagar, because he was disinclined to fight, and left the operations to Abū 'l-Fazl, who looked upon him as a traitor. Abū 'l-Fazl vigorously pushed on operations, ably assisted by his son Abdu 'r-Rahmān. After coming to terms with the son of Alī Shāh, he attacked Rājū Mannā, recovered Jālnapūr and the surrounding district, and inflicted several defeats of him. Mannā found a temporary asylum in Dawlatābād, and in a subsequent engagement he was nearly captured.

As early as during the siege of Asir, Prince Salim, who had been sent against the Rana of Udaipur, had rebelled against his father, and had moved to llahabad; where he had assumed the title of king. Though on Akbar's return from Burhangur a reconciliation had been effected, the prince, in the forty-seventh year, showed again signs of rebellion, and as many of Akbar's best officers appeared to favour Salim, the emperor recalled Abu I-Fazl, the only trustworthy servant he had. As his presence at Court was urgently required, Akbar sent him orders to leave the troops of his contingent in the Dakhin. Putting his son Abdu 'r Rahman in charge of his corps, Abii 'l-Fazl set out for Agra, accompanied by a few men only. Salim, who looked upon him with little concealed hatred, thought Abū 'l-Fazl's journey unprotected, as he was, an excellent opportunity to get rid of him. He, therefore, persuaded Raja Bir Singh, a-Bundela chief of Urcha (Udchha), through whose territory Abu 'l-Fazl was likely to pass, to lie in wast for him and kill him. Bir Singh, who was in disgrace at Court, eagerly seized the opportunity of pleasing the Prince, who no doubt would substantially reward him on his accession, and posted a large body of horse and foot near Narwar. When arrived at Ujjain, Abu 'l-Fazi was warned of Salim's

Among the plunder taken at Ahmadnagar was a splendid library. Fayri's library, having on his death lapsed to the state, had been incorporated with the Imperial Library.
2 Vide p. 546.

intention, and his men tried to persuade him to go via Ghațī Chāndā; but Abū 'l-Fazl said that thieves and robbers had no power to stop him on his way to Court. He, therefore, continued his journey towards Narwar. On Friday, the 4th Rabī I, 1011 (12th August, 1602), at a distance of about half a kos from Sarāy Bar, which lies six kos from Narwar, Bir Singh's men came in sight. The few men that Abū 'l-Fazl had with him strongly advised him to avoid a fight, and an old servant, Gadā,ī Khān, Afghān, told him quickly to retreat to Antrī, which was three kos distant, as Rāy Rāyān and Sūraj Singh were stationed there with three thousand Imperial horse; he might first join them, and then punish Bir Singh. But Abū 'l-Fazl thought it a disgrace to fly. He defended himself bravely; but in a short time he was surrounded and, pierced by the lance of a trooper, he fell dead to the ground. Bir Singh cut off Abū 'l-Fazl's head, and sent it to Salīm in Ilāhābād, who, it is said, had it thrown 'i into an unworthy place ', where it lay for a long time.

The Dutch traveller De Laët gives the following account of Abū 'l-Fazi's death:—1

Salīm returned to Halebassa (Ilāhbās, the old form of Ilāhābād), and began to coin gold and silver money in his own name, which he even sent to his father, to irritate him the more. The king, enraged at this, wrote an account of all that had happened to Abū 'l-Fazl, who bade the king be of good courage, for he would come to him as quickly as possible; and added that his son should be brought bound to him, either by fair means or by foul. Accordingly, a little afterwards, having obtained leave of absence from Daniel Xa (Dānyāl Shāh), he took to the road with about two or three hundred horsemen, leaving orders for his baggage to follow him. Xa-Sehm, to whom all these things were known, recalling how hostile Fazl had always been towards him, and hence justly fearing that his father would be more exasperated than ever against him, judged it best to intercept him on his journey. So he begged Radzia Bertzingh Bondela, who lived in his province of Osseen (Ujjain), to lie in wait for Fazl uear Soor (Narwar?) and Gualer (Gwaliyar) and to send his head to him, promising that he would be mindful of so great a benefit, and would give him the command of five thousand cavalry. The Radzia consented, and waited with a thousand cavalry and three thousand infantry about three or four coss from Gualer, having sent out scouts into the neighbouring

¹ From Professor E. Lethbridge's "Fragment of Indian History", Calcutta Review, 1873.

The place near which Abū 'l-Fazl was killed, is called in the MSS. مرايير Sarti Bar. De Last's Soor appears to be a bad reading for Narwar.

villages, to give him early warning of the approach of Fazl. Accordingly when the latter, ignorant of the ambuscade, had come as far as Collebaga (Käläbägh), and was going towards Soor, Radzia Bertzingh and his followers fell upon him on all sides. Fazl and his horsemen fought bravely, but being overpowered by numbers, they were gradually worn out. Fazl himself, having received twelve wounds in the fight, was pointed out by a captive slave under a neighbouring tree, and was taken and beheaded. His head was sent to the prince, who was greatly pleased."

Prince Salīm, with that selfish nonchalance and utter indifference that distinguished him throughout life, openly confesses in his "Memoirs" that he brought about Abū 'l-Fazl's murder, because he was his enemy, and with a naïveté exclusively his own, represents himself as a dutiful son who through the wickedness of others had been deprived of his father's love. He says:—

"On my accession, I promoted Rāja Bir Singh, a Bundelā Râjpūt, to a command of three thousand. He is one of my tavourites, and he is certainly distinguished among his equals for his bravery, good character, and straightforwardness. My reason for promoting him was this. Towards the end of my father's reign, Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl, a Hindustani Shaykh by birth, who was well known for his learning and wisdom, and who had externally ornamented himself with the jewel of loyalty, though he sold himself at a high price to my father, had been called from the Dakhin. He was no friend of mine, and damaged openly and secretly my reputation. Now about that time, evil-minded and mischievous men had made my father very angry with me, and I knew that if Abū 'l-Fazi were to come back to Court, I would have been deprived of every chance to effect a reconciliation. As he had to pass on his way through the territory of Bir Singh Bundela, who at that time had rebelled against the emperor, I sent a message to the latter to say that, if he would waylay Abu 'l-Fazl and kill him. I would richty reward him. Heaven favoured him, and when Abū 'l-Fazl passed through his land, he stopped him on his way, dispersed after a short fight his men, and killed him, and sent his head to me at Ilāhābād. Although my father was at first much vexed, Abu 'l-Fagl's death produced one good result: I could now without further annoyance go to my father, and his bad opinion of me gradually were AWMV."

At another place in his "Memoirs" when alluding to the murder, he says, as if an afterthought had occurred to him, that he ordered Bir Singh to kill Abū 'l-Farl because "he had been the enemy of the Prophet".

When the news of Abū 'l-Fazl's death reached court, no one had the courage to break it to the emperor. According to an old custom observed by Timūr's descendants, the death of a prince was not in plain words mentioned to the reigning emperor, but the prince's vakīl presented himself before the throne with a blue handkerchief round his wrist; and as no one else would come forward to inform Akbar of the death of his friend, Abū 'l-Fazl's vakīl presented himself with a blue handkerchief before the throne. Akbar bewailed Abū 'l-Fazl's death more than that of his son; for several days he would see no one, and after inquiring into the circumstances he exclaimed, "If Salīm wished to be emperor, he might have killed me and spared Abū 'l-Fazl," and then recited the following verse:

شیخ ما از شوق بیکد چون سوی ما آمده ز اشتیاق پاے بوسی بے سرو پاآمده

My Shaykh in his zeal hastened to meet me,

He wished to kiss my feet, and gave up his life.

Akbar, in order to punish Bir Singh, sent a detachment under Patr Dās and Rāj Singh¹ to Üdchā. They defeated the Bundelā chief in several engagements, drove him from Bhānder and shut him up in Īrich. When the siege had progressed and a breach was made in the wall, Bir Singh escaped by one of Rāj Singh's trenches, and withdrew to the jungles closely pursued by Patr Dās. As it seemed hopeless to catch him, Akbar called Patr Dās to Court; but ordered the officers stationed about Üdchā to kill the rebel wherever he showed himself. In the beginning of the last year of Akbar's reign, Bir Singh was once surprised by Rāja Rāj Singh, who cut down a good number of his followers. Bir Singh himself was wounded and had a navrow escape. But the emperor's death, which not long afterwards took place, relieved Bir Singh of all fears. He boldly presented himself at Jahāngīr's Court, and received Ūdchā and a command of three thousand horse as his reward.

"It has often been asserted," says the author of the Matasir "l-Umara, that Abū 'l-Fazl was an infidel. Some say he was a Hindū, or a fire-worshipper, or a free-thinker, and some go still further and call him an atheist: but others pass a juster sentence, and say that he was a pantheist, and that, like other Sūfis, he claimed for himself a position above the law of the Prophet. There is no doubt that he was a man of lofty character, and desired to live at peace with all men. He never

¹ Pages 523 and 509.

³ I may remark here that Abū 'l-Fazl never accepted a title.

said anything improper. Abuse, stoppages of wages, fines, absence on the part of his servants, did not exist in his household. If he appointed a man, whom he afterwards found to be useless, he did not remove him, but kept him on as long as he could; for he used to say that, if he dismissed him, people would accuse him of want of penetration in having appointed an unsuitable agent. On the day when the sun entered Aries, he inspected his whole household and took stock, keeping the inventory with himself, and burning last year's books. He also gave his whole wardrobe to his servants, with the exception of his trousers, which were burnt in his presence.

"He had an extraordinary appetite. It is said, that exclusive of water and fuel, he consumed daily twenty-two sers of food. His son 'Abdu r-Raḥmān used to sit at table as safarchī ' (head butler); the superintendent of the kitchen, who was a Muhammadan, was also in attendance and both watched to see whether Abū 'l-Fazl would eat twice of one and the same dish. If he did, the dish was sent up again the next day. If anything appeared tasteless, Abū 'l-Fazl gave it to his son to taste, and he to the superintendent, but no word was said about it. When Abū 'l-Fazl was in the Dakhīn, his table luxury exceeded all belief. In an immense tent (chihilrāwatī) one thousand rich dishes were daily served up and distributed among the Amīrs; and near it another large tent was pitched for all-comers to dine, whether rich or poor, and khichrī was cooked all day and was served out to any one that applied for it."

"As a writer, Abū 'l-Fazl stands unrivailed. His style is grand and is free from the technicalities and !!imsy prettiness of other Munshīs ³; and the force of his words, the structure of his sentences, the suitableness of his compounds, and the elegance of his periods, are such that it would be difficult for any one to imitate them."

It is almost useless to add to this encomium bestowed on Abū 'l-Faṛl's style. 'Abdu' 'llāh, king of Bukhārā, said that he was more afraid of Abū 'l-Faẓl's pen than of Akbar's arrow. Everywhere in India he is known as "the great Munshī". His letters are studied in all Madrasas, and though a beginner may find them difficult and perplexing, they are perfect models. But a great familiarity, not only with the Persian language, but also with Abū 'l-Faẓl's style, is required to make the reading of any of his works a pleasure. His composition stands unique, and though everywhere studied, he cannot be, and has not been, imitated. The writers

^{[1} Sufra-chi.—P.]

8 This is also the opinion of the author of the Haft Iqlim.

after him write in the style of the Pādishāhnāma, the ʿĀlamārā Sikandarī or in the still more turgid manner of the ʿĀlamgīrnāma, the Ruqʿāt Bedil, and other standard works on Inshā.

A praiseworthy feature of Abū 'l-Fazl's works lies in the purity of their contents. Those who are acquainted with Eastern literature will know what this means. I have come across no passage where woman is lightly spoken of, or where immorality is passed over with indifference. Of his love of truth and the nobility of his sentiments 1 have spoken in the Preface.

Abū 'l-Fazi's influence on his age was immense. It may be that he and Fayzī led Akbar's mind away from Islām and the Prophetanthis charge is brought against them by every Muhammadan writer; but Abu 'l-Fazl also led his sovereign to a true appreciation of his duties, and from the moment that he entered Court, the problem of successfully ruling over mixed races, which Islam in but few other countries had to solve, was carefully considered, and the policy of toleration was the result. If Akbar felt the necessity of this new law, Abū 'l-Fazl enunciated it and fought for it with his pen, and if the Khan Khanans gained the victories, the new policy reconciled the people to the foreign rule; and whilst Akbar's apostacy from Islam is all but forgotten, no emperor of the Mughul dynasty has come nearer to the ideal of a father of the people than he. The reversion, on the other hand, in later times to the policy of religious intoleration, whilst it has surrounded in the eyes of the Moslems the memory of Awrangzib with the halo of sanctity and still inclines the pious to utter a rahima- 'llah-hū (May God have mercy on him!) when his name is mentioned, was also the beginning of the breaking up of the empire.

Having elsewhere given numerous extracts from Badā, onī to show that Akbar's courtiers ascribed his apostacy from Islām to Fayzī and Abū 'l-Fazl, I need not quote other works, and will merely allude to a couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the Prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Odes in which he praises the prophetaire in the couplet by 'Urfī' from one of his Ode

O Prophet, protect the Joseph of my soul (i.e. my soul) from the harm of the brothers; for they are ungenerous and envious, and deceive me like evil sprites and lead me wolf-like to the well (of unbelief).

¹ Let the reader consult Gladwin's rendering of Abū 'l-Faşl's introduction to the fourth book of the A^a in. Gladwin's A^a in, ii, pp. 285-91. The passage is anti-Islamitic.

² For CUrfl vide p. 639. The metre of the couplet is Long Ramal.

The commentators unanimously explain this passage as an allusion to the brothers Fayzī and Abū 'l-Fazl. I may also cite the Tārīkh of Abū 'l-Fazl's death, which the Khān-i Aszam Mīrzā Koka is said to have made:—

تبغ اعجاز نبي الله سرباغي بريد

The wonderful sword of God's prophet cut off the head of the rebel.¹ But Abū 'l-Fazl appeared to him in a dream and said, "The date of my death lies in the words بنده ابو الفضل, "The slave Abū 'l-Fazl '—which likewise gives A.H. 1011.

Abū 'l-Fazl's works are the following:-

- (1) The Akbarnāma with the Ā^{*}īn-i Akbarī, its third volume. The Ā^{*}īn-i Akbarī was completed in the 42nd year of Akbar's reign; only a slight addition to it was made in the 43rd year on account of the conquest of Barār (A.D. 1596-7). The contents of the Akbarnāma have been detailed in the Preface. The second volume contains an account of the first forty-six years of Akbar's reign. There exists a continuation up to the end of Akbar's reign by Ināyatu 'llah Muḥibb Alī. Thus at least the continuator is called in two MSS, that I have seen. Esphinstone says that the name of the continuator is Muḥammad Salia, which seems to be a corruption of Muḥammad Ṣāliḥ.
- (2) The Maktūbūt-i SAllāmī, also called Inshā-yi Abū 'l-Fazl. This book contains letters written by Abū 'l-Fazl to kings and chiefs. Among them are the interesting letters written to the Portuguese priests, and to SAbdu 'llāh of Bukhārā, in reply to his question whether Akbar had renounced Islām. Besides, there are prefaces and reviews, a valuable essay on the progress of the act of writing, portions of which are given in the Aīn, etc. The collection was made after Abū 'l-Fazl's death by SAbdu 's-Samad, son of Afzal Muhammad, who says that he was a son of Abū 'l-Fazl's sister and also his son-in-law. The book, as above remarked, is frequently read in Madrasas, and there exist many lithographed editions. In all of them, the contents constitute three books; but Amīr Haydar Ḥuṣaynī of Bilgrām says in the preface to his Sawānih-i Akbaru's that he had a collection of four books, remarking at the same

The 46th year lasted from the 15th Ramasan, 1009, to 26th Ramasan, 1010, i.e. to

about five months before Abū 'l Fazl's death.

¹ The word الما haghs, a robel, has the numerical value of 1013; but the head (of the word, the letter با is cut off; hence 1013 - 2 = 1011, the year of the Hijra in which Abā 'l Faşl was murdered. The metre of the hemistich is Long Ramal.

Regarding this valuable work, vide p 331, note.

time that MSS. of the fourth are very rare. It looks, indeed, as if Amīr Haydar's copy was unique.

(3) The Ayar Danish, which is mentioned on p. 112.

Besides, I have seen in different books that Abū 'l-Fazl also wrote a Risālayi Munājāt, or "Treatise of Prayers"; a Jāmi's 'l-lughāt, a lexicographical work; and a Koshkol. The last word means a "beggar's cup", or rather the small basket or bowl in which beggars in the East collect rice, dates, etc., given as alms, and hence the term is often applied to collections of anecdotes or short stories. But I have seen no copies of these works. It was also mentioned above that Abū 'l-Fazl presented, on his introduction at Court, two commentaries, of which no MSS. seem to exist at present. Nor need I again refer to the part which he took in the translations from Sanskrit and the compilation of the Tārīkh-i Alfī.

The Durar* 'l-Manshūr, a modern Tazkira by Muḥammad 'Askarī Iļusaynī of Bilgrām, selects the following inscription written by Abū 'l-Fazl for a temple in Kashmīr as a specimen both of Abū 'l-Fazl's writing and of his religious belief. It is certainly very characteristic, and is easily recognized as Abū 'l-Fazl's composition.

اگر مسجدست بیاد تو نعرهٔ قدوس میزنند و اگر کلیسیاست بشوق تو انتوس می جنبانند
ای تبوغمت رادل عشاق نشانه خلقی بتو مشغول وتو غایب از مبانه گه معتکف دیره وگه ساکن مسجد یعنی که ترا میطلبم خانه بخانه گه معتکف دیره وگه ساکن مسجد یعنی که ترا می طلبم خانه بخانه اگر خامان ترا بکفر و اسلام کارے نیست این هردو را در بردهٔ اسلام تو بارے به کفر کافر را و دین دیندار را درهٔ وردی دل عطر را

Akbar seems to have looked upon these Kashmiri Rishis as model men.

¹ As the word is pronounced in India, instead of 'Iyār-i Dānish', 't the test of wisdom.'' The author of the *Haft Iqlim* seems to allude to this work; for he says that Abū 'l-Fazl, when he saw nim in a.H. 1000, was engaged in re-writing the Nawādir-i Hikāyāt.

when he saw nim in a.H. 1000, was engaged in re-writing the Nawadir-i Hikhyat.

2 Abu 'l-razl says in the fourth book of the Asin—"The best people in Kashmir are the Brahmans. Although they have not yet freed themselves from the fetters of blind belief and adherence to custom, they yet worship God without affectation. They do not sneer at people of other religions, utter no desires, and do not run after lucre. They plant fruit trees and thus contribute to the welfare of their fellow creatures. They abstain from meat, and live in celibacy. There are about two thousand of them in Kashmir."

این خانه بنیت ایتلاف قلوب مؤحدان هندوستان وخصود معبود برستان عرصهٔ کشمیر تعمیر یافته *

> بفرمان خدیواندت و افسر چراغ آفرینش شاه اکبر نظام اعتدال هفت معدن کمال امنزاج چار عنصر

هر که نظر صدّق نیند اخنه این خانه را خراب سازه باید که مخست: معبد خود را بیندازد چه اگر نظر بر دل است با همه ساختنی است واگر چشم بر آب وگل است همه بر انداختنی

واگر چشم بر آب و گل است همه بر آند آختنی خسد اوندا چسوداد کار دادی مسدار کار بر نیست نهسادی توثی بر بارگاه نسیت آگاه به پیش شاه داری نیت شاه

O God, in every temple I see people that seek Thee, and in every language I hear spoken, people praise Thee!

Polytheism and Islam feel after Thee,

Each religion says, "Thou art one, without equal."

If it be a mosque, people murmur the holy prayer, and if it be a Christian Church, people ring the bell from love to Thee.

Sometimes I frequent the Christian cloister, and sometimes the mosque,

But it is Thou whom I search from temple to temple.

Thy elect have no dealings with either heresy or orthodoxy; for neither of them stands behind the screen of Thy truth.

Heresy to the heretic, and religion to the orthodox,

But the dust of the rose petal belongs to the heart of the perfume-seller.

This temple was erected for the purpose of binding together the hearts of the Unitarians in Hindustan, and especially those of His worshippers that live in the province of Kashmir,

By order of the Lord of the throne and the crewn, the lamp of creation, Shah Akbar,

In whom the seven minerals find uniformity, in whom the four elements attain perfect mixture.2

He who from insincere motives destroys this temple, should first destroy his own place of worship; for if we follow the dictates of the heart, we must bear up with all men, but if we look to the external, we find everything proper to be destroyed.

¹ This line is Süfiatic. The longing of the heart after God is compared to the perfume which rises from the rose petals. The perfume-seller, i.e. the Unitarian, is truly religious, and is equally removed from herosy and orthodoxy.

² I.e. Akbar is the insan-i kimil, or perfect man.

O God, Thou art just and judgest an action by the motive :

Thou knowest whether a motive is sublime, and tellest the king what motives a king should have.

I have a few notes on Abū 'l-Fazl's family, which may form the conclusion of this biographical noticed. The A^*in gives the following list c Shaykh Mubārak's sons.

- 1. Shaykh Abū 'l-Fayz, better known under his poetical name c. Fayzī. He was born in A.H. 954 (A.D. 1547) and seems to have diec childless.
- 2. Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl, born 14th January, 1551, murdered 12th August, 1602.
- 3. Shaykh Abū 'l-Barakāt, born 17th Shawwāl, 960 (1552). "Though he has not reached a high degree of learning, he knows much, is a practical man, and well versed in fencing. He is good-natured and fond c
- 4. Shaykh Abū 'l-Khayr, born 22nd Jumāda I, 967. "He is a well-informed young man, of a regulated mind." He, too, must have entered the Imperial service; for he is mentioned in the Akbarnāma as having been sent by the emperor to the Dakhin to fetch Prince Dānyāl.

dervishes." He served under Abū 'l-Fazl in Khāndesh.

5. Shaykh Abū 'l-Makārim, born 23rd Shawwal, 976. He was wild at first, but guided by his father he learned a good deal. He also studied under Shāh Abū 'l-Fath Shīrāzī.

The above five sons were all by the same mother, who, as remarked above, died in 998.

6. Shaykh Abū Turāb, born 23rd Zil Hijjah, 988. "Though his mothe is another one, he is admitted at Court, and is engaged in self-improvement."

Besides the above, Abū 'l-Fazl mentions two posthumous sons by qummā, or concubines, viz. Shayklı Abū 'l-Ḥāmid, born 3rd Rabī II 1002, and Shaykh Abū Rāshid, born 1st Jumāda I, 1002. "They resemble their father."

Of Mubarak's daughters, I find four mentioned in the histories :-

- 1. One married to Khudaward Khān Dakhinī; vide p. 490. Bada, on calls her husband a Rafizī, i.e. a Shīah, and says he died in Karī in Gujarāt.
 - 2. One married to Ḥusām^u 'd-Dīn ; vide p. 488.
- 3. One married to a son of Rāja 'Alī Khān of Khandesh. Their son Şafdar Khān ' was made, in the 45th year of Akbar's reign, a commander of one thousand.

¹ The Lakhnau edition of the Akbarnama (III, 830) calls him Sundar Khan.

4. Lādlī Begam, married to Islām Khān; vide p. 552, note 1. Mr. T.W. Beale of Agra, the learned author of the Miftāhu-ttawārīkh, informs me that Lādlī Begam died in 1017, or five years before the death of her husband. Her mausoleum, called the "Rawzayi Lādlī Begam" is about two miles to the east of Akbar's mausoleum at Sikandra, near Āgra. The interior was built of marble, and the whole was surrounded by a wall of red Fathpūr sandstone. It was completed in 1004. In 1843, Mr. Beale saw in the Rawza several tombs without inscriptions, and a few years ago the place was sold by government to a wealthy Hindū. The new owner dug up the marble stones, sold them, and destroyed the tombs, so that of the old Rawza nothing exists nowadays but the surrounding wall. Mr. Beale thinks that the bodies of Shaykh Mubārak, Fayzī, and Abū 'l-Fazl were likuwise buried there, because over the entrance the following inscription in Tughrā characters may still be seen:—

بسم الله الرحمن الرحبم و به ثقتی * هذه الروضة للعالم الربانی و العارف الصمدانی جامع العام البيانی و العارف الصمدانی جامع العام شيخ مبارک الله قدس سره قد وفف ببياله هجر العلوم شيخ الوالفصل سلم الله تعالى فل دولة المملک العادل بطلبه العجد و الاقبال و الكرم جلال الدنبا و الدبن اكبر پادشاه غارى خلد الله تعالى ضلال سلطنته باهتمام جفرت ابى البركات فى سنة اربع و الف اا

In the name of God the merciful, the element, in whom I trust! This mausoleum was erected for the divine scholar, the sage of the eternal, the gatherer of knowledge, Shaykli Mubārakullah (may his secret be sanctified!), in filial piety by the ocean of sciences, Shaykli Abū 'l-Fazl—may God Almighty preserve him!—in the shadow of the majesty of the just king, whom power, auspiciousness, and generosity follow, Jalāluddunyā waddīn Akbar, Pādishāh-i Ghāzī—may God Almighty perpetuate the foundations of his kingdom!—under the superintendence of Abū 'l-Barakat, in 1004 (4.D. 1595-96).

Thus it will appear that the Rawza was built in the year in which Faysī died. Shaykh Mubārak as mentioned above, died in A.D. 1593. It seems, however, as if Shaykh Mubārak and Fayzī had been buried at a place opposite to Āgra, on the left bank of the Jamunā, where he first settled in 1551; for Abū 'l-Fazl says in his description of Āgra in the A²īn 1— "LOn the other side of the river is the Char Bagh Villa, built by Firdaws Makānī (the emperor Bābar). There the author was born, and

¹ My text edition, p. 111. Vide also p. 539 : Keene's Agra Guide, p. 47 and regarding Lädli Begum, p. 45. ? Ladli " means in Hindustäni " a pet ".

there are resting places of his father and his elder brother. Shaykh Alābu 'd-Dīn Majzūb and Mīr Rafīu'd-dīn Safawī and other worthies are also buried there." We have no information regarding a removal of the bodies to the other side of the Jamunā, though Abū 'l-Fazl's inscription no doubt shows that such a removal was intended. It is a pity, however, that the Rawza was sold and destroyed.

Abū 'l-Fazl's son is the well-known

SHAYKH SABDU 'R-RAHMIN AFZAL KHAN.

He was born on the 12th Sha^cbān, 979, and received from his grand-father the Sunnī name of ^cAbd^u 'r-Raḥmān. In the 35th year of Akbar's reign, when twenty years of age, Akbar married him to the daughter of Sa^cādat Yār Koka's brother. By her ^cAbd^u 'r-Raḥmān had a son, to whom Akbar gave the name of Bishotan.¹

When Abū 'l-Fazl was in command of the army in the Dakhin, 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān was, what the Persians call, the tīr-i-rū-yi tarkash-i-ū, "the arrow at hand at the top of the quiver", ever ready to perform duties from which others shrank, and wisely and courageously settling matters of importance. He especially distinguished himself in Talingāna. When Malik 'Ambar, in the 46th year, had caught 'Alī Mardān Bahādur (p. 556) and had taken possession of the country, Abū 'l-Fazl dispatched 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān and Sher Khwāja (p. 510) to oppose the enemy. They crossed the Godāwarī near Nānder, and defeated 'Ambar at the Mānjarā.

Jahāngīr did not transfer to the son the hatred which he had felt for the father, made him a commander of two thousand horse, gave him the title of Afzāl Khān, and appointed him, in the third year of his reign, governor of Bihār, vice Islām Khān (the husband of Abū 'l-Fazl's sister) who was sent to Bengal. Abdu 'r-Raḥmān also received Gorākhpūr as jāgīr. As governor of Bihār, he had his headquarters at Patna. Once during his absence from Patna, a dervish of the name of Qutbu 'd-dīn appeared in the district of Bhojpūr, which belonged to the then very troublesome Ujjainiya Rājās (p. 577, note), and gave out that he was Prince Khusra, whom his unsuccessful rebellion and imprisonment by Jahāngīr had made the favourite of the people. Collecting a large number of men, he marched on Patna, occupied the fort which Shaykl. Banārasī and Ghiyās Abdu 'r-Raḥmān's officers, cowardly gave up, and plundered Afzal Khān's property and the Imperial treasury. Abdu 'r-Raḥmān returned from Gorākhpūr as soon as he heard of the

¹ Which name was borne by the brother of Islandiyar, who is so often mentioned in Firdawsi's Shahnama.

rebellion. The pretender fortified Patna, and drew up his army at the Pun Pun River. 'Abdu'r-Raḥmān charged at once, and after a short fight dispersed the enemy. Quib now retreated to the fort, followed by 'Abdu'r-Raḥmān, who succeeded in capturing him. He executed the man at once, and sent his head to Court, together with the two cowardly officers. Jahāngīr, who was always minute in his punishments, had their heads shaved and women's veils put over the faces; they were then tied to donkeys, with their heads to the tails, and paraded through the towns (tashhīr) as a warning to others.

Not long after this affair, 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān fell ill, and went to Court, where he was well received. He lingered for a time, and died of an abscess, in the 8th year of Jahāngīr's reign (A.H. 1022) or eleven years after his father's murder.

Bishotan, son of SABDU 'R-RAHWAN, son of SHAYKA ABU 'L-FAZL.

He was born on the 3rd Zi Qa^cda, 999. In the 14th year of Jahangir's reign, he was a commander of seven hundred, with three hundred horse. In the 10th year of Shāh Jahān's reign, he is mentioned as a commander of five hundred horse, which rank he held when he died in the 15th year of the same reign.

BOOK FIRST THE IMPERIAL HOUSEHOLD

ABŪ 'L-FAZL'S PREFACE

ALLAHu AKBAR

O Lord, whose secrets are for ever veiled And whose perfection knows not a beginning, End and beginning, both are lost in Thee, No trace of them is found, in Thy eternal realm. My words are lame; my tongue, a stony tract; Slow wings my foot, and wide is the expanse. Confused are my thoughts; but this is Thy best praise, In certasy alone I see Thee face to face!

It is proper for a man of true knowledge to praise God not only in words, but also in deeds, and to endeavour to obtain everlasting happiness, by putting the window of his heart opposite the slit of his pen, and describing some of the wondrous works of the Creator. Perhaps the lustre of royalty may shine upon him, and its light enable him to gather a few drops from the ocean, and a few atoms from the endless field of God's works. He will thus obtain everlasting felicity and render fertile the dreary expanse of words and deeds.

I. Abū 'l-Fazl, son of Mubārak, zeturn thanksgiving to God by singing the praises of royalty, and by stringing its kingly pearls upon the thread of description; but it is not my intention to make mankind, for the first time, acquainted with the glorious deeds and excellent virtues of that remarkable man, who clothes our wonderful world in new colours, and is an ornament to God's noble creation. It would be absurd on my part to speak about that which is known; I should make myself the butt of the learned. It is only my personal knowledge of him, a priceless jewel, which I send to the market place of the world, and my heart feels proud of being engaged in such an under aking. But it could not have han, from self-laudation that I have taken upon myself to carry out so great a task-a work which even heavenly beings would find beset with difficulties; for such a motive would expose my inability and shortsightedness. My sole object in writing this work was, first, to i apact to all that take an interest in this auspicious century, a knowledge of the wisdom, magnanimity, and energy of him who understands the minutest indications of all things, created and divine, striding as he does

over the field of knowledge; and, secondly to leave future generations a noble legacy. The payment of a debt of gratitude is an ornament of life and a provision for man's last journey. There may be some in this world of ambitious strife, where natures are so different, desires so numerous, equity so rare, and guidance so scarce, who, by making use of this source of wisdom, will escape from the perplexities of the endless chaos of knowledge and deeds. It is with this aim that I describe some of the regulations of the great King, thus leaving for far and near, a standard work of wisdom. In doing so, I have, of course, to speak of the exalted position of a king, and also to describe the condition of those who are assistants in this great office.

No dignity is higher in the eyes of God than royalty; and those who are wise, drink from its auspicious fountain. A sufficient proof of this, for those who require one, is the fact that royalty is a remedy for the spirit of rebellion, and the reason why subjects obey. Even the meaning of the word Padishah shows this; for pad signifies stability and possession, and chāh means origin, lord. A king is, therefore, the origin of stability and possession. If royalty did not exist, the storm of strife would never subside, nor selfish ambition disappear. Mankind, being under the burden of lawlessness and lust, would sink into the pit of destruction; the world, this great market place would lose its prosperity, and the whole earth become a barren waste. But by the light of imperial justice, some follow with cheerfulness the road of obedience, whilst others abstain from violence through fear of punishment; and out of necessity make choice of the path of rectitude. Shah is also a name given to one who surpasses his fellows, as you may see from words like shah-surar, shah-rah; it is also a term applied to a bridgeroom the world, as the bride, betrothes herself to the King, and becomes his worshipper.

Silly and shortsighted men cannot distinguish a true king from a selfish ruler. Nor is this remarkable, as both have in common a large treasury, a numerous army, clover servants, obedient subjects, an abundance of wise men a multitude of skilful workmen, and a superfluity of means of enjoyment. But men of deeper insight remark a difference. In the case of the former, the things just now enumerated are lasting, but in that of the latter, of short duration. The former does not attach himself to these things, as his object is to remove oppression and provide for everything which is good. Security, health, chastity, justice, polite manners, faithfulness, truth, an increase of sincerity, etc., are the result. The latter is kept in bonds by the external forms of royal power, by

vanity, the slavishness of men, and the desire of enjoyment; hence, everywhere there is insecurity, unsettledness, strife, oppression, faithlessness, robbery.

Royalty is a light emanating from God, and a ray from the sun, the illuminator of the universe,1 the argument of the book of perfection, the receptacle of all virtues. Modern language calls this light farr-i vidi (the divine light), and the tongue of antiquity called it kiyan khura (the sublime halo). It is communicated by God to kings without the intermediate assistance of any one, and men, in the presence of it, bend the forehead of praise towards the ground of submission. Again, many excellent qualities flow from the possession of this light. 1. A paternal love towards the subjects. Thousands find rest in the love of the King; and sectarian differences do not raise the dust of strife. In his wisdom, the King will understand the spirit of the age, and shape his plans accordingly. 2. A large heart. The sight of anything disagreeable does not unsettle him; nor is want of discrimination for him a source of disappointment. His courage steps in. His divine firmness gives him the power of requital, nor does the high position of an offender interfere with it. The wishes of great and small are attended to, and their claims meet with no delay at his hands. 3. A daily increasing trust in God. When he performs an action, he considers God as the real doer of it (and himself as the medium), so that a conflict of motives can produce no 4. Prayer and derotion. The success of his plans will disturbance. not lead him to neglect; nor wide liversity cause him to torget God, and madly trust in man. He puts the cens of desire into the hands of reason; in the wide field of his desires he does not permit himself to be trodden down by restlessness, nor will be waste his precious time in seeking after that which is improper. He makes wrath, the tyrant, pay homage to wisdom, so that blind rage may not get the upper hand, and inconsiderateness overstep the proper limits. He s.ts on the eminence of propriety, so that those who have gone astray have a way left to return without exposing their bad deed: to the public gaze. When he sits in judgment, the petitioner seems to be the judge, and he bimself, on account of his vaildness, the suitor for justice. He does not permit petitioners to be delayed on the path of hope; he endeavours to promote the happiness of the creatures in obedience to the will of the Creator, and never seeks to please the people in contradiction to reason. He is for ever searching

Akbar worshipped the sun as the visible representative of God, and the immediate our of life and religious ratio and form of a coshing state by

after those who speak the truth, and is not displeased with words that seem bitter, but are in reality sweet. He considers the nature of the words and the rank of the speaker. He is not content with not committing violence, but he must see that no injustice is done within his realm.

He is continually attentive to the health of the body politic, and applies remedies to the several diseases thereof. And in the same manner that the equilibrium of the animal constitution depends upon an equal mixture of the elements, so also does the political constitution become well tempered by a proper division of ranks; and by means of the warmth of the ray of unanimity and concord, a multitude of people become fused into one body.

The people of the world may be divided into four classes.²—1. Warriors, who in the political body have the nature of fire. Their flames, directed by understanding, consume the straw and rubbish of rebellion and strife, but kindle also the lamp of rest in this world of disturbances. 2. Artificers and merchants, who hold the place of air. From their labours and travels, God's gifts become universal, and the breeze of contentment nourishes the rose-tree of life. 3. The learned, such as the philosopher, the physician, the arithmetician, the geometrician, the astronomer, who resemble water. From their pen and their wisdom, a river rises in the drought of the world, and the garden of the creation receives from their irrigating powers a peculiar freshness. 4. Husbandmen and labourers, who may be compared to earth. By their exertions, the staple of life is brought to perfection, and strength and happiness flow from their work.

It is therefore obligatory for a king to put each of these in its proper place, and by uniting personal ability with due respect for others, to cause the world to flourish.

And as the grand political body maintains its equilibrium by the above four ranks of men, so does royalty receive its final tint from a similar fourfold division.

1. The nobles of the state, who in reliance on their position lead everything to a happy issue. Illuminating the battle-field with the halo of devotedness, they make no account of their lives. These fortunate

¹ Thus, according to the medical theories of the middle ages.

² This passage resembles one in Firdausi's Shāhnāma, in the chapter entitled dar dastān-i Jamehid; vide also Vuller's Persian Dictionary, ii, 756, s. kātāzī. It is also found in the Akhlāq i Muheinī, chapter xv., dar 'adl in the Akhlāq i Jalālī, and the Akhlāq i Nāpirī, the oldest of the three Akhlāqs mentioned.

courtiers resemble fire, being ardent in devotion, and consuming in dealing with foes. At the head of this class is the Vakil, who from his having attained by his wisdom the four degrees of perfection,1 is the emperor's lieutenant in all matters connected with the realm and the household. He graces the Council by his wisdom, and settles with penetration the great affairs of the realm. Promotion and degradation, appointment and dismissal, depend on his insight. It requires therefore an experienced man who possesses wisdom, nobility of mind, affability, firmness, magnanimity, a man able to be at peace with any one, who is frank, single-minded towards relations and strangers, impartial to friends and enemies, who weighs his words, is skilful in business, well-bred, esteemed, known to be trustworthy, sharp and farsighted, acquainted with the ceremonies of the court, cognizant of the State secrets, prompt in transacting business, unaffected by the multiplicity of his duties. He should consider it his duty to promote the wishes of others, and base his actions on a due regard to the different ranks of men, treating even his inferiors with respect from the desire of attaching to himself the hearts of all. He takes care not to commit improprieties in conversation, and guards himself from bad actions. Although the financial offices. are not under his immediate superintendence, yet he received the returns from the heads of all financial offices, and wisely keeps abstracts of their returns.

The Mir mal,³ the Keeper of the seal the Mir-bakhshi,³ the Barbegi,⁴ the Qurbegi,⁵ the Mir-tozak,^a the Mir-bahri,⁷ the Mir-barr,⁸ the Mir-Manzil,² the Khwansalar,¹⁰ the Munshi,¹¹ the Qush-begi,¹² the Akhtabegi,¹³ belong to this class. Every one of them ought to be sufficiently acquainted with the work of the others.

¹ Akbar said that perfect devotedness consisted in the readiness of sacrificing four things—jān (life), māl (property), dīn (religion), numus (personal honour). Those who looked upon Akbar as a guide in spiritual matters / pīr)—an honour which Akbar much constant—promised to show this devotedness, and then belonged to the dīn-i vidār, or the Divine Faith, the articles of which Akbar had laid down, as may be seen below.

Perhaps an officer in charge of the Emperce's private purse
 Paymaster of the Court.

An officer who presents people at Court, their petitions, etc. He is also called Mir CArz.

bearer of the Imperial insignia.

Master of Cercaonies.

Harbour Master General and Admiral.
 Superintendent of the Imperial Forests.

Ouarter Master General of the Court. Akbar's court was frequently travelling.

¹⁰ Superintendent of the Imperial Kitchen.

¹¹ Private Secretary.
12 Superintendent of the aviaries (falcons, pigeons). [Head of the Mews.—P.]
13 Superintendent of the Stud.

2. The assistants of victory, the collectors and those entrusted with income and expenditure, who in the administration resemble wind, at times a heart-rejoicing breeze, at other times a hot, pestilential blast. The head of this division is the Vizier, also called Diwan. He is the lieutenant of the Emperor in financial matters, superintends the imperial treasuries, and checks all accounts. He is the banker of the cash of the revenue, the cultivator of the wilderness of the world. He must be a member of the Divine Faith, a skilful arithmetician, free from avarice, circumspect, warm-hearted, abstinent, active in business, pleasing in his style, clear in his writings, truthful, a man of integrity, condescending, zealous in his work. He is in reality a book-keeper. He explains all matters which appear too intricate for the Mustaws 1: and whatever is beyond his own ability he refers to the Vakil. The Mustawii, the Sahib-i Tawii,2 the Awarja Nawis,3 the Mir-Saman,4 the Nazir-i Buyūtāt,8 the Diwan-i Buyutat, the Mushrif, of the Treasury; the Waqisa Nawīs,8 the 5 Amil 9 of the domains, are under his orders, and act by the force of his wisdom.

Some princes consider the office of the Vizier as a part of that of the Vakīl, and are anxious to find in their realm a man who possesses the excellent qualities of these two pillars of the edifice of the State. But as they are not always able to find a person qualified for the office of a Vakīl, they make choice of a man who has some of his qualities, and appoint him as Mushrif-i Dīwān, which office is higher in rank than that of the Diwān, but lower than that of the Vakīl.

3. The companions of the king, who are the ornaments of the court by the light of their wisdom, the ray of their sharpsightedness, their knowledge of the times, their intimate acquaintance with human nature, their frankness and polite address. Through the excellence of their religious faith and good will, thousands open in the market place of the world the stores of virtue. Wisely fettering ambition on the battle-field of the world, they extinguish the sparks of wrath by the rain of their

Deputy Diwan.

^{*} The Accountant of the Army.

The Accountant of the daily expenditure at Court.
The officer in charge of the Court furniture, stores, etc.

Soper retendent of the Imperial workshops
 The Accountant of the Imperial workshops,

⁷ Clerk.

⁴ The Recorder.

[.] Collector.

wisdom; whence they resemble water in the affairs of the body political. When they are of a mild temperament, they remove the dust of affliction from the hearts of men, and bestow freshness upon the meadow of the nation; but if they depart from moderation, they inundate the world with a deluge of calamity, so that numbers are driven by the flood of misfortunes into the current of utter extinction.

At the head of this class stands the philosopher, who with the assistance of his wisdom and example purifies the morals of the nation, and girds himself with the noble aim of putting the welfare of mankind upon a sound basis. The Ṣadr,¹ the Mīr-ʿAdl, the Qāzī,² the physician, the astronomer, the poet, the soothsayer, belong to this class.

4. The servants who at court perform the duties about the king. They occupy in the system of the State the position of earth. As such, they lie on the high road of submission, and in dust before the majesty of the king. If free from chaff and dross, they are like an elixir for the body; otherwise they are dust and dirt upon the face of success. The table servant, the armour bearer, the servants in charge of the sharbest and the water, the servant in charge of the mattresses and the wardrobe, belong to this class.

If the king be waited on by servants to whom good fortune has given excellent qualities, there arises sometimes a harmony, which is like a nosegay from the flower-bed of auspiciousness.

Just as the welfare of the whole world depends upon the successful working of the above-mentioned four classes, as settled by kings, so does the body politic depend upon the proper formation of the latter four divisions.

The sages of antiquity mention the following four persons as the chief supports of the State:—1. An upright ollecter, who protects the husbandman, watches over the subjects, develops the country, and improves the revenues. 2. A conscientious commander of the army, active and strict. 3. A chief justice, free from avance and selfishness, who sits on the eminence of circumspection and insight and obtains his ends by putting various questions, without exclusively relying on witnesses and oaths. 4. An intelligencer, who transmits the events of the time without addition or diminution, always keeping to the thread of truth and penetration.

¹ Also called Sadr-i Jakan, the Chief Justice and Administrator General of the empire.

^{*} The Qaşi bears the case; the Mir CAdl passes the sentence.

It is moreover incumbent on a just king to make himself acquainted with the characters of the following five kinds 1 of men of whom the world is composed, and act accordingly. 1. The most commendable person is the sagacious man who prudently does that which is proper and absolutely necessary. The fountain of his virtues does not only run along his channel, but renders verdant the fields of other men. is the fittest person for a king to consult in State affairs. After him comes, secondly, the man of good intentions. The river of his virtues does not flow over its bed, and does not therefore become an irrigating source for others. Although it may be proper to show him kindness and respect, yet he does not merit so high a degree of confidence. Inferior to him is, thirdly, the simple man, who does not wear the badge of excellence upon the sleeve of his action, yet keeps the hem of his garment free from the dust of wicked deeds. He does not deserve any distinction; but ought to be allowed to live at his ease. Worse than he is, fourthly, the inconsiderate man, who fills his house with furniture for his own mischief, without, however, doing harm to others. Him the king should keep in the hot place of disappointment, and bring him into the road of virtue by good advice and severe reprehension. The last of all is the vicious man, whose black deeds alarm others and throw, on account of their viciousness, a whole world into grief. If the remedies employed in the case of men of the preceding class, do not amend him, the king should consider him as a leper, and confine him separate from mankind; and provided this harsh treatment does not awaken him from his sleep of error, he should feel the torture of grief, and be banished from his dwelling; and if this remedy produce no effect either, he should be driven out of the kingdom to wander in the wilderness of disappointment, and if even this should not improve his vicious nature, he should be deprived of the instruments of his wickedness, and lose his sight, or his hand, or his foot. But the king ought not to go so far as to cut the thread of his existence; for inquiring sages consider the human form as an edifice made by God, and do not permit its destruction.

It is therefore necessary for just kings, to make themselves first acquainted with the rank and character of men, by the light of insight and penetration, and then to regulate business accordingly. And hence it is that the sages of ancient times have said that princes who wear the

¹ The following is a free paraphrase of a passage in the Akhlāq-i Mubsini, Chapter XXXII, entitled dar siyāsat.

jewel of wisdom do not appoint every low man to their service; that they do not consider every one who has been appointed, to be deserving of daily admittance; that those who are thus favoured, are not therefore deemed worthy to sit with them on the carpet of intercourse; that those who are worthy of this station, are not necessarily admitted to the pavilion of familiar address. that those who have this privilege, are not therefore allowed to sit in the august assembly; that those upon whom this ray of good fortune falls, are not therefore let into their secrets; and that those who enjoy the happiness of this station, are not therefore fit for admission into the Cabinet Council.

Praise be to God, the Giver of every good gift! The exalted monarch of our time is so endowed with these laudable dispositions, that it is no exaggeration to call him their exordium. From the light of his wisdom, he discerns the worth of men, and kindles the lamp of their energy; whilst ever clear to himself, and without an effort, he adorns his wisdom with the beauty of practice. Who can measure, by the rules of speech, his power as a spiritual leader, and his works in the wide field of holiness; and even if it were possible to give a description of it, who would be able to hear and comprehend it? The best thing I can do is to abstain from such an attempt, and to confine myself to the description of such of his wonderful doings as illustrate the worldly side of his nature, and his greatness as a king. I shall speak:—

First, of his regulations concerning the household; secondly, of the regulations concerning the army; thirdly, of the regulations concerning the empire, as these three contain the whole duty of a king. In doing so, I shall leave practical inquirers a present, which may seem difficult to understand, but which is easy; or rather, which may seem easy, but is in reality difficult.

Experienced men who are acquainted with the art of governing, and versed in the history of the past, cannot comprehend how monarchs have hitherto governed, without these wise regulations and how the garden of royalty could have been fresh and verdant, without being irrigated by this fountain of wisdom.

This sublime volume then, is arranged under three heads; it enables me, in some measure, to express my feelings of gratitude for favours received.

¹ Akbar as the spiritual leader of the members belonging to the Divine Faith wrought many miracles, of which some are related in the seventy seventh A^* is of this book.

Remark by the Author.—As I had sometimes to use Hindl words, I have carefully described the consonants and vowels. Inquirers will therefore have no difficulty in reading; nor will any confusion arise from mistakes in copying. Letters like alif. Idm and a few more, are sufficiently clear from their names. Some letters I have distinguished as manquia, and letters similar in form, without such a limitation. Letters which are purely Persian, have been distinguished as such; thus the p in padia, the che in chaman, the gāf in nigār, the zh in muzhda. Sometimes I have added to the names of these letters, the phrase having three points. Letters peculier to the Hindl language I have distinguished as Hindl. The letter y as in rūy, I have called tahtūni, and the te, as in dast, favogāni. The b in adab, I have merely called be. Similarly, the letters nūn, uāu, yā, and he, when clearly sounded, have been merely described as nūn, uāu, etc. The nasal nūn I have called nūn-i thafi, or nūn-i pinhūn. The final and silent h, as in farkhunda, I have called maktūb, i.e. written, but not pronounced. The i and u, when modified to e or o I have called mahūl. As consonants followed by an alif have the vowela, it was not necessary to specify their vowels.

BOOK FIRST.

THE IMPERIAL HOUSEHOLD.

$\bar{A}^{\mathfrak{p}}$ in 1.

THE HOUSEHOLD.

He is a man of high understanding and noble aspirations who, without the help of others, recognizes a ray of the Divine power in the smallest things of the world; who shapes his inward and outward character accordingly, and shows due respect to himself and to others. He who does not possess these qualifications, ought not to engage in the struggle of the world, but observe a peaceable conduct. If the former be given to retirement, he will cultivate noble virtues; and it his position be a dependent one, he will put his whole heart in the management of his affairs, and tead a life free from distressing cares.

True greatness, in spiritual and in worldly matters, does not shrink from the minutize of business, but regards their performance as an act of Divine worship.¹

If he cannot perform everything himself, he ought to select, guided by insight, and practical wisdom, or e or two men of sagacity and understanding, of liberal views in religious matters, possessing diligence and a knowledge of the human heart, and be guided by their advice.

The wise esteem him not a king who confines his attention to great matters only, although some impartial judges excuse a king that does so, because avaricious sycophants who endeavour by cumoing to obtain the position of the virtuous, often remind him of the difference of ranks, and succeed in lulling asleep such kings as are fend of external greatness, their only object being to make a trade of the revenues of the country, and to promote their own interests. But good princes make no difference between great and small matters; they take, with the assistance of God, the burden of this world and the responsibility of the world to come, on the shoulder of resolution, and are yet free and independent, as is the case with the king of our time. In his wisdom, he makes himself acquainted with the successful working of every department which, although former monarchs

have thought it derogatory to their greatness, is yet the first step towards the establishment of a good government. For every branch he has made proper regulations, and he sees in the performance of his duty a means of obtaining God's favour.

The success of this vast undertaking depends upon two things: first, wisdom and insight, to call into existence suitable regulations; secondly, a watchful eye, to see them carried out by men of integrity and diligence.

Although many servants of the household receive their salaries on the list of the army, there was paid for the household in the thirty-ninth year of the Divine era, the sum of 309,186,795 dāms.\(^1\) The expenses of this account, as also the revenues, are daily increasing. There are more than one hundred offices and workshops each resembling a city, or rather a little kingdom; and by the unremitting attention of his Majesty, they are all conducted with regularity, and are constantly increasing, their improvement being accompanied by additional care and supervision on the part of his Majesty.

Some of the regulations I shall transmit, as a present, to future enquirers, and thus kindle in others the lamp of wisdom and energy.

As regards those regulations which are of a general nature, and which from their subject matter belong to each of the three divisions of the work, I have put them among the regulations of the Household.

\tilde{A}^{2} in 2.

THE IMPERIAL TREASURIES.

Every man of sense and understanding knows that the best way of worshipping God, consists in allaying the distress of the times, and in improving the condition of man. This depends, however, on the advancement of agriculture, on the order kept in the king's household, on the readiness of the champions of the empire, and the discipline of the srmy. All this is again connected with the exercise of proper care on the part of the monarch, his love for the people and with an intelligent management of the revenues and the public expenditure. It is only when cared for, that the inhabitants of the towns and those of the rural districts, are able to satisfy their wants, and to enjoy prosperity. Hence it is incumbent on just kings, to care for the former, and to protect the latter class of men. If some say that to collect wealth, and to ask for more

¹ Or, 7.729.669 Rupees. One rupee (of Akbar) = 40 dams. The Divine era, or Tririgh-i /Libi, is Akbar's solar era, the commencement of which falls on the 19th February, 1556; hence the thirty-ninth year corresponds to A.D. 1596.

than is absolutely necessary, is looked upon as contemptible by people given to retirement and seclusion, whilst the opposite is the case with the inhabitants of the towns, who live in a dependent position, I would answer that it is after all only shortsighted men who make this assertion; for in reality both classes of men try to obtain that which they think necessary. Poor, but abstemious people take a sufficient quantity of food and raiment, so as to keep up the strength necessary for the pursuit of their enquiries, and to protect them against the influence of the weather; whilst the other class think to have just sufficient, when they fill their treasuries, gather armies, and reflect on other means of increasing their power.

It was from such views, when lifting the veil and beginning to pay attention to these weighty concerns, that his Majesty entrusted his inmost secrets to the Khwāja-sarā Istimād Khān,1 a name which his Majesty had bestowed upon him as a fitting title. On account of the experience of the Khweija, the reflections of his Majesty took a practical turn, widened by degrees, and shone at last forth in excellent regulations. An enquiry regarding the income of the different kinds of land was set on foot, and successfully concluded by the wisdom of upright and experienced men. With a comprehensiveness which knew no difference between friends and strangers, the lands which paid rents into the imperial exchaquer were separated from the Jagir lands; and zealous and apright men were put in charge of the revenues, each over one know of dams. Incorruptible bitakchis 2 were selected to assist them, and intelligent treasurers were appointed, one for each. And from knightess and care for the agricultural classes, it was commanded that the collectors should not insist upon the husbandman paying coin in full weight, but to give him a receipt for whatever species of money he might bring. This laudable regulation removed the rust of uncertaint" from the minds of the collectors, and

¹ Istimad means trustworthiness. Khwaja-sarā is the title of the chief cunuch. His real name was Phul Malik. After serving Salim Shah (1545 to 1553), who bestowed upon him the title of Muhammad Khān, he entered Akbar's service. Akbar, after the death of Shamse 'd-Din Muhammad Atgah khān, h's fester father, commenced to look into matters of finance, and finding the Revenue Department a len of thieves, he appointed Istimad Khān, to remodel the finances, making him a commander of One Thousand (vide Abū 1-Karl's list of Akbar's grandees, in part second, No. 119), and conferring upon him the title of Istimad Khān. He appears to have performed his duties to Akbar's satisfaction. In 1565, he conveyed the daughter of Miran Mubarak, king of Khāndesh (1535 to 1566), to Akbar's harem, took afterwards a part in the conquest of Bengal, where he distinguished himself, and was, in 1576, appeinted governor of Bhakkar. When in 1578 Akbar's presence was required in the Panjāb, Istimād Khān desired to join him. In order to equip his contaigent, he collected his rents and outstandings, as it appears with much harshness. This led to a conspiracy against his life. In the same year he was murdered by a man named Maqsūd Sahi. Ma®deira 'l-Umard's.

relieved the subjects from a variety of oppressions, whilst the income became larger, and the state flourished. The fountain of the revenue having thus been purified, a zealous and honest man was selected for the general treasurership, and a dārogha and a clerk were appointed to assist him. Vigilance was established, and a standard laid down for this department.

Whenever a (provincial) treasurer had collected the sum of two lakes of $d\bar{c}ms$, he had to send it to the Treasurer General at the Court, together with a memorandum specifying the quality of the sum.

A separate treasurer was appointed for the peshkash receipts, another for receiving heirless property, another for nazr receipts, and another for the moneys expended in weighing the royal person, and for charatable donations. Proper regulations were also made for the disbursements; and honest superintendents, dāroghas and clerks were appointed. The sum required for the annual expenditure, are paid at the General Treasury to each cashkeeper of the disbursements, and correct receipts granted for them. A proper system of accounts having thus been inaugurated, the empire began to flourish. In a short time the treasuries were full, the army was augmented, and refractory rebels led to the path of obedience.

In Irān and Tūrān, where only one treasurer is appointed, the accounts are in a confused state; but here in India, the amount of the revenues is so great, and the business so multifarious that twelve treasurers are necessary for storing the money, nine for the different kinds of cash-payments, and three for precious stones, gold, and inlaid jewellery. The extent of the treasuries is too great to admit of my giving a proper description with other matters before me. From his knowledge of the work, and as a reward for labour, his Majesty very often expresses his satisfaction, or conveys reprimands; hence everything is in a flourishing condition.

Separate treasurers were also appointed for each of the Imperial workshops the number of which is nearly one hundred. Daily, monthly, quarterly, and yearly accounts are kept of the receipts and disbursements, so that in this branch also the market-place of the world is in a flourishing condition.

Again by the order of his Majesty a person of known integrity keeps in the public audience hall, some gold and silver for the needy, who have their wants relieved without delay. Moreover, a karor of dams is kept in readiness within the palace, every thousand of which is kept in bags made of a coarse material. Such a bag is called in Hindi sahsah,4

¹ Tributes.

Wide the eighteenth A's fa of the second book.

Presents, vows, etc.
[4 Sahawa 8.—P]

and many of them, when put up in a heap, ganj. Besides, his Majesty entrusts to one of the nobility a large sum of money, part of which is carried in a purse. This is the reason, why such disbursements are called in the language of the country kharj-i bahlah.

All these benefits flow from the wonderful liberality of his Majesty, and from his unremitting care for the subjects of the empire. Would to God

that he might live a thousand years!

Atīn 3.

THE TREASURY FOR PRECIOUS STONES.

If I were to speak about the quantity and quality of the stones it would take me an age. I shall therefore give a few particulars, "gathering an ear from every sheaf."

His Majesty appointed for this office an intelligent, trustworthy, clever treasurer, and as his assistants, an experienced clerk, a zerlous $d\bar{a}rog\underline{h}a$, and also skilful jewellers. The foundation therefore of this important department rests upon those four pillars. They classified the jewels, and thus removed the just of confusion.

Rubies. 1st class rubies, not less than 1000 muhrs in value, 2nd class from 999 to 500 muhrs; 3rd class, from 499 to 300; 4th class, from 299 to 200; 5th class from 199 to 100; 6th class, from 99 to 60; 7th class, from 59 to 40; 8th class, from 39 to 30; 9th class, from 29 to 10; 10th class, from 97 to 5; 11th class, from 47 to 1 muhr. 12th class, from 7 muhr to 1 rupee. They made no account of rubies of less value.

Diamonds, emeralds, and the red and blue yāqūts, were classified as follows. 1st class, from 30 mulns upwards: 2nd class, from 29\frac{1}{2} to 15 mulns; 3rd class, from 14\frac{1}{2} to 12. 4th class, from 11\frac{1}{2} to 10., 5th class, from 9\frac{1}{2} to 7; 6th class, from 6\frac{1}{2} to 5; 7th class, from 4\frac{1}{2} to 3; 8th class, from 2\frac{1}{2} to 2: 9th class, from 1\frac{1}{2} to 1 muln; 10th class, from 8\frac{1}{2} rupees to 5 rupees; 11th class, from 4\frac{1}{2} to 2 rupees, 12th class, from 1\frac{1}{2} to \frac{1}{2} rupee.

The Pearls were divided into 16 classes, and strung by scores. The first string contained twenty pearls, each of a value of 30 muhrs and upwards; 2nd class pearls varied from 29\frac{2}{3} to 15 muhrs; 3rd class, from 14\frac{3}{4} to 12; 4th class, from 11\frac{3}{4} to 10. 5th class, from 9\frac{2}{4} to 7; 6th class, from 6\frac{3}{4} to 5; 7th class, from 4\frac{3}{4} to 3; 5th class, from 2\frac{3}{4} to 2; 9th class,

¹ A purse in Hindi iš called bahla. Buhia, P. a purse, a falconer's glore. -- P.]

from 1½ to 1; 10th class, less than a muhr, down to 5 rupees; 11th class, less than 5, to 2 rupees; 12th class, less than 2 rupees, to 1½ rupees; 13th class, less than 1½ rupees, to 30 dāms; 14th class, less than 30 dāms, to 20 dāms; 15th class, less than 20 dāms, to 10 dāms; 16th class, less than 10 dāms, to 5 dāms. The pearls are strung upon a number of strings indicating their class, so that those of the 16th class are strung upon 16 strings. At the end of each bundle of strings the imperial seal is affixed, to avoid losses arising from unsorting, whilst a description is attached to each pearl, to prevent disorder.

The following are the charges for boring pearls, independent of the daily and monthly wages of the workmen. For a pearl of the 1st class, $\frac{1}{4}$ rupee; 2nd class, $\frac{1}{8}$; 3rd class, $\frac{1}{10}$ rupee; 4th class, $3 \, d\bar{a}ms$; 5th class, $1 \, s\bar{u}k\bar{i}^{\,1}$; 6th class, $1 \, d\bar{a}m$; 7th class, $\frac{3}{4} \, d\bar{a}m$; 8th class, $\frac{1}{4} \, d\bar{a}m$; 9th class, $\frac{1}{4} \, d\bar{a}m$; 10th class, $\frac{1}{6} \, d\bar{a}m$; 11th class, $\frac{1}{6} \, d\bar{a}m$; 12th class, $\frac{1}{7} \, d\bar{a}m$; 13th class, $\frac{1}{8} \, d\bar{a}m$; 15th class, $\frac{1}{10} \, d\bar{a}m$; 16th class, $\frac{1}{11} \, d\bar{a}m$, and less.

The value of jewels is so well known that it is useless to say anything about it; but those which are at present in the treasury of his Majesty may be detailed as follows:—

Rubies weighing 11 tānks, 20 surkhs, 3 and diamonds of 5½ tānks, 4 surkhs, each one lākh of rupees; emeralds weighing 17½ tānks, 3 surkhs, 52,000 rupees; yāqūts of 4 tānks, 7½ surkhs, and pearls of 5 tānks, each 50,000 rupees.

Atin 4.

THE IMPERIAL MINT.

As the successful working of the mint increases the treasure, and is the source of despatch for every department, I shall mention a few details.

The inhabitants of the towns and the country perform their transactions by means of money. Every man uses it according to the extent of his necessities; the man whose heart is free from worldly desires

[[] Sūki s m. and sūki f. H., a four-anna bit.]

¹² Tik H. = 4 māshā.—P.]

* Furth means red; also, a little seed with a black dot on it, called in Hind. ghungchi, Abrus procatorius. The Persians called it chashm-i thurus, cock's eye. The seeds are often used for chikiren's bracelets. Abū 'l-Farl means here the weight called in Hind. rati, vulg. ratii. 8 surkhs, or 8 ratis = 1 māshā; 12 māshās = 1 tolā, and 80 tolās = 1 ser. A tānk is valued at 4 māshās; but it must have weighed a little more, as in the tenth Asin, Abū 'l-Farl states that the weight of 1 dām was 5 tānks, or 1 tolā, 8 māshās, 7 surkhs; i.e., 1 tānk = 147 māshās = 4 māshās, 1 surkhs.

4 Text 14 tānks.

sustains by it his life, and the worldly man considers it the final stage of his objects—the wants of all are satisfied by it. The wise man looks upon it as the foundation, from which the fulfilment of his worldly and religious wishes flows. It is absolutely necessary for the continuance of the human race, as men obtain by money their food and clothing. You may indeed gain these two things by undergoing some labour, as sowing, rearing, reaping, cleaning, kneading, cooking, twisting, spinning, weaving, etc.; but these actions cannot well be performed without several helpers; for the strength of a single man is not sufficient, and to do so day after day would be difficult, if not impossible. Again, man requires a dwelling, for keeping his provisions. This he calls his home, whether it be a tent, or a cave. Man's existence, and the continuance of his life, depend on five things—a father, a mother, children, servants, food, the last of which is required by all. Moreover, money is required, as our furniture and utensils break; they last in no case very long. But money does last long, on account of the strength and compactness of its material, and even a little of it may produce much. It also enables men to travel. How difficult would it be to carry provisions for several days, let alone for several months or years!

By the help of God's goodness this excellent precious metal (gold) has come to the shore of existence, and filled the store of life without much labour on the part of man. By means of gold, man carries out noble plans, and even performs Divine worship in a proper manner. Gold has many valuable qualities: it possesses softness, a good taste, and smell. Its component parts are nearly equal ton weight; and the marks of the four elements are visible in its properties. Its colour reminds us of fire, its purity of air, its softness of water, its braviness of earth thence gold possesses many life-giving rays. Nor can any of the four elements injure it; for it does not burn in the fire; it remains unaffected by air; retains for ages its appearance although kept in water, and does not get altered when buried in the ground, whereby gold is distinguished from the other metals. It is for this reason that in old books on philosophy in which man's intellect is termed the greater principle, gold is called the lesser minciple, as the things required for human life depend upon it. Among its epithets I may mention "the guardian of justice"; "the universal adjuster "-and, indeed, the adjustment of things depends on gold,

name! "... Hariri.

According to the chemists of the middles ages, gold counsts of quicksilver and sulphur taken in equal proportions; the latter must, however, possess colouring properties. Vide the thirteenth Asia. Were it not for picty, I would how down to gold and say, 'Hallowed be thy

and the basis of justice rests upon it. To render it service, God has allowed silver and brass to come into use, thus creating additional means for the welfare of man. Hence just kings and energetic rulers have paid much attention to these metals, and erected mints, where their properties may be thoroughly studied. The success of this department lies in the appointment of intelligent, zealous, and upright workmen, and the edifice of the world is built upon their attention and carefulness.

Āsīn 5.

THE WORKMEN OF THE MINT

- 1. The Dārogha. He must be a circumspect and intelligent man, of broad principles, who takes the cumbrous burden of his colleagues upon the shoulder of despatch. He must keep every one to his work, and show zeal and integrity.
- 2. The Sayrafi.¹ The success of this important department depends upon his experience, as he determines the degrees of purity of the coins. On account of the prosperity of the present age, there are now numbers of skilful sarrāfs, ¹ and by the attention of his Majesty, gold and silver are refined to the highest degree of purity. The highest degree of purity is called in Persia dahdahī, but they do not know above 10 degrees of fineness; whilst in India it it called bārahbānī, as they have twelve degrees. Formerly the old hun, which is a gold coin current in the Deccan, was thought to be pure, and reckoned at ten degrees; but his Majesty has now fixed it at 8½: and the round, small gold dīnār of Ahāa 'd-Din.² which was considered to be 12 degrees, now turns out to be 104.

Those who are experienced in this business have related wonderful stories of the purity of gold at the present time, and referred it to witch-craft and alchemy; for they maintain, that gold ore does not come up to this fineness. But by the attention of his Majesty, it has come up to this degree, hence the astonishment of people acquainted with this branch. It is, however, tertain, that gold cannot be made finer, and of a higher degree. Honest describers and truthful travellers have indeed never mentioned this degree, but, when gold is put into fusion, small particles separate from t, and mix with the ashes, which ignorant men look upon as aseless dross, whilst the skilful recover the metal from it. Although matleable gold ore be calcined and reduced to ashes, yet by a

I The same as Sayraf or Sarrif; hence a shroff, a money lender, $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ the same as Sayraf or Sarrif;







certain operation, it is brought back to its original state; but a part of it is lost. Through the wisdom of his Majesty, the real circumstances connected with this loss, were brought to light, and the fraudulent practices of the workmen thus put to the test.

Atin 6.

BANWĀRĪ.1

An abbreviation for bānuārī. Although in this country clever sayrafīs are able from experience to tell the degree of fineness by the colour and the brightness of the metal, the following admirable rule has been introduced for the satisfaction of others.

To the ends of a few long needles, made of brass or such like metal, small pieces of gold are affixed, having their degree of fineness written on them. When the workmen wish to assay a new piece of gold, they first draw with it a few lines on a touchstone, and some other lines with the needles. By comparing both sets of lines, they discover the degree of fineness of the gold. It is, however, necessary that the lines be drawn in the same manner, and with the same force, so as to avoid deception.

To apply this rule, it is necessary to have gold of various degrees of fineness. This is obtained as follows. They melt together one masha of pure sliver with the same quantity of best copper; and let it get solid. This mixture they again melt with 6 mushus of pure gold of 104 degrees of fineness. Of this composition one masher 2 is taken, and divided into sixteen parts of half a surkh each. If now 71 surkhs of pure gold (of 104 degrees) are mixed with one of the sixteen parts of the composition, the touch of the new mixture will only be 101 ban. Similarly, 7 surkhs pure gold and two parts of the composition meled together, will give gold of 1) ban ; 64 s. pure gold and three parts composition 93 ban : 6 s. gold and four parts composition, 94 ban; 54 s. gold and five parts composition, 94 ban; Se. gold and six parts composition, 9 New 14 & gold and seven parts composition, 87 hin, 4 s. gold and eight parts composition, 81 ban; 31 s. gold and nine parts composition, 8% hin : 3 s. gell and ten parts composition, 8 ban , 21 s gold and eleven pares composition, 7f ban : 2 s. gold and twelve parts composition. It ban: It s. gold and thirteen parts composition. 71 bas; 1 s. gold and four-cen parts composition, 7 ban; and

This Hind word, which is not given in the lationaries, means the lesting of a This means ountains 6 parts gold, I part silver, and I part ropper, see, I gold and alloy.

The Hind, term ben means "temper, degree"

lastly, $\frac{1}{2}$ s. gold and fifteen parts composition, $6\frac{3}{4}$ $b\bar{a}n$. Or generally, every additional half $sur\underline{k}\underline{h}$ (or one part) of the composition diminishes the fineness of the gold by a quarter $b\bar{a}n$, the touch of the composition itself being $6\frac{1}{4}$ $b\bar{a}n$.

If it be required to have a degree less than 61 ban, they mix together $\frac{1}{2}$ surkh of the first mixture which consisted, as I said, of silver and copper, with $7\frac{1}{2}$ surkhs of the second composition (consisting of gold, copper, and silver), which, when melted together, gives gold of $6\frac{1}{4}$ ban; and if 1 surkh of the first mixture be melted together with 7 surkhs of the second composition, the result will be 6 ban; and if they require still baser compositions, they increase the mixtures by half surkhs. But in the Banwari, they reckon to 6 bans only, rejecting all baser compositions.

All this is performed by a man who understands the tests.

3. The Amīn. He must possess impartiality and integrity, so that friends and enemies can be sure of him. Should there be any differences, he assists the dārogha and the other workmen, maintains that which is right, and prevents quarrels.

4. The Mushrif. He writes down the daily expenditure in an upright

and practical manner, and keeps a systematic day-book.

5. The Merchant. He buys up gold, silver, and copper, by which he gains a profit for himself, assists the department, and benefits the revenues of the State. Trade will flourish, when justice is everywhere to be had, and when rulers are not avaricious.

6. The Treasurer. He watches over the profits, and is upright in all his dealings.

The salaries of the first four and the sixth officers differ from each other, the lowest of them holding the rank of an Aḥadī.¹

- 7. The Weighman. He weighs the coins. For weighing 100 jalālī gold-muhrs he gets $1\frac{3}{4}$ dāms; for weighing 1000 rupees, $6\frac{1}{2}$ dāms; and for weighing 1000 copper dāms, $\frac{1}{2}$ of a dām; and, after this rate, according to the quantity.
- 8. The Melter of the Ore. He makes small and large trenches in a tablet of clay, which he besmears with grease, and pours into them the melted gold and silver, to cast them into ingots. In the case of copper, instead of using grease, it is sufficient to sprinkle ashes. For the above-

The Abadic corresponds to our warrant officers. Most clerks of the Imperial offices, the painters of the court, the foremen in Akbar's workshops, etc., belonged to this corps. They were called Abadis, or single men, because they stood under Akbar's immediate orders. The word Abadi, the b of which is the Arabic , was spelt in official returns with the Persian s. So deep-rooted, says Badšoni, was Akbar's hatred for everything which was Arabic. [This word has come to mean in Urdu, lazy, indolent.—P.]

mentioned quantity of gold, he gets $2\frac{\pi}{3}$ dāms; for the same quantity of silver, 5 dāms and $13\frac{\pi}{4}$ jetals; for the same quantity of copper, 4 dāms and $21\frac{\pi}{4}$ jetals.

9. The Platemaker. He makes the adulterated gold into plates of six or seven māshas each, six fingers in length and breadth; these he carries to the assay master, who measures them in a mould made of copper, and stamps such as are suitable, in order to prevent alterations and to show the work done. He receives as wages for the above-mentioned quantity of gold, 423 dāms.

ðin 7.

THE MANNER OF REFINING GOLD.

When the above-mentioned plates have been stamped, the owner gold, for the weight of every 100 jalālī gold muhrs, must furnish 2 four se saltpetre, and four sers of brickdust of raw bricks. The plates, after having been washed in clean water, are stratified with the above mixture (of the saltpetre and brickdust), and put one above the other, the whole being covered with cowdung, which in Hindi is called upla. It is the dry dung of the Wild Cow. Then they set fire to it, and let it gently burn, till the dung is reduced to ashes, when they leave it to cool; then, these ashes being removed from the sides, are preserved. They are called in Pernian khāk-i khālis, and in Hindi salonī. By a process, to be mentioned hereafter, they recover silver from it. The plates, and the ashes below them, are left as they are. This process of setting fire to the dung, and removing the ashes at the sides, is twice repeated. When three fires have been applied, they call the plates site. They are then again washed in clean water, and stratified three times with the above mixture, the ashes of the sides being removed.

This operation must be repeated till six mixtures and eighteen fires have been applied, when the plates are again washed. Then the assay master breaks one of them; and if there comes out a soft and mild sound, it is a sign of its being sufficiently pure; but if the sound is harsh, the plates must undergo three more fires. Then from each of the plates one masks is taken away, of which aggregate a plate is made. This is ried on the touchstone; if it is not sufficiently fine, the gold has again to pass through one or two fires. In most cases, however, the desired effect is obtained by three or four fires.

¹ Twenty-five jetals make one dam. Vide the 10th .15 in.

^{[*} Use,—P.]
[* Sajrā*î. This probably means jungii; i.e., "not stalled or stall-fed."—P.]

The following method of assaying is also used. They take two tolās of pure gold, and two tolās of the gold which passed through the fire, and make twenty plates of each, of equal weight. They then spread the above mixture, apply the fire, wash them, and weigh them with an exact balance. If both kinds are found to be equal in weight, it is a proof of pureness.

- 10. The Melter of the refined metal. He melts the refined plates of gold, and casts them, as described above, into ingots. His fee for 100 gold mults is three dans.
- 11. The Zarrāb. He cuts off the gold, silver and copper ingots, as exactly as he can, round pieces of the size of coined money. His fees are, for 100 gold muhrs, 21 dāms, 1½ jetals; for the weight of 1000 rupees, 53 dāms, 8¾ jetals, if he cuts rupees; and 28 dāms in addition, if he cuts the same weight of silver into quarter rupees. For 1000 copper dāms his fee is 20 dāms; for the same weight of half and quarter dāms, 25 dāms; and for half-quarter dāms, which are called damrīs, 69 dāms.

In Iran and Türan they cannot cut these pieces without a proper anvil; but Hindustani workmen cut them without such an instrument, so exactly, that there is not the difference of a single hair, which is remarkable enough.

- 12. The Engraver. He engraves the dies of the coins on steel, and such like metals. Coins are then stamped with these dies. At this day, Mawlā-nā SAlī Aḥmad of Delhi, who has not his equal in any country, cuts different kinds of letters in steel, in such a manner as to equal the copyslips of the most skilful caligraphers. He holds the rank of a yūzbāshī; 1 and two of his men serve in the mint. Both have a monthly salary of 600 dāms.
- 13. The Sikrachī. He places the round pieces of metal between two dies; and by the strength of the hammerer (putk chi) both sides are stamped. His fees are for 100 gold muhrs, $1\frac{1}{5}$ dāms; for 1000 rupees, 5 dāms, $9\frac{1}{2}$ jetals; and for the weight of 1000 rupees of small silver pieces, 1 dām. 3 jetals in addition; for 1000 copper dāms, 3 dāms; for 2000 half-dāms, and 4000 quarter-dāms, 3 dāms, $18\frac{3}{4}$ jetals; and for 8000 half-quarter dāms, $10\frac{1}{4}$ dāms. Out of these fees the sikkachī has to give one sixth to the hammerer, for whom there is no separate allowance.
- 14. The Sabbāk makes the refined silver into round plates. For every 1000 rupees weight, he receives 51 dāms.

¹ This Turkish word signifies a commander of one hundred nen, a captain. Abadis of distinction were promoted to this military rank. The salary of a Yüzbāshī varied from five to seven hundred rapecs per measum; vide the third A^{\pm} in of the second book.

The discovery of an alloy in silver. Silver may be alloyed with lead, tin and copper. In Iran and Türan, they also call the highest degree of fineness of silver dahdahi; in Hindustan, the sayrafis use for it the term bist biswa. According to the quantity of the alloy, it descends in degree; but it is not made less than five, and no one would care for silver baser than ten degrees. Practical men can discover from the colour of the compound, which of the alloys is prevailing, whilst by filing and boring it, the quality of the inside is ascertained. They also try it by beating it when hot, and then throwing it into water, when blackness denotes lead, redness copper, a white greyish colour tin, and whiteness a large proportion of silver.

THE METHOD OF REFINING SILVER.

They dig a hole, and having sprinkled into it a small quantity of wild 1 cow dung, they fill it with the ashes of mughīlān 2 wood; then they moisten it, and work it up into the shape of a dish; into this they put the adulterated silver, together with a proportionate quantity of lead. First, they put a fourth part of the lead on the top of the silver, and having surrounded the whole with coals, blow the fire with a pair of bellows, till the metals are melted, which operation is generally repeated The proofs of the metal being pure are a lightning-like four times. brightness, and its beginning to harden at the sides. As soon as it is hardened in the middle, they sprinkle it with water, when flames resembling in shape the horns of wild goats, issue from it. It then forms itself into a disc, and is perfectly refined. If this disc be melted again, half a surkh in every toki will burn away, i.e., 6 mashas and 2 surkhs in 100 tolds. The ashes of the disc, which are mixed with silver and lead, form a kind of litharge, called in Hindi kharal, and in Persian kulna : the use of which will be hereafter explained. Before this refined silver is given over to the Zarrab, 5 mashas and 5 surkhs are taken away for the Imperial exchequer out of every hundred tolas of it: after which the assay master marks the mass with the usual stamp, that it may not be altered or exchanged.

In former times silver also was assayed by the baneari system; now it is calculated as follows:—if by refining 100 tokes, of shaki silver, which is current in Iraq and Khurasan, and of the lari and migqali, which are

^{[4} See note 1, p. 21.—P.]
* Called in Hind. babal, a kind of acada. Its bark is used in tanning. [The biles of the Panjab.—P.]
* Some MSS, have batch

current in Tūrān, there are lost three tolās and one surkh; and of the same quantity of the European and Turkish narjīl, and the maḥmūdī and muzaffarī of Gujrāt and Mālwa, 13 tolās and 61 māshas are lost, they become then of Imperial standard.

- 15. The $Qurs-k\bar{u}b$ having heated the refined silver, hammers it till it has lost all smell of the lead. His fee for the weight of 1000 rupees, is $4\frac{1}{2}$ $d\bar{a}ms$.
- 16. The Chāshnīgīr examines the refined gold and silver, and fixes its purity as follows:—Having made two tolas of the refined gold into eight plates, he applies layers of the mixture as above described, and sets fire to it, keeping out, however, all draught; he then washes the plates, and melts them. If they have not lost anything by this process, the gold is pure. The assay-master then tries it upon the touchstone, to satisfy himself and others. For assaying that quantity, he gets $1\frac{2}{5}$ dāms. In the case of silver, he takes one tola with a like quantity of lead, which he puts together into a bone crucible, and keeps it on the fire till the lead is all burnt. Having then sprinkled the silver with water, he hammers it till it has lost all smell of the lead; and having melted it in a new crucible, he weighs it; and if it has lost in weight three 1 birinj (rice grains), it is sufficiently pure; otherwise he melts it again, till it comes to that degree. For assaying that quantity, his fee is 3 dāms, 44 jetals.
- 17. The Niyāriya collects the khāk-i khāliş and washes it, taking two sers at the time; whatever gold there may be amongst it will settle, from its weight, to the bottom. The khāk, when thus washed, is called in Hindī kukrah, and still contains some gold, for the recovery of which, directions shall hereafter be given. The above-mentioned adulterated sediment is rubbed together with quicksilver, at the rate of six māshas quicksilver per ser. The quicksilver from its predilective affinity, draws the gold to itself, and forms an amalgam which is kept over the fire in a retort, till the gold is separated from the quicksilver.

For extracting the gold from this quantity of <u>khāk</u>, the Niyūriya receives 20 dāms, 2 jetals.

The process of Kukrah.

They mix with the kukrah an equal quantity of punhar, and form a paste of rasi (aqua fortis), and cowdung. They then pound the first composition, and mixing it with the paste, work it up into balls of two sers weight, which they dry on a cloth.

One MS. has six.

[2 Word not traced.—P.]

Punhar is obtained as follows:-

They make a hole in the earth, and fill it with the ashes of Babūl-wood, at the rate of six fingers height of ashes for every maund of lead. The lead itself is put at the bottom of the hole, which has been smoothed; then they cover it with charcoals, and melt the lead. After that, having removed the coals, they place over it two plates of clay, fixed by means of thorns, and close up the bellows hole, but not the vent. This they keep covered with bricks, till the ashes have thoroughly soaked up the lead. The bricks they frequently remove to learn the state of the lead. For the above-mentioned quantity of lead, there are 4 māshas of silver mixed up with the ashes. These ashes they coel in water, when they are called punhar. Out of every man of lead two sers are burnt; but the mass is increased by four sers of ashes, so that the weight of the whole mass will be one man and two sers.

Rasi is a kind of acid, made of ashkhār 1 and saltpetre.

Having thus explained what punhar and rasi are, I return to the description of the process of Kukrah. They make an oven-like vessel, narrow at both ends, and wide in the middle, one and a half vards in height, with a hole at the bottom. Then having filled the vessel with coals within four fingers of the top, they place it over a pit dug in the earth, and blow the fire with two bellows. After that, the aforementioned balls being broken into pieces, they throw them into the fire and melt them, when the gold, silver, copper and lead fall through the hole in the bottom of the vessel into the pit below. Whatever remains in the vessel, is softened and washed, and the lead separated from it. They likewise collect the ashes, from whence also by a certain process profit may be derived. The metal is then taken out of the pit, and melted according to the punhar system. The lead will mix with the ashes, from which thirty sers will be recovered, and ten sees will be burnt. The gold, silver and copper remain together in a mass, and this they call bugrawati, or according to some, querawati

The process of Bugrawati.

They make a hole, and fill it with the ashes of babūl-wood, half a ser for every 100 tolas of bagrāmaţī. These ashes they then make up in form of a dish, and mix them up with the bagrāmaţī, adding one tola of copper, and twenty-five tolas of lead. They now fill the dish with coals, and cover it with bricks. When the whole has melted, they remove the coals and the

¹ The margins of some of the MSS, explain this word by the Hind, sijji, impure carbonate of toda.

bricks, and make a fire of babūl-wood, till the lead and copper unite with the ashes, leaving the gold and silver together. These ashes are also called *kharal*, and the lead and copper can be recovered from them by a process, which will be hereafter explained.

Atin 8.

THE METHOD OF SEPARATING THE SILVER FROM THE GOLD.

They melt this composition six times; three times with copper, and three times with sulphur, called in Hind. chhāchhiyā. For every tola of the alloy, they take a māsha of copper, and two māshas, two surkhs of sulphur. First they melt it with copper, and then with sulphur. If the alloy be of 100 tolus weight, the 100 mashas of copper are employed as follows: - they first melt fifty mashas with it, and then twice again twenty-five mīshas. The sulphur is used in similar proportions. After reducing the mixture of gold and silver to small bits, they mix with it fifty māshas of copper, and melt it in a crucible. They have near at hand a vessel full of cold water, on the surface of which is laid a broomlike bundle of hay. Upon it they pour the melted metal, and prevent it, by stirring it with a stick, from forming into a mass. again melted these bits, after mixing them with the remaining copper in a crucible, they set it to cool in the shade; and for every tola of this mixture two mashas and two surkhe of sulphur are used, i.e., at the rate of one and one-half quarter ser (13 ser) per 100 tolas. When it has been three times melted in this manner; there appears on the surface a whitish kind of ash, which is silver. This is taken off, and kept separate; and its process shall hereafter be explained. When the mixture of gold and silver has thus been subjected to three fires for the copper, and three for the sulphur, the solid part left is the gold. In the language of the Panjab, this gold is called kail, whilst about Dihli, it is termed pinjar. If the mixture contains much gold, it generally turns out to be of 61 ban, but it is often only five, and even four.

In order to refine this gold, one of the following methods must be used: Either they mix fifty tolas of this with 400 tolas of purer gold, and refine it by the Saloni process; or else they use the Aloni process. For the latter they make a mixture of two parts of wild-cow dung, and one part of saltpetre. Having then cast the aforesaid pinjar into ingots, they make it into plates, none of which ought to be lighter than 1½ tolas, but a little broader than those which they make in the saloni process. Then having

bestneared them with sesame-oil, they strew the above mixture over them, giving them for every strewing two gentle fires. This operation they repeat three or four times; and if they want the metal very pure, they repeat the process till it comes up to nine $b\bar{a}n$. The ashes are also collected, being a kind of *kharal*.

Atia 9.

THE METHOD OF EXTRACTING THE SILVER FROM ASHES.

Whatever ashes and dross have been collected, both before and after the process of aloni, they mix with double the quantity of pure lead, put them into a crucible, and keep them for one watch over the fire. When the metal is cold, they refine it as described under the article Sabbāk, p. 22. The ashes of it are also kharal. The saloni process is also performed in other ways well known to those conversant with the business.

- 18. The Panīwār having melted the kharal, separates the silver from the copper. His fee for every tola of silver is $1\frac{1}{2}$ dāms. As a return for the profit he makes, he pays monthly 300 dāms to the dīwān. Having reduced the kharal to small bits, he adds to every man of it $1\frac{1}{4}$ sers of tangār (borax), and three sers of pounded natron, and kneads them together. He then puts this mass, wer by ser, into the vessel above described, and melts it, when lead inixed with silver collects in the pit. This is afterwards refined by the process of the sabbāk, and the lead which separates from this, and mixes with the ashes, turns punhar.
- 19. The Paikār buys the salonī and kharal from the goldsmiths of the city, and carries them to the mint to be melted, and makes a profit on the gold and silver. For every man of salonī, he gives 17 dāms, and for the same quantity of kharal 14 dāms, to the exchequer
- 20. The Nicho'i-raila brings old copper coins, which are mixed with eilver, to be melted; and from 100 tolas of silver, 31 rupees go to the diwin; and when he wishes to coin the silver, he pays a fixed quantity for it as duty.
- 21. The Khūk-shoy. When the owners of the metals get their gold and silver in the various ways which have now been described, the Khāk-shoy sweeps the mint, takes the sweepings to his own house, washes them, and gains a profit. Some of the sweepers carry on a very flourishing trade. The state receives from this man a monthly gift of 124 rupees.

And in like manner all the officers of the mint pay a monthly duty to the state, at the rate of three dams for every 100 dams.

A'in 10.

THE COINS OF THIS GLORIOUS EMPIRE.

As through the attention of his Majesty, gold and silver have been brought to the greatest degree of purity, in like manner the form of the coins has also been improved. The coins are now an ornament to the treasury, and much liked by the people. I shall give a few particulars.

A. Gold Coins.

1. The sahansah is a round coin weighing 101 tolas, 9 māshas, and 7 surkhs, in value equal to 100 la²l-i jalālī-muhrs. On the field of one side is engraved the name of his Majesty, and on the five arches in the border, Aṣ-ṣulṭān² 'l-a^ṣam² 'l-khāqān² 'l-mu^azz² khallad² Allāh² mulkah² w² ṣulṭāna-h² ṣarb² dār² 'l-khilāfat² Āgra, " the great sulṭan, the distinguished emperor, may God perpetuate his kingdom and his reign! Struck at the capital Āgra." On the field of the reverse is the beautiful formula,¹ and the following verse of the Qur³ān²: Allāh² yazraq² man yashā²² bi-ahayr² hisābi², "God is bountiful unto whom He pleaseth, without measure"; and roundabout are the names of the first four Khalifas. This is what was first cut by Maulānā Maṣqūd, the engraver; after which Mullā ʿAlī Aḥmad made with great skill the following additions. On one side Afzal² dīnār²n yanfuqu-h² ar-rajul² dīnār²n yanfuquh² ʿala aṣhābih' fī sabil² 'llāh," the best coin which a man expends is a coin which he spends on his co-religionists in the path of God."

And on the other side he wrote,

As-sultān" 'l--sālī al-khalīfat" al-mutasālī khallads allāh" tasāla mulkah" ws sultānah" ws abbads sadlah" ws iḥsānah", "the sublime sultān, the exalted khalīfa, may God the Almighty perpetuate his kingdom and his reign, and given eternity to his justice and bounty!"

Afterwards all this was removed, and the following two Rubā^cts of the court-poet and philosopher Shaykh Fayzī were engraved by him. On one side.

Khurshīd ki haft bahr azū gawhar yāft Sang-i siyah az partav-i ān jawhar yāft Kān az nazar-i tarbiyat-i ū zar yāft W'ān zar sharaf az sikka-yi Shāh Akbar yāft.

Also called Kalimak, or the Confession of Faith, lå iläka sll-alläk, Mukammadun rastil-ulläk.

² Qur. Sur. II, 208. [² Quatrains,--P.]

"It is the Sun 1 from which the seven oceans get their pearls. The black rocks get their jewels from his lustre. The mines get their gold from his fostering glance, And their gold is ennobled by Akbar's stamp."

and, Alläh" akbar jall" jalläla-h", "God is great, may His glory shine forth!" in the middle. And on the other side.

> In sikka ki pîrāya-yi ummīd buvad Bā nagsh-i davām u nām-i jāvīd buvad Sīmā-yi sasādat-ash hamīn bas ki bi-dahr Yak zarra nazar-karda-yi khurshid buvad.

"This coin, which is an ornament of hope, Carries an everlasting stamp, and an immortal name. As a sign of its auspiciousness, it is sufficient That, once, for all ages the sun has cast a glimpse upon it."

and the date, according to the Divine era, in the middle.

2. There is another gold coin, of the same name and shape, weighing 91 tolas and 8 māshas, in value equal to 100 round muhrs, at 11 māshas each. It has the same impression as the preceding.

The Rahas is the half of each of the two preceding coins It is sometimes made square. On one side it has the same impression as the mhansa, and on the other side the following Rubasi by Faysi:-

> Īn nagd-i ravān-i ganj-i shāhinshāhī Bā kuwkab-i igbāl kunad hamrākī Khurshid bi-parvar-ash az an rū ki bi-dahr Yābad sharaf az sikku-vi Akbarshāhī.

"This current coin of the Imperial treasure Accompanies the star of good fortune. O sun, foster it, because for all ages It is ennobled by Akbar's stamp!"

4. The Atma is the fourth part of the sakansa, round and square. Some have the same impression as the salanes 4; and some have on one side the following Rubass by Faysi :--

> In nikka ki dast-i bakht rii sewar bad Pīrāya-yi nuh sipikr u haft akhtar bād

¹ According to the Natural Philosophers of the Middle Ages, the influence of the sun calls the metals, the pearls, and precious stones into existence; wide the thirteenth A⁵(s. The allusion to the sun is explained by the note to page III.

[1 In the Persian [2] - P.]

Quatrains.-P.

^{[*} Sad muler in the Persian text. - P.] [Malike 'sh-Shucard' in the Pereian text .- P.]

Zarrīn nagdīst kār az-ū chūn zar bād Dar dahr ravan bi-nam-i shah akbar bad.

"This coin-May it adorn the hand of the fortunate,

And may it be an ornament of the nine heavens and the seven stars-Is a gold coin,—May golden be its work!

Let it be current for all ages to the glory of Shah Akbar."

And on the other side the preceding Rubasi.

5. The Binsat, of the same two forms as the ātma, in value equal to one-fifth of the first coin.

There are also gold coins of the same shape and impression, in value equal to one-eighth, one-tenth, one-twentieth, one twenty-fifth, of the sahansa.

- 6. The Chugul, of a square form, is the fiftieth part of the sahansa, in value equal to two muhrs.2
- 7. The round Lacl-i Jalālī,3 in weight and value equal to two round muhrs, having on one side Allāh" akbar, and on the other Yā musīn", "O helper."
- 8. The Aftabi is round, weighs 1 tola, 2 mashas, and 4\frac{3}{2} surkhs, in value equal to 12 rupees. On one side, "Allāh" akbar, jall jalālu-h"," and on the other the date according to the Divine era, and the place where it is struck.
- The Ilāhī is round, weighs 12 māshas, 13 surkhs, hears the same stamp as the $Aft\bar{a}b\bar{i}$, and has a value of 10 rupees.

1 Or Jugul. Abū 'l-Faşl's spelling in the text is ambiguous.

² The MSS, differ. Most of them place the Chugul as the sixth coin after the Binsal,

and read :-

"The Chagal, of a square form, weighing 3 tolas, 51 surkhs; its value is thirty rupees. Also, of a round form, weighing 2 tolus, 9 mishus, having a value of three round mules, of 11 maskus each (i.e., 27 rupees). But the impression of both is the same.

They are the fiftieth part of the Sahamaa."

The last sentence does not agree with the value and weight of the Sahama; for the two Chuguis, as given by Abū 'l-Fazi, would each be the hundred and third part of the

two kinds of Sahanea, not the fiftieth part.

Mr. Thomas in his excellent edition of Princep's Useful Tables, pp. 5, 6, gives an extract from a MS. of the Asin in his possession, which appears to agree with the above reading; but he only mentions the square form of the Chuqui, weighing 3 tolus, 5} surkhs, worth 30 rupes; and then passes on to the eighth coin, the Aftabi.

Two other MSS.—among them Col. Hamilton's—read after the Bineat (i.e., after the

twenty-fifth line of p. 24 of my text edition)--

"6. The Chahargosha (or square), weighing 3 tolas, 51 surkhs, worth 30 rupees.
"7. The Girl (or round); weighing 2 tolas, 9 mashas, in value equal to the 3 round muhrs of 11 mashus each.

"Both have the same impression.

"S. The Chugul, of a square form, the fiftieth part of a Sahansa, in value equal to two LaSI-s Jaible makes."

This reading obviates all difficulties. But the real question is whether the Chahargosha,

the Gird, and the Chugul are three distinct coins.

Por the round Lati-i Jalali, some MSS. only read, "The Gird," i.e., round, taking the words Lati-i Joiali to the preceding. Vide the tenth coin.

- 10. The square Lacl-i Jalāli is of the same weight and value; on one side "Allāhu akbar," and on the other "jallu jalālu-hu."
- 11. The 'Adl-gutka is round, weighs 11 māshas, and has a value of nine rupees. On one side "Allāh" akbar", and on the other, "Yā mu'sīn"."
- 12. The Round muhr, in weight and value equal to the Adl-guika, but of a different stamp.
- 13. Miḥrābī 2 is in weight, value, and stamp, the same as the round muhr.
- 14. The Mu^cini is both square and round. In weight and value it is equal to the La^cl-i jalālī, and the round muhr. It bears the stamp "yā mu^cīn".
 - 15. The Chahārgosha, in stamp and weight the same as the Aftābī.
 - 16. The Gird is the half of the Ilāhī, and has the same stamp.
 - 17. The Dhan 3 is half a Lacl-i Julati.4
 - 18. The Salīmī is the half of the Adl-guika.
 - 19. The Rabi 5 is a quarter of the Aftabi.
 - 20. The Man, is a quarter of the Ilāhī, and Jalālī.
 - 21. The Half Salīmī is a quarter of the Adl-gutka.
 - 22. The Panj is the fifth part of the Ilāhī.
- 23. The Pandau is the fifth part of the Lacl-i Jalālī; on one side is a lily, and on the other a wild rose.
- 24. The Sumni, or Ashtsidd, is one eighth of the Ilāki; on one side "Allāk" akbar," and on the other "iail" jalāla-h"."
- 25. The Kulā is the sixteenth part of the Ilāhī. It has on both sides a wild rose.
- 26. The Zara is the thirty-second part of an Ilāhī and has the same stamp as the kala.

As regards gold coins, the custom followed in the imperial mint is to coin Lacl-i jolalis, Dhans, and Mans, each coin for the space of a month. The other gold coins are never stamped without special orders.

¹ It has the Kalima. (Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the 48 in.)

^{*} The figure called militable is

^{*} In Forbes's Dictionary, dakan.

⁴ Several MSS, read..." Half a quarter lishi and Laci-i Jalali." Forbes gives six rupees (?).

Several MNS, have Rabi. Perhaps we should write Rabbi.
[* Lale in Persian text. This is the common red poppy in Afghānistān and the Panjāb; and in Persia is also applied to the wild tulip.—P.]

B. Silver Coins.

- 1. The Rūpiya is round, and weighs eleven and one half mōshas. It was first introduced in the time of Sher Khān. It was perfected during this reign, and received a new stamp, on one side "Allāh" akbar, jalla jalālu-h"," and on the other the date. Although the market price is sometimes more or less than forty dāms, yet this value is always set upon it in the payment of salaries.
- 2. The Jalāla is of a square form, which was introduced during the present reign. In value and stamp it is the same as No. 1.
 - 3. The Darb is half a Jalala.
 - 4. The Charn is a quarter Jalāla.
 - 5. The Pundau is a fifth of the Jalala.
 - 6. The Asht is the eighth part of the Jalala.
 - 7. The Dasā is one-tenth of the Jalāla.
 - 8. The Kalā is the sixteenth part of the Jalāla.
 - 9. The Sūkī us one-twentieth of the Jalāla.

The same fractional parts are adopted for the [round] Rūpiya, which are, however, different in form.

C. Copper Coins.

1. The $D\bar{a}m$ weighs 5 $t\bar{a}ks$, i.e. 1 tola, 8 $m\bar{a}shns$, and 7 surkhs; it is the fortieth part of the $r\bar{u}piya$. At first this coin was called Paisa, and also $Buklol\bar{u}$; now it is known under this name $(d\bar{a}m)$. On one side the place is given where it was struck, and on the other the date.

For the purpose of calculation, the $d\bar{a}m$ is divided into twenty-five parts, each of which is called a jetal.¹ This imaginary division is only used by accountants.

- 2. The Adhela is half of a dam.
- 3. The $P\bar{a}^4 ol\bar{a}$ is a quarter $d\bar{a}m$.
- 4. The Danri is one-eighth of a dam.

In the beginning of this reign, gold was coined to the glory of his Majesty in many parts of the empire; now gold coins are struck at four places only, viz. at the seat of the government, Bengal, Aḥmadābād (Gujrāt), and Kābul. Silver and copper are likewise coined in these four places, and besides in the following ten places: Ilāhabās, Āgra, Ujain, Sūrat, Dihlī, Patna, Kashmīr, Lāhor, Multān, Tānḍa. In twenty-eight towns copper coins only are struck, viz. Ajmīr, Avadh, Aṭak, Alwar, Badā^aon, Banāras, Bhakkar, Bahīrah, Patan, Jaunpūr, Jālandhar, Hardwār, Hisār, Fīrūza, Kālpī, Gwāliyār, Gorakhpūr, Kalānūr,

¹ Often misspelt chetal. The text gives the correct spelling.

Lakhnau, Mandū, Nāgor, Sarhind, Siyālkot, Saronj, Sahāranpīr, Sārangpur, Sambal, Qanawj, Rantanbhūr.

Mercantile affairs in this country are mostly transacted in round muhrs, rūyiyas, and dāms.

Unprincipled men cause a great deal of mischief by rubbing down the coins, or by employing similar methods; and, in consequence of the damage done to the nation at large, his Majesty continually consults experienced men, and from his knowledge of the spirit of the age, issues new regulations in order to prevent such detrimental practices.

The currency underwent several changes. First, when (in the 27th year) the reins of the government were in the hands of Rāja Todarmal, four kinds of muhrs were allowed to be current; A. There was a Last-i Jalālī, which had the name of his Majesty stamped on it, and weighed 1 tola, 1‡ surkhs. It was quite pure, and had a value of 400 dāms. Again, there existed from the beginning of this glorious reign a muhr with the imperial stamp, of which three degrees passed as current, viz.: B. This muhr, when perfectly pure, and having the full weight of 11 māshas. Its value was 360 dāms. If from wear and tear it had lost in weight within three grains of rice it was still allowed to be of the same degree, and no difference was made. C. The same muhr, when it had lost in weight from four to six rice grains; its value was 355 dāms. D. The same muhr, when it had lost in weight from six to nine rice grains; its value was 350 dāms.

Abd 'l-Fagl did not like Todarmal personally, but praises him for his strict integrity and abilities; he charges him with vindictiveness of temper and higotry. Awranges said he had heard from his father that Akbar complained of the raja's sudependence, vanity, and bigoted adherence to Hinduism. Abd 'l-Fagl openly complained of him to Akbar; but the emperor with his usual regard for faithful services, said that he could not drive away an old servant. In his adherence to Hinduism, Todarmal may be contrasted with Bir Bar, who a short time before his death had become a member of the Divise Faith. Once when accompanying Akbar to the Panjáb, in the hurry of the departure, Todarmal's idols were lest; and as he transacted no business before his daily worship, he remained for several days without food and drink, and was at last with difficulty cheered up by the emperor.

¹ Rāja Todarmal, a Khatrī by caste, was born at Lahor. He appears to have entered Akbar's service during the 18th year of the emperor's reign, when he was employed to settle the affairs of Gujrāt. In the 19th year, we find him in Bengal in company with Mun5im Khān; and three years later again at Gujrāt. In the 27th year he was appointed Discan of the empire, when he remodelted the revenue system. After an unsuccessful attempt on his life made by a Khātrī in the 32nd year, he was sent against the Yūsufrāis, to avenge the death of Bu Bar. In the 34th year, old age and aickness obliged him to send in his resignation, which Akbar unwillingly accepted. Retiring to the banks of the Ganges, he died—or, went to hell, as Badā ont expresses himself in the case of Hindus—on the 11th day A.H. 998, or 10th November, 1889, the same year in which Rāja Bhagwān Dās died. Todarmal had reached the rank of a Chahērhāsirī, or commander of Four Thousand, and was no less distinguished for his personal courage, than his financial abilities. His eldest son Dhārū, a commander of seven hundred, was killed in the war with Thatha.

Muhrs of less weight than this were considered as bullion.

Of Rūpiyas, three kinds were then current, viz.: A. one of a square form, of pure silver, and weighing 11\frac{1}{2} māshas; it went under the name of Jalāla, and had a value of 40 dāms. B. The round, old Akbarshāhī rūpiya, which, when of full weight, or even at a surkh less, was valued at 39 dāms. C. The same rupees, when in weight two surkhs less, at 38 dāms.

Rupees of less weight than this were considered as bullion.

Secondly, on the 18th Mihr of the 29th year of the Divine era, "Azud" 'd-Daulah Amīr Fath" 'llah ' of Shīrāz coming at the head of affairs, a royal order was issued, that on the muhrs, as far as three grains; and on the rūpiyas, as far as six grains short weight, no account should be taken, but that they should be reckoned of full weight. If muhrs were still less, they should make a deduction for the deficiency, whatever their deficiency might be; but it was not ordered that only muhrs down to nine grains less should be regarded as muhrs. Again, according to the same regulation, the value of a muhr that was one surkh deficient was put down as 355 dāms and a fraction; and hence they valued the price of one surkh of coined gold at the low rate of four dāms and a fraction. According to Todarmal's regulation, a deduction of five dāms was made for a deficiency of one surkh; and if the muhr had lost something more than the three grains, for which he had made no account, even if it were only \(\frac{1}{2}\) surkh, full five

apire. The Amir went afterwards to Khandesh. After his return in 997 to Akbar, who was then in Kashnir, he was attacked with fever, of which he died. Thinking to understand the medical art, he refused the advice of the famous Hakim SAli, and tried to cure the fever by eating harisa (vide the twenty-four h Ann), which caused his death.

Next to Abū -Fazl, Fayzl, and Bir Bar, the Amir was perhaps most loved by Akbar. Several of his mechanical inventions, mentioned below, are ascribed by Abū 'l-Fazl to Akbar himself (!). The Amir was, however, on the best terms with Abū 'l-Fazl, whose son he instructed. According to the author of the Mir²ála' 'l-ÇAlam, he was "a worldiy man, often secompanying the emperor on hunting parties, with a rifle on his shoulder, and a powder-bag in his waistband, treading down science, and performing feats of strength which Rustam could not have performed."

It is stated by the author of the Ma*asir* 'l-Umara* that according to some, the Amir was a Sik-hear, or Commander of three thousand; but I do not find his name among the liste of Akbar's grandees given in the Tabaqat-i Akbar', and the last A*in of the second book of this work. Instead of Amir Fathu 'lish, we also find, especially in Badson', Shah Fathu 'lish. He lies buried on the Takht-i Sulayman. Fayzi's ode

on his death is very fine.

¹ Amīr Fath 'liah of Shīrāz was the pupil of Khwāja Jamāl^a 'd-Dīn Mahmūd, Kamāl^a d-Dīn of Shirwān, and Mīr Chiyāṣa 'd-Dīn Mansūr of Shīrāz. He so excelled in all branches of natural philosophy, especially mechanics, that Abū 'l-Faṣl said of him, "If the books of antiquity should be lost, the Amīr will restore them." At the earnest solicitations of CAdl Shāh of Bījāpūr, he left Shīrāz for the Dekhan. In A.H. 991, after the death of CAdl Shāh, he was invited by Akbar, who raised him to the dignity of a Şadr, and bestowed upon him, three years later, the title of Amīn^a 'l-Mulk. He was appointed to assist Todarmal, and rendered good service in working up the old revenue books. His title, Amīn^a 'l-Mulk, to which Abū 'l-Faṣl alludes (vide p. 28, l. 9 of my text edition), was in the same year changed to CAṣuda 'd-Daudah, or the arm of

dams were subtracted; and for a deficiency of 11 surkhs he deducted ten dams, even if the deficiency should not be quite 11 surkhs. By the new law of Azud" 'd-Dawlah, the value of a muhr was lessened by six dams and a fraction, as its gold was worth 353 dams and a fraction only.1

Azud" 'd-Dawlah abolished also the regulation, according to which the value of a round re piya had been fixed at one dam less than the square one. notwithstanding its perfection in weight and purity, and fixed the value of the round rūpiya, when of full weight or not less than one surkh, at forty dams; and whilet formerly a deduction of two dams was made for a deficiency of two surkhs, they now deduct for the same deficiency only one dam and a fraction.

Thirdly, whe i Azud 'd-Dawlah went to Khandesh, the Raja estimated the value of mulirs that had been expressed in Jalala rupees, in round rupees; and from his obstinate and wrangling disposition, fixed again the deficiencies on muhrs and rupees according to the old rates.

Fourthly, when Qulij Khan 2 received the charge of the government he adopted the Raja's manner of estimating the muhrs; but he deducted ten dams for a deficiency in the weight of a muhr, for which the Raja had deducted five dams; and twenty dams for the former deduction of ten dams; whilst he considered every muhr as bullion, if the deficiency was 14 surkhs. Similarly, every rupiya, the deticiency of which was one surkh, was considered as bullion.

For CA and a 'd-Dawlah having fixed the value of 1 math of coined gold at 4 dams. and a small fraction, the value of a muhr of full weight (!1 mashes = 11 < 8 surkhs) was only 11 x 8 x (4 x a small fraction) dame, re., according to Abu 'l-Fasi, 353 dame

and a fraction, instead of 360 dams.

Qulij Khan is first mentioned during the 17th year of Akbar's reign, when he was made governor of the Fort of Surat, which Akbar after a siege of forty-seven days had conquered. In the 23rd year he was sent to (ajrat; and after the death of Shah Manyur, he was, two years later, appointed as Dindn. In the 28th year he accompanied the army during the conquest of Cujiat. In the 34th year he received Sambas. as jagir. After the death of Todarmal he was again appointed as Indian. This is the time to which Abu 'l Fazl refers. In 1902 he was made governor of Kabul, where he After his removal, he accompanied, in 1005, his son-in-law Prince has not successful Danyal as Ataliq, or tutor, but he soon returned to Albar During the absence, in 1907, of the emperor in Khandesh, he was governor of Agrs. I'we years later he was promoted to the governorship of the Panjab and Kabul. At the accession of Jahangir, he was sent to Gujrat, but returned next year to the Panjab, where he had to fight against the Rawshaniyyahs. He died, at an advanced age, in 1035, or A.D. 1625-26. Abû 1-Fast. in the last A ris of the second book, mentions have as the bringeries of Commander of Four Thousand, which high rank he must have held for some time, as Nicamisi Harawi, in his Tabaçat-i Akbari, mentions him as such, and as I main. When tutor to Prince Denyil, be was promoted to the command of Four Thousand Five Hundred. Qulij Khēn was a pious man, and a staunch Sunni; he was much respected for his learning. As a poet he is known under the name of Ufati, some of his verses may be found in the concluding chapter of the Mirade 'I-S. Ilam. The high rank which he held was less due to his talents as a statesman than to his family-connexion with the kings of Türân. Of his two sons, Mîrză Sayfu liâh and Mirză Husayn Qulip, the latter is best known. [Vide note 2 to No. 42 of A in 30. - B.]

Lastly, his Majesty, trusting to his advisers and being occupied Ly various important affairs, paid at first but little attention to this subject. till after having received some intimation of the unsatisfactory state of this matter, he issued another regulation, which saved the nation further losses, and was approved of by every one, far and near. On the 26th of Bahman, of the year 36, according to the Divine era (A.D. 1592), he adopted the second [i.e. 'Azud" 'd-Dawlah] method, with one exception, namely, he did not approve of the provision that a muhr the deficiency of which did not exceed three, and a rupiya, the deficiency of which did not exceed six, surkhs, should still be regarded as of full weight. And this regulation was the only effectual method for preventing the fraudulent practices of unprincipled men; for the former regulations contained no remedy in cases when the officers of the mint coined money of the above deficiency in weight, or when treasurers reduced full coins to the same deficiency. Besides, shameless thievish people made light grain weights, and used to reduce muhrs, deficient by three grains, to six grains deficiency, whilst they accepted muhrs six grains deficient as muhrs deficient by nine grains. This reduction of coins being continued, large quantities of gold were stolen, and the losses seemed never to end. By the command of his Majesty grain weights of babaghari were made, which were to be used in weighing. On the same date other stringent regulations were issued. that the treasurers and revenue collectors should not demand from the tax-payers any particular species of coins, and that the exact deficiency in weight and purity, whatever it might be, should be taken according to the present rate and no more. This order of his Majesty disappointed the wicked, taught covetous men moderation, and freed the nation from the cruelty of oppressors.

Å*in 11.

THE DIRHAM AND THE DĪNAR.

Having given some account of the currency of the empire, I shall add a few particulars regarding these two ancient coins, and remark on the value of ancient coinage.

The Dirham, or Dirhām, as the word is sometimes given, is a silver coin, the shape of which resembled that of a date-stone. During the khilāfat of ^cUmar, ¹ it was changed to a circular form; and in the time of Zubayr it was impressed with the words Allāk* (God), barakat (blessing). Hajjāj

stamped upon it the chapter of the Quran called Ikhläs; and others say that he imprinted it with his own name. Others assert, that SUmar was the first who stamped an impression on dirhums; whilst, according to some, Greek, Khusravite, and Himyarite dirhums were in circulation at the time of SAbd" 'l-Malik, the son Marwan, by whose order Ḥajjāj, the son of Yusuf, had struck dirhams. Some say that Hajjāj refined the base dirhams: and coined them with the words Allahu ahad (God is one), and Allahu as-samad (God is eternal); and these dirhums were called makruhu (abominable), because God's holy name was thereby dishonoured, unless this term be a corruption of some other name. After Ḥajjāj, at the time of the reign of Yazid bin "Abd" 'I-Malik, "Umar bin Hubayrah coined in the kingdom of straq better dirhams than Hajjaj had made; and afterwards Khālid bin Abde 'llāh Qasrī, when governor of Iraq, made them still finer, but they were brought to the highest degree of parity by Yusuf son of Cumar. Again, it has been said that Muscab bin Zubayr was the first who struck dirhams. Various accounts are given of their weights: some saying that they were of ten or nine, or six or five misquist whilst others give the weights of twenty, twelve, and ten quality, asserting at the same time that Cumar had taken a dirhom of each kind, and formed a com of fourteen girats, being the third part of the aggregate sum. It is likewise said that at the time of "Umar there were current several kinds of dirhams: first, some of eight dangs, which were called baghli, after Ras baght, who was an assay-master, and who struck dirhoms by the command of CUmar: but others call them baghalli, from baghal, which is the name of a village; secondly, some of four dange, which were called tabal : thirdly, some of three dangs, which were known as maghribi; and lustly, some of one dang, named yaman, the half of which four kinds Char is said to have taken as a uniform average weight. Fazil of Khupand says that in former days dirhams had been of two kinds : first, full ones of eight and six dangs (1 dang of his = 2 girāts; 1 girāt = 2 tassūj : 1 tassuj = 2 hubbah); and secondly, deficient ones of four dangs and a fraction. Some hold different opinions on this subject.

The Dinar is a gold coin, weighing one misqui, i.e. 1? dirhams, as they put I misqui = 6 dangs; I dang = 4 tassuj; I tassuj = 2 habbas: I hat hi = 2 jave (barley grains); I jav = 6 khardals (mustard-grain); I khardul = 12 fals = 6 fatils; I fatil = 6 naques; I naque = 6 qitmirs; and I qitmir = 12 zaras. One misqui, by this calculation, would be equal to 96 barley grains. Misqui is a weight, used in weighing gold; and it is

in the Persian.— P.]

**According to some inferior MSS., the name of a kind of gold.

also the name of the coin.1 From some ancient writings it appears that the Greek misgāl is out of use, and weighs two gīrāts less than this; and that the Greek dirham differs likewise from others, being less in weight by 1 or 1 of a misoal.

A°in 12.

THE PROFIT OF THE DEALERS IN GOLD AND SILVER.

One round muhr of 11 māshas buys one tols of gold of 10 bān; or one tola, 2 surkhs of 9\frac{3}{2} b\vec{a}n; or 1 tola, 4 s. of 8\frac{1}{2} b\vec{a}n; or 1 tola 6 s. of 91 ban; or 1 tola, 1 masha of 9 ban; and similarly, according to the same proportion, the decrease of one ban increases the quantity of gold which a muhr can buy by one māsha.

The merchant buys for 100 Lacl-i Jalālī muhrs 130 t. 2 m. 0 s. of Hun gold of 81 bans. Of this quantity 22 t. 9 m. 71 s. burn away in melting, and mix with the khāk-i khalās, so that 107 t. 4 m. 1 s. of pure gold remain, which are coined into 105 muhrs, leaving a remainder of nearly half a tols of gold, the value of which is 4 rupees. From the khāk-i khalāş are recovered 2 t. 11 m. 4 s. of gold, and 11 t. 11 m. 4 s. of silver, the value of both of which is 35 rupees, 121 tangas, 2 so that altogether the abovementioned quantity of Hun gold yields 105 muhrs 39 Rs. and 25 dams.

This sum is accounted for as follows. First, 2 Rs. 18 d. 121 j., due to the workmen according to the rates which have been explained above; secondly, 5 Rs. 8 d. 8 j. for ingredients; which sum is made up of 1 R. 4 d. $1\frac{1}{2}j$ on account of articles used in refining the metal, viz. 26 d. $16\frac{1}{2}j$. dung 3; 4 d. 20 j. saloni; 1 d. 10 j. water (11 d. 5 j. quicksilver, and 4 Rs. 4 d. 61 j. on account of the khāk-i khalās (viz. 21 d. 71 j. charcoal, and 3 Re. 22 d. 24 j. lead); thirdly, 6 Rs. 371 d., which the owners of the gold take from the merchant, as a consideration for lending him the gold; this item goes to the Diwan if the gold belongs to the exchequer; fourthly, 100 Lail-i Jalati muhrs, which the merchant gets in exchange for the gold which he brought; fifthly, 12 Rs. 37 d. 31 j. which the merchant takes as his profit; sixthly, 5 muhrs 12 Rs. 31 a., which go to the exchaquer. According to this proportion, merchants make their profits.

Although gold is imported into Hindustan, it is to be found in abundance in the northern mountains of the country, as also in Tibet

In text 'n gold coin".—B.]

One tanga — 2 dams; now-a-days one tanga = 2 pais.

^{[.}P ...باجک فشتی ^و

There is a slight mistake of 1½ jetals, as the several items added up give 105 m. 33 Rs. 24 d. 23½ j., but not 105 m. 39 Rs. 25 d.

Gold may also be obtained by the Saloni-process from the sands of the Ganges and Indus, and several other rivers, as most of the waters of this country are mixed with gold; however, the labour and expense greatly exceed the profit.

One Rupee buys 1 t. 0 m. 2 s. of pure silver; hence for 950 Rs. the merchant gets 969 t. 9 m. 4 s. of silver. Out of this quantity, 5 t. 0 m. 4\frac{3}{4} s. burn away in casting ingots. The remainder yields 1006 rupees, and a surplus of silver worth 27\frac{1}{4} d\tilde{a}ms. The several items are—first, 2 Rs. 22 d. 12 j., as wages for the workmen (viz. The Weighman 5 d. 7\frac{3}{4} j., the Ch\tilde{a}shu\tilde{v}\tilde{g}r 3 d. 4\frac{1}{4}; the Melter 6 d. 12\frac{1}{2} j.; the Zarr\tilde{a}b 2 Rs. 1 d. 0 j.; the Sikkach\tilde{t} 6 d. 12\frac{1}{2} j.); secondly, 10 d. 15 j., on account of requisites (viz. 10 d. charcoal, and 15 j. water); thirdly, 50 Rs. 13 d. 0 j., payable to the D\tilde{v}\tilde{n}r; fourthly, 950 Rs., which the merchant gets in exchange for the silver he brought; and fifthly, 3 Rs. 21 d. 10\frac{1}{2} j., being the profit of the merchant. If he refines the base silver at his own house, his profit will be much greater; but when he brings it to be coined, his profit cannot be so great.

Of the silver called $l\bar{a}r\bar{i}$ and $sh\bar{a}h\bar{i}$, and the other above-mentioned baser coms, one rupee buys 1 t. 0 m. 4 s., so that 950 rupees will buy 989 t. 7 m. In the Sabbākī process, 14 t 10 m. 1 s. burn away, being at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ t. per cent.: and in making the ingots, 4 t. 11 m. 3 s are lost in the fire. The remainder yields 1012 rupees; and from the $kh\bar{a}k$ -i kharal $3\frac{1}{2}$ Rs. are recoverable. The several items are—first. 4 Rs. 27 d. $24\frac{3}{2}$ j. on account of the wages of the workmen (viz the Weighman 5 d. $7\frac{3}{4}$ j.; the Sabbāk 2 Rs. 0 d. 19 j.; the Qurshob 4 d. 19 j.; the Chāshnīgīr 3 d. 4 j.; the Melter 6 d. $12\frac{1}{2}$ j.; the Zarrāb 2 Rs. 1 d.; the Sikkachī 6 d. $12\frac{1}{2}$ j.); secondly, 5 Rs. 24 d. 15 j. for necessaries (viz. 5 Rs. 14 d. lead; 10 d. charcoal, and 15 j. water); thirdly, 50 Rs. 24 d., payable to the State: fourthly, 950 Rs. which the merchant receives for his silver; fifthly, 4 Rs. 29 d. his profit. Sometimes the merchant gets the silver cheap, when his profit is much larger.

1044 dāms buy one man of copper, i.e. at the rate of 26 d. 2½ j. per ser. Out of this quantity, one ser is burnt away in melting; and as each ser yields 30 dāms, there are coined altogether 1170 dāms, from which the merchant takes his capital, and 18 d. 19½ j. as profit, 33 d. 10 j. go to the workmen; and 15 d. 8 j. for necessaries (viz. 13 d. 8 j. for charcoal; 1 d. for water; and 1 d. for clay); 58½ d. go to the state.

¹ These items added give Rs. 1015, 25 d. 14} j, i.e., a little more than the sum mentioned by Abū 'l-Faşi (1018 Rs. 20 d.).

\bar{A}^{ϵ} in 13.

THE ORIGIN OF METALS.

The Creator by calling into existence the four elements, has raised up wonderful forms. Fire is absolutely warm, dry, light; air is relatively warm, moist, light; water is relatively cold, moist, heavy; earth is absolutely cold, dry, heavy. Heat is the cause of lightness, and cold of heaviness; moistness easily separates particles, whilst dryness prevents their separation. This wonderful arrangement calls four compounds into existence, first, the asar-i fulavi 1; secondly, stones; thirdly, plants; fourthly, animals. From the heat of the sun, watery particles become lighter, mix with the air, and rise up. Such a mixture is called bukhār (gas). From the same cause, earthy particles mix with the sir, and rise up. This mixture is called dukhān (vapour). Sometimes, however, airy particles mix with the earth. Several philosophers call both of the above mixtures bukhār, but distinguish the mixture of watery particles and air by the name of moist, or watery bukhār, whilst they call the mixture of earthy particles and air dry bukhār, or dukhānī bukhār (vapour-like gas). Both mixtures, they say, produce above the surface of the earth, clouds, wind, rain, snow, etc.; and, below the surface of our earth, earthquakes, springs, and minerals. They also look upon the bukhār as the body, and upon the dukhān as the soul of things. From a difference in their quality and quantity, various bodies are called into existence, as described in books on philosophy.

Minerals are of five kinds: first, those which do not melt on account of their dryness, as the yāqūt; secondly, those which do not melt, on account of their liquidity, as quicksilver; thirdly, those which can be melted, being at the same time neither malleable, nor inflammable, as blue stone; fourthly, those which can be melted, being, however, not malleable, but inflammable, as sulphur; fifthly, those which can be melted, and are malleable, but not inflammable, as gold. A body is said to melt when from the union of the inherent principles of dryness and moisture its particles are movable; and a body is called malleable when we can make it extend in such a manner as to yield a longer and wider surface without, however, either separating a part from it or adding a part to it.

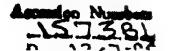
When it a mixture of bukhār with dukhān, the former is greater in quantity, and when, after their mixture and complete union, the heat of the sun causes the whole to contract, quicksilver will be produced.

[·] Or doings from on high, as rain, anow, etc.

Since no part of it is destitute of dukhān, the dryness is perceptible; hence, on touching it, it does not affect the hand, but flees from it; and since its contraction was produced by heat, no warmth can dissolve it. Again, when in a mixture of bukhār and dukhān, both are nearly in equal proportion, a tenacious greasy moisture is produced. At the time of fermentation, airy particles enter, when cold causes the whole to contract. This mass is inflammable. If the dukhān and the greasiness are a little in excess, sulphur will be produced, in colour either red or yellow, or grey or white. If the proportion of the dukhān is large, and that of the grease less, arsenic will result, which is red and yellow. And if the quantity of the bukhār is greater, pure. Hack and yellow naphtha will arise, after the mixture gets solid. Since in all, cold was the cause of the contraction, they can be melted; and on account of the prevalence of greasiness and tenacious moistness, they are also inflammable, though, on account of the moistness, not malleable.

Although quicksilver and sulphur are the only component parts of "the seven bodies", there arise various forms from a difference in purity, or from peculiar circumstances of the mixture, or from a variety of the action of the component parts on each other. Thus after will result, when neither of the two components mixes with earthy particles, when they are pure and become perfectly united, and when the sulphur is white, and less than the quicksilver. Or, when both are in equal proportions and the sulphur red, and capable of colouring, gold will originate. Again, under similar circumstances, if both contract after the mixture, but before a complete union has been effected, Minking will be produced. This body is also called Abunchini, and seems really to be raw gold; some say, it is a kind of copper. Again, if only the sulphur is any ure, and the quicksilver the larger component, with an additional power of burning, copper will result. And if the mixture be not chorough, and the quicksilver larger, tin will be produced; some say that parity of the components is essential. If both compounds be of an inferior kind closely mixed, and if the earthy particles of the quicksilver have a tendency of separating, and the power of burning be inherent in the sulphur, iron will result. And if under similar conditions the intermixture be not perfect, and the quickether quantitatively larger, lead will come into excitence. These seven metals are called the seven hodies, and quicksilver has the name of the mother of the bodies, and sulphur, the father of the bodies Quicksilver is also denominated the spirit and arsenic and sulphur the proofs of life.

Jast (pewter), which, according to the opinions of some, a Ruh-i



tūtivā, and resembles lead, is nowhere mentioned in philosophical books, but there is a mine of it in Hindustan, in the territory of Jalor, which is a dependency of the Süba of Ajmīr. Some practical mechanics 1 are of opinion that the metal called risās is a silver in the state of leprosy, and quicksilver a silver in the state of apoplexy; that lead is gold apoplectic and burnt, and bronze crude gold; and that the chemist, like the doctor, can restore these diseased metals by the principles of similarity and opposition.

Practical men form of the above seven bodies, several compounds, used for ornaments, vessels, etc. Among them I may mention: 1. Safidrū, which the people of Hindustan call kasi. It is a mixture of 4 sers of copper to 1 ser of tin, melted together. 2. $R\bar{u}y$, 4 sers of copper to 1\frac{1}{2} sers of lead. It is called in this country bhangar. 3. Brass, which the Hindus call pital, is made in three ways: first, 21 sers copper to 1 ser ruh-i tūtivā, which is malleable, when cold; secondly, 2 sers of copper to 1 ser of rūḥ-i tūtiyā, which is malleable, when heated; thirdly, 2 sers of copper to 1 ser of rūh-i tūtiyā, not worked with the hammer, but by casting. 4. Sīm-i sükhta, composed of lead, silver, and bronze; it has a black lustre, and is used in painting. 5. Haft-josh, which, like the Kharchini, is nowhere to be found; it is said to consist of six metals. Some call it tālīqūn, whilst others give this name to common copper. 6. Ashtdhat, a compound of eight metals, viz. the six of the haftjosh, rūh-i tūtiyā, and kūsī. It is also made of seven compounds. 7. Kzulpatr, 2 sers of safīdrū, and 1 ser of copper. It is coloured, and looks well, and belongs to the inventions of his Majesty.2

À*īn 14.

ON SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

It has been said above that various compounds result from a mixture of bukhār and dukhān, which themselves consist of light and heavy elements. Besides, bukhār is wet or dry; and a complete union of the two sets in, sometimes before and after the mixture, and sometimes in either of these conditions. It is on this account that a compound whose flery and airy particles are more numerous than its watery and earthy particles is lighter than a mineral in which there are more watery and earthy particles; and likewise, every mineral in which the bukhār predominates

According to some MSS., the Hindüs.
This phrase seems to mean that the invention was made at the time of Akber.

over the dukhān is lighter than a mineral, in which the opposite is the case. Again, a mineral in which the complete union of the bukhār and dukhān has set in, is heavier than one which has not reached this degree, because the interstices between the particles, and the entering of air, make a body large and light. Bearing this in mind, we have a means of discovering the weight and lightness of every body. Some one, now long ago dead, has expressed the weight of several bodies in verses (metre Mujtage):—

Z' rū-yi juṣṣa-yi haftād u yak diram sīmab, Chil o shash ast, u z' arzīz siy u hasht shumār, Zahab ṣad ast surb panjah u nuh, āhan chil, Birinj o mis chihil o panj, nugra panjah u chār.

"Quicksilver 2 is 71; Ruy is 46: Tin is 38; Gold 100; Lead 59; Iron 40; Brass and Copper 45; Silver 54." Others have expressed the numbers by mnemo-technical words in rhyme (metre Romal).—

Nuh filizz-i mustaniyy" 'l hajm rā chūn bor-kashī, Ikhtilāf-i vazn dārad har yak-ī bī ishtibāh. Zar lakan, zībaq alam, usrub dahan, arzīz hal, Fizza nad, āhan yak-ī, miss u shabah mah, rūy māh.

"If you weigh equal volumes of the following ainc metals, you will doubtlessly find their different weights as follows: gold lakan, quicksilver alam, lead dahan, tin hal, silver nad, from yakī, copper and brass mah, rūy māh." If of these nine metals pieces be taken of equal dimensions, their weights will be different. Some sages ascribe this variety in weight to the difference in the qualitative constitution of the bodies, and trace to it their lightness or heaviness, their floating or sinking in water, and their weights as indicated by common and hydrostatic balances. Several deep sighted philosophers compute the weight of bodies with a reference to water. They fill a suitable vessel with water, and throw into it 100 misquis of each metal: and from the quantities of water thrown out upon the introduction of the metals, are found the differences between them in volume and weight. The greater the quantity of the water which 100 misquis of a body displace, the greater is its volume and the less its weight.

• The Arabic consonants of the mnemo technical words labes, alem, etc., represent numbers; thus, l:k+n=30+20+50; a+l+m=1+30+40; etc.

¹ Abs Nasr : Farsh, of Farsh, a town in Sijistän. His real name is Muhammad Badra 'd Din. He has written a Vocabulary in rhyme, entitled Nijoba 's Sibyaa, which for centuries has been read in nearly every Madrasa of Persia and India; ride Journal 4s, Soc. Bengel, for 1868, p. 7.

We fix the specific gravities as follows: Gold 19:26: Hereury 13:6: Lead 11:325; Silver 10:47; Copper 6: Tin 7:32; Iron 7:7, for which numbers water is unity. Abit 'I-Fazi takes gold as standard; and assuming, for his values, 19:26 as its specific gravity, we would get, Mercury 13:87; Lead 11:36; Silver 10:40; Copper 8:67; Iron 7:76; Tin 7:32; Ray 8:86.

and reversely. Thus 100 m. of silver displace 93 m. of water, and the same quantity of gold, 54 m. If the weight of the water displaced by a body be subtracted from its weight in air, its weight in water will be found. The scales of the air-balance are both suspended in air; those of the hydrostatic balance are both on the surface of the water. As the heavier body possesses the greater power for sinking, it will, in any case, move in the direction of the perpendicular; but, if either of the two scales be on the surface of the water, and the other in the air, the latter scale, although perhaps the lighter, will necessarily sink, as air, being a finer substance than water, does not offer so much resistance. A body will sink in water if the quantity of water displaced by it be less than the weight of the body, and a body will float if that quantity be greater; and if the water displaced be equal to the weight of the body, its upper side will coincide with the surface of the water. Abū Rayḥān has drawn up a table which I shall insert here,

Quantity of water displaced by 100 Apparent weight (weight in water) of migals of 100 migals of Migal. Dang. Tassaj. Migal. Dang. Tassaj. Gold. 95 4 2

	and the same of th			J. —	T. William T. Strucker in manney 1.			
Gold, ²	5	1	2	Gold,	95	4	2	
Quicksilver,	7	2	1	Quickailver,	92	3	3	
Lead,	8	5	3	Lead,	91	1	3	
Silver,	9	4	1	Silver,	90	1	3	
Rūy,	11	2	3	Rūy,	88	4	3	
Copper,	11	3	3	Copper,	88	3	3	
Brass,	11	4	3	Brass,	88	2	3	
Iron,	12	5	2	Iron,	87	3	2	
Tin,	13	4	3	Tin,	86	2	3	
Yāqūt (light blue),	25	1	2	Yāqūt (light blue),	74	4	2	
Yāqūt (red),	26	3	3	Yāqūt (red),	74	3	3	
Ruby (la*l),	27	5	2	Ruby (lu*l),	72	3	2	
Zumurrud,	36	2	3	Zumurrud,	63	4	3	
Pearl,	37	1	3	Pearl,	62	5	3	
Lapis lasuli,	38	3	3	Lapis lazuli,	61	3	3	
Cornelian,	38	3	3	Cornelian,	61	3	3	
Amber,	39	3	3	Amber,	60	3	3	
Bullar,	40	3	3	Bullūr,	60	3	3	

P. ابو ريداي سوني 1] -P.

² With the exception of Quickeileer, Silver, and Yaqut (light blue), the numbers given in the Miss., and the above list, are slightly wrong, because the sum of the weights of the water displaced and the apparent weight, ought to give 100 miggles (1 m. = 6 d.; 1 d. = 4 t.). But in most items there is an excess of one dang.

The weight (in air) of the undermentioned metals, the volume of 100 migqals of gold being taken as the unit of volume. The weight (in air) of the undermentioned precious stones, the volume of 100 misgals of the blue yaqut being taken as the unit of volume.

	Misgal.	Dàng.	Tuenij.		Minjal. Ding. Tuesa		
Gold,	100	0	0	Yāqūt (light blue),	94	3	3
Quicksilver,	71	I	1	Yāqūt (red),	94	3	3
Lead,	59	2	2	Ruby,	60	2	3
Silver,	54	3	3	Zumurrud,	69	3	3
Rûy,	46	2	3	Pearls,	67	5	2
Copper,	45	3	3	Lapis lazuli,	65	3	2
Brass,	45	3	5	(?)Cornelian,	64	4	2
Iron,	. 10	0	0	Amber,	64	3	1
Tin,	. 38	2	2	Bullūr	63	3	3

A*in 15.

THE IMPERIAL HAREM.

His Majesty is a great friend of good order and propriety in business. Through order, the world becomes a meadow of truth and reality; and that which is but external, receives through it a spiritual meaning. For this reason, the large number of women 1—a vexatious question even for great statesmen—furnished his Majesty with an opportunity to display his wisdom, and to rise from the low level of worldly dependence to the eminence of perfect freedom. The imperial palace and household are therefore in the best order.

His Majesty forms matrimonial alliances with princes of Hindustan, and of other countries: and secures by these ties of harmony the peace of the world.

As the sovereign, by the light of his wisdom, has raised fit persons from the dust of obscurity, and appointed them to various offices, so does he also elevate faithful persons to the several ranks in the service of the seraglio. Short-sighted men think of impure gold, which will gradually turn into pure gold: ² but the far-sighted know that his Majesty understands how to use clixirs ³ and chemical processes. Any kind of growth

الم يوكيان بــ P.]

So according to the opinion of the philosophers of the Middle Ages.

Blixirs change quickly that which is worthless into pure gold.

will alter the constitution of a body; copper and iron will turn to gold, and tin and lead to silver; hence it is no matter of astonishment if an excellent being changes the worthless into men. "The saying of the wise is true that the eye of the exalted is the elixir for producing goodness." Such also are the results flowing from the love of order of his Majesty, from his wisdom, insight, regard to rank, his respect for others, his activity, his patience. Even when he is angry, he does not deviate from the right path; he looks at everything with kindly feelings, weighs rumours well, and is free from all prejudice; he considers it a great blessing to have the good wishes of the people, and does not allow the intoxicating pleasures of this world to overpower his calm judgment.

His Majesty has made a large enclosure with fine buildings inside, where he reposes. Though there are more than five thousand women, he has given to each a separate apartment. He has also divided them into sections, and keeps them attentive to their duties. Several chaste women have been appointed as daroghas, and superintendents over each section, and one has been selected for the duties of writer. Thus, as in the imperial offices, everything is here also in proper order. The salaries are sufficiently liberal. Not counting the presents, which his Majesty most generously bestows, the women of the highest rank receive from 1610 to 1028 Rs. per mensem. Some of the servants have from 51 to 20, others from 40 to 2 Rs. Attached to the private audience hall of the palace is a clever and zealous writer, who superintends the expenditure of the Harem, and keeps an account of the cash and the stores. If a woman wants anything, within the limit of her salary, she applies to one of the Tahwildars (cashkeepers) of the seraglio. The Tahwildar then sends a memorandum to the writer, who checks it, when the General Treasurer makes the payment in cash, as for claims of this nature no cheques are given.

The writer also makes out an estimate of the annual expenditure, writes out summarily a receipt, which is countersigned by the ministers of the state. It is then stamped with a peculiar imperial seal, which is only used in grants connected with the Harem, when the receipt becomes payable. The money itself is paid by the cash-keeper of the General Treasury to the General Taḥwīldār, who on the order of the writer of the Harem, hands it over to the several Sub-Taḥwīldārs for distribution among the servants of the scraglio. All moneys are reckoned in their salaries at the current rate.

The inside of the Harem is guarded by sober and active women; the

¹ At 40 dams per rupee.

most trustworthy of them are placed about the apartments of his Majesty. Outside the enclosure the eunuchs are placed; and at a proper distance, there is a guard of faithful $R\bar{a}jp\bar{u}ts$, beyond whom are the porters of the gates. Besides, on all four sides, there are guards of Nobles, Ahadis, and other troops, according to their ranks.

Whenever Begams, or the wives of nobles, or other women of chaste character, desire to be presented, they first notify their wish to the servants of the seraglio, and wait for a reply. From thence they send their request to the officers of the palace, after which those who are eligible are permitted to enter the Harem. Some women of rank obtain permission to remain there for a whole month.

Notwithstanding the great number of faithful guards, his Majesty does not dispense with his own vigilance, but keeps the whole in proper order.

A*in 16

THE ENCAMPMENT ON JOURNEYS.1

It would be difficult to describe a large encampment; but I shall say something on the equipage used for hunting parties and short journeys.

1. The Gulāl-bār is a grand enclosure, the invention of his Majesty, the doors of which are made very strong, and secured with locks and keys. It is never less than one hundred yards square. At its eastern end a pavilion of two entrances is erected, containing 54 divisions, 24 yards long and 14 broad; and in the middle there stands a large chūbīn rā,ofs, and round about it a sarā-parda. Adjoining to the chūbīn, they built up a two-storied pavilion, in which his Majesty performs divine worship, and from the top of which, in the morning, he receives the compliments of the nobility. No one connected with the seraglio enters this building without special leave. Outside of it, twenty-four chūbīn rā,ofīs are erected, 10 yards long and 6 yards wide, each separated by a canvas, where the favourite women reside. There are also other pavilions and tents for the servants, with sāyabāns 4 of gold embroidery, brocade, and velvet. Adjoining to this is a sarā-parda of carpet, 60 yards square, within which a few tents are erected, the place for the Urlāl-begīs, and other female

^{[1} In text happ. Furish T properly means "attack, assault". Farish-hit aceme to mean here "military expeditions.—P.]

^{(*} درمر ۱۶ مرمر ۱۶ مرمر ۱۶ مرمر ۱۶ مرمر ۱۶ Described in the twenty-first A in.

⁴ Awnings.
5 Armed women

servants. Farther on up to the private audience hall, there is a fine open space, 150 yards long and 100 yards broad, called the Mahtābī; and on both sides of it, a screen is set up as before described, which is supported by poles 6 yards long, fixed in the ground at distances of two yards. The poles are one yard in the ground, and are ornamented with brass knobs on the top, and kept firm by two ropes, one passing inside and the other outside of the enclosure. The guards watch here, as has been described.

In the midst of the plain is a raised platform, which is protected by an awning, or Nam-gira, supported by four poles. This is the place where his Majesty sits in the evening, and none but those who are particularly favoured are here admitted. Adjoining to the Gulal-bar, there is a circular enclosure, consisting of twelve divisions, each of thirty yards, the door of the enclosure opening into the Mahtabi; and in the midst of it is a Chūbīn rā,oţī, ten yards long, and a tent containing forty divisions, over which twelve awnings are spread, each of twelve yards, and separated by canvases.2 This place, in every division of which a convenient closet is constructed, is called Ibachkī,3 which is the (Chaghatā*ī) name used by his Majesty. Adjoining to this a Sarā-parda is being put up, 150 yards in length and breadth, containing sixteen divisions, of thirty-six square yards, the Sunit-pardu being, as before, sustained by poles with knobs. In the midst of it, the state-hall is erected, by means of a thousand carpets; it contains seventy-two rooms, and has an opening fifteen yards wide. A tent-like covering, or Qalandari, made of waxcloth, or any other lighter material, is spread over it, which affords protection against the rain and the sun; and round about it, are fifty awnings, of twelve yards each. The pavilion, which serves as Diwan-i kkāṣṣ or private audience hall, has proper doors and locks. Here the nobles and the officers of the army, after having obtained leave through the Bakhshis, 4 pass before the Emperor, the list of officers eligible for admission being changed on the first of every month. The place is decorated, both inside and outside with carpets of various colours, and resembles a beautiful flower-bed. Outside of it, to a distance of 350 yards, ropes are drawn, fastened to poles, which are set up at a distance of three yards from each other. Watchmen are stationed about them. This is the Divan-i* Amm, or public audience hall, round which, as above described,

¹ As may be still seen in the ruins of Fathpür Sikri.

[* crisi "tent-wall"....P.]

[* In text sbackli-faind....P.]

4 Paymasters. The Commanding Officers were at the same time paymasters, as they collected the rents of the lands assigned to them for the payment of their contingents.

the various guards are placed. At the end of this place, at a distance of twelve \underline{tanabs}^{1} is the $Naqq\bar{a}ra$ $\underline{Kh\bar{a}na}$, and in the midst of the area the $Ak\bar{a}s$ -diyu is lighted up.

Some encampments, as just now described, are sent off, and one of them is put up by the Farrāshes on a piece of ground which the Mīr Manzils have selected as an eligible spot, whilst the other camp furniture is sent in advance, to await the approach of his Majesty. Each encampment requires for its carriage 100 elephants, 500 camels, 400 carts, and 100 bearers. It is escorted by 500 troopers, Mansabdars, Ahadīs. Besides, there are employed a thousand Farrāshes, natives of Īrān, Tūrān, and Hindustān, 500 pioneers, 100 water-carriers, 50 carpenters, tent-makers, and torch-bearers, 30 workers in leather, and 150 sweepers.

The monthly pay of the foot varies from 210 to 130 dains.

A*in 17.

THE ENCAMPMENT OF THE ARMY.

Although his Majesty but rarely collects his armies, a large number of troops accompany him in whatever direction an expedition may go; but a considerable number, in every province, are employed on various services, and are not allowed to follow him. On account of the crowding of camp followers, and the number of the troops themselves, it would take a soldier days to find his tent; and how much worse would it be for a stranger! His Majesty has invented an admirable method of encamping his troops, which is a source of much comfort to them. On an open ground they pitch the imperial scraplio, the audience half and the Naqāra Llāna, all occupying a space the length of which is 1530 yards. To the right and left, and behind, is an open space of 360 yards, which no one but the guards is allowed to enter. Within it, at a distance of 100 yards to the left and centre are the tents of Mayam Makān, and Gulbadan Begum, and other chaste tadies, and the tents of Prince Dānyāt; to the

² A high pole to the ton of which an immense lamp is fixed. Title p. 50

Quartermaster:.

[[] Qol, M. is said to be the centre of an army in battle array. P.]

right, those of Prince Sultan Salim, and to the left, those of Prince Shah Murad. Behind their tents, at some distance, the offices and workshops are placed, and at a further distance of 30 yards behind them, at the four corners of the camp, the bazars. The nobles are encamped without on all sides, according to their rank.

Friday, and Saturday encamp in the centre; The guards to those for Sunday and Monday, on the right; in those for Tuesday and

Wednesday, on the left,

A*in 18.

ON ILLUMINATIONS.

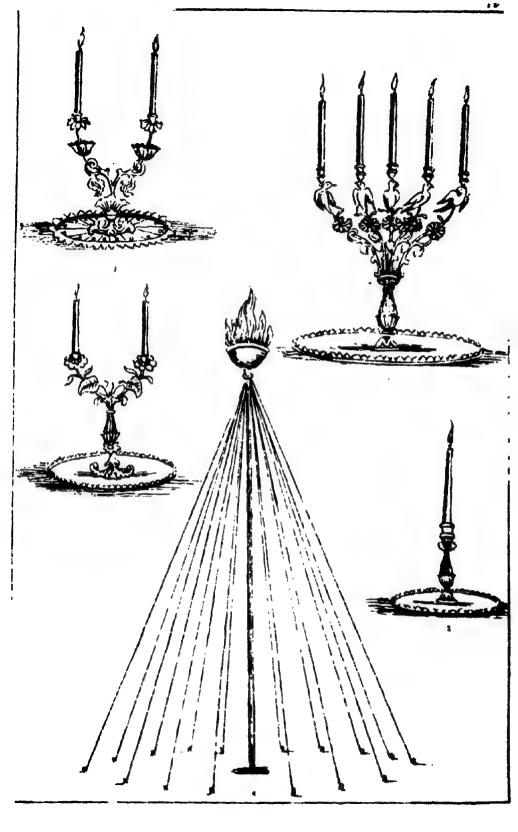
His Majesty maintains that it is a religious duty and divine praise to worship fire and light; surly, ignorant men consider this forgetfulness of the Almighty, and fire-worship. But the deep-sighted know better. As the external form of the worship of "the select", is based upon propriety, and as people think the neglect of some sort of worship abominable, there can be nothing improper in the veneration of that exalted element which is the source of man's existence, and of the duration of his life; nor should base thoughts enter such a matter.

How beautifully has Shaykh Sharf" 'd-Din * said : "What can be done with a man who is not satisfied with the lamp when the sun is down?" Every flame is derived from that fountain of divine light (the sun), and bears the impression of its holy essence. If light and fire did not exist, we should be destitute of food and medicines; the power of sight would be of no avail to the eyes. The fire of the sun is the torch of God's sovereignty.

At noon of the day, when the sun enters the 19th degree of Aries, the whole world being then surrounded by his light, they expose a round piece of a white and shining stone, called in Hindi Sūrajkrānt, to the rays of the sun. A piece of cotton is then held near it, which catches fire from the heat of the stone. This celestial fire is committed to the care of proper persons. The lamp-lighters, torch-bearers, and cooks of the household, use it for their offices; and when the year has passed away in happiness, they renew the fire. The vessel in which this fire is preserved, is called Agingir, i.e. fire-pot.

¹ The members of the Divine Faith.

This famous saint died in the beginning of the fifteenth century. Munair is a town in Bahar; vide Journal As. Soc. Bengal, 1868, p. 7, l. 3, from below, and the biographies of Indian Saints in the fourth book. His works are to be found among the Persian MSS. of the Society's Library.



There is also a shining white stone, called *Chandrkrānt*, which, upon being exposed to the beams of the moon, drips water.

Every afternoon, one ghapt 1 before sunset, his Majesty, if riding, alights, or, if sleeping, he is awakened. He then lays aside the splendour of royalty, and brings his external appearance in harmony with his heart. And when the sun sets, the attendants light twelve white candles, 3 on twelve candlesticks of gold and silver, and bring them before his Majesty, when a singer of sweet melodies, with a candle in his hand, sings a variety of delightful airs to the praise of God, beginning and concluding with a praver for the continuance of this auspicious reign. His Majesty attaches the utmost importance to praise and prayer, and earnestly asks God for renewed light.

It is impossible to describe the beauty and various forms of the candle. sticks and shades, and to give an account of the offices of the workmen. Some of the candlesticks weigh ten mans and upwards, and are adorned with various designs; some single, others of two branches and more: they give light to the internal eye. His Majesty has invented a candlestick, one yard high. Five others are placed on the top of it, and each is adorned with the figure of an animal. White wax candles, three yards and upwards in length, are cast for it, so that a ladder is required to snuff it. Hesides there are everywhere flambeaux,3 both inside and outside, which increase the light very much. The first, second, and third nights of every lunar month, when there is moonlight but for a short time, eight wicks are used; I from the fourth to the tenth, they decrease one in number every night, so that on the tenth night, when the moon is very bright, one is sufficient; and they continue in this state till the fifteenth, and increase one wick every day from the sixteenth to the nineteenth. twentieth night the number is the same as on the nineteenth, on the twenty first and twenty-second they increase one daily: the twentythird is the same as the twenty-second; and from the twenty-fourth to the last, eight wicks are lighted up. They allow for every wick one ser of oil, and half a ser of cotton. In some places there are fat-burners, where greuse is buint instead of oil. The allowance varies according to the size of the wick

In order to render the royal camp conspicuous to those who come from far, his Majesty has caused to be erected, in front of the Durbar, a pole upwards of forty yards high, which is supported by sixteen ropes;

¹ the gard 24 minutes.
1 the control with a war candles.—P.]

th numers with several wicks are very common in India. For each flamicau.

and on the top of the pole is a large lantern, which they call Akās-diya.¹ Its light, seen from great distances, guides the soldiers to the imperial camp, and helps them to find their tents. In former times, before the lamp was erected, the men had to suffer hardships from not being able to find the road.

' In this department Mansabdars, Ahadas, and other troops are employed. The allowance of a foot soldier never exceeds 2400, and is never less than 80 dams.

A*in 19.

THE ENSIGNS OF ROYALTY.

The Shamsa * of the arch of royalty is a divine light, which God directly transfers to kings, without the assistance of men; and kings are fond of external splendour, because they consider it an image of the Divine glory. I shall mention some of the insignia used at present.

1. The Awang, or throne, is made of several forms; some are inlaid with precious stones, and others are made of gold, silver, etc. 2. The Chatr, or umbrella, is adorned with the most precious jewels, of which there are never less than seven. 3. The Sāya-bān is of an oval form, a yard in length, and its handle, like that of the umbrella, is covered with brocade and ornamented with precious stones. One of the attendants holds it, to keep off the rays of the sun. It is also called Āftābgīr. 4. The Kawkaba, of which several are hung up before the assembly hall.

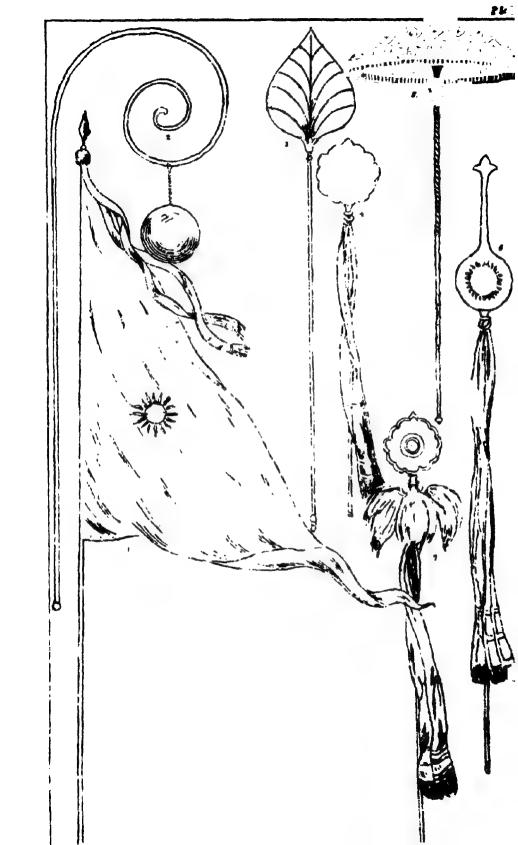
These four insignia are used by kings only.

5. The \$\(^Alam\), or standard. When the king rides out, not less than five of these are carried along with the \$Q\bar{u}r, \(^4\) wrapped up in scarlet cloth bags. On days of festivity, and in battle, they are unfurled. 6. The \$Chatrtoq\$, a kind of \$\(^5Alam\), but smaller than it, is adorned with the tails of Thibetan yaks. 7. The *Tumantoq* is like the Chatrtoq\$, but longer. Both insignia are flags of the highest dignity, and the latter is bestowed upon great nobles only. 8. The *Jhand\bar{u}\bar{u}\$ is an Indian flag. The \$Q\bar{u}r\$ necessarily contains a flag of each kind; but on great occasions many are displayed.

Of musical instruments used in the Naqārahkhāna, I may mention, 1. the Kuwarga, commonly called damāma; there are eighteen pair of

From Able sky, and doys lamp. The Akiadiya is also mentioned by Bernier.
 Shames is a picture of the sun affixed to the gates or walls of the palaces of kings.
 At night these pictures are illuminated.
 Fide the plates

⁴ The Q\$r is a collection of flags, arms, and other insignis, which follow the king wherever he gloss.



them more or less; and they give a deep sound. 2 The naqāra, twenty pair, more or less. 3. The duhul, of which four are used. 4. The Karnā¹ is made of gold, silver, brass, and other metals, and they never blow fewer than four. 5. The surnā of the Persian and Indian kinds; they blow nine together. 6. The nafīr, of the Persian, European, and Indian kinds; they blow some of each kind. 7. The sing is of brass and made in the form of a cow's horn; they blow two together. 8. The sanj, or cymbal, of which three pair are used.

Formerly the band played four gharis before the commencement of the night, and likewise four gharis before laybreak; now they play first at midnight, when the sun commences his ascent, and the second time at dawn. One gharī before sunrise, the musicians commence to blow the surnd, and wake up those that are asleep; and one ghard after sunrise, they play a short prelude, when they beat the kuvcarga a little, whereupon they blow the kurna, the nafir, and the other instruments, without, however, making use of the naquere; after a little pause the surnus are blown again, the time of the music being indicated by the nafirs. One hour later the nugarus commence, when all musicians raise "the auspicious strain." 2 After this they go through the following seven performances. 1. The Mursali, which is the name of a time played by the mural; and afterwards the bardisht, which consists likewise of certain tunes, played by the whole band. This is fellowed by a planissime, and a crescendo passing over into a diminuel, lo . 2. The playing of the four tunes, called ikhlatī, ibtidā i, shīrāzī, galvidar vagir gatri, or nikkā i gatra, which occupies an hour. 3. The playing of the old 4 Khwarizmite tunes. Of these his Majesty has composed more than two hun Ire I, which are the delight of young and old, especially the anes Julitshahi Maliteir karkat (1), and the Nacross 4. The scretting play of the eventuals 5. The playing of Ba mayan duce. 6. The passing onto the two surface, also called rib-r billi, after which comes a plantssine. The Khearizante tunes, played by the Mursd, after which he oalses into the secursa's he then payses, and commences the blessings on his Majeste, when the whole band strikes up a manissimo. Then follows one making of boar la sentences and poems. This also lasts for an hour; Afterwards the see I

¹ Or Karrana. (In text barna. 1'4 Probably bleasings on his Majesty.

² Several of these cames of melodies are under, and will in it probability a manea. Perhaps the words shirter polandari, the horse of Shirter belong to each other. None parameters, behold the tear. Chilandar is a kind of numbering correspondent with appearance. It!
[9 In text wold and new." P.]

players perform for another hour, when the whole comes to a proper conclusion.

His Majesty has such a knowledge of the science of music as trained musicians do not possess; and he is likewise an excellent hand in performing, especially on the maquara.

Mansabdars, Ahadas, and other troops are employed in this department. The monthly pay of a foot-soldier does not exceed 340 and is not less than 74 dams.

Ā in 20.

THE ROYAL SEALS.

Seals are used in the three ¹ branches of the Government; in fact every man requires them in his transactions. ² In the beginning of the present reign, Mawlana Maqaud, the seal-engraver, cut in a circular form upon a surface of steel, in the rique character, the name of his Majesty, and those of his illustrious ancestors up to Timurlang; and afterwards he cut another similar seal, in the nastatuq character, only with his Majesty's name. For judicial transactions a second kind of seal was made, mihrabi in form, ² which had the following verse round the name of his Majesty '--

Rāstī mūjib-i rizā-yi khudāst kas nadīdam ki gum shud az rāh-ī rāst.
"Uprightness is the means of pleasing God; I never saw any one lost in the straight road."

Tamkin made a new seal of the second kind; and afterwards Mawlana Ali Ahmad of Dihli improved both. The round small seal goes by the (chaghatā*i) name of Uzuk, and is used for farmān-i sablis; and the large one, into which he cut the names of the ancestors of his Majesty, was at first only used for letters to foreign kings, but nowadays for both. For other orders a square seal is used, engraved with the words Allāh* Akbar jall* jalālahū, whilst another of a peculiar stamp is used for all matters connected with the seraglio. For the seals attached to farmāns, another stamp is used of various forms.

Of seal-engravers I shall mention

1. Maulana Maqqud of Hirat, one of the servants of Humayun, who writes well the rique and nastating characters. The astrolahe, globes, and

¹ Corresponding to the threshold division of the Atheri. Abbari.

Vide note p 30.
Vide the eleventh A^kin of the second book.

various mistars 1 which he made, were much admired by people of experience. The patronage of his Majesty perfected his art.

- 2. Tamkin of Kābul. He was educated in his native country, and brought his art to such a perfection as to excite the jealousy of the preceding engraver, whom he surpassed in the nastacliq.
- 3. Mir Dost of Kābul. He cuts both the rīqā^c and nasta^clīq characters in cornelian. He does not come up to the preceding artists. His riqā^c is better than his nasta^clīq. He also understands assaying.
- 4. Mawlānā Ibrāhīm. In the art of cutting cornelians he is the pupil of his brother Sharaf of Yazd. He surpasses the ancient engravers; and it is impossible to distinguish his riqā° and nasta°līq from the masterpieces of the best calligraphers. He engraved the words la°l jalālī, or the glorious ruby, upon all imperial rubies of value.
- 5. Mawlānā Alī Aḥmad of Dihlī who, according to all calligraphers, stands unsurpassed as a steel-engraver, so much so that his engravings are used as copies. His nasta līq is charming; but he writes also other characters as well. He learned the trade from his father Shaykh Husayn, studied the manner of Mawlānā Maqsūd, and eventually surpassed all.

Ā*in 21.

THE FARRASH KHANA.

His Majesty considers this department ³ as an excellent dwelling-place, a shelter from heat and cold, a protector against the rain, as the ornament of toyalty. He looks upon its efficiency as one of the insignia of a ruler, and therefore considers the care bestowed upon it as a part of Divine worship. The department has been much improved, both in the quality and the quantity of the stores, and also by the introduction of new fashions. I shall mention a few particulars as specimens for future enquirers.

1. The Bārgāh, when large, is able to contain more than ten thousand

Nisam of Hirst, in his Tabaqat-i Akbari, mentions him among the contemporaneous

Persian poets, and gives a few of his verses.
[* att, t.-P]

I Copyists take a piece a pasteboard of the same size as the paper on which they write. Then they draw two parallel vertical lines, each about an inch from the two vertical sides of the pasteboard. Along these lines they make small holes at equal intervals, and draw a string from the first hole at the left hand to the first hole of the right of the pasteboard. Similarly, the two second holes are joined, and so on, care being taken that the horizontal strings are parallel. This contrivance is called mixer, from salar, a line. The copyist then puts the blank sheets on the top of the mixer, and presses on them with the hands, when the strings will leave marks on the paper sufficiently clear to prevent the writer from writing crookedly.

people. It takes a thousand farrashes, a week to erect with the help of machines. There are generally two door poles, fastened with hinges. If plain (i.e. without brocade, velvet, or gold ornaments) a bargah costs 10.000 rupees and upwards, whilst the price of one full of ornaments is unlimited. The price of others may be estimated from the price of a plain one. 2. The Chūbīn rāwalī is raised on ten pillars. They go a little into the ground, and are of equal height, with the exception of two, which are a little higher, as the crossbeam rests upon them. The pillars have, above and below, a dasa, to keep them firm, and several rafters pass over the dasas and the crossbeam, the whole being kept tightly together by clamps and bolts and nuts. The walls and the roof consist of mats. There is one door or two; and at the height of the lower dasas there is a raised platform. The inside is ornamented with brocade and velvet, and the outside with scarlet-sackcloth, tied to the walls with silk tape. 3. The Do-āshivāna manzil, or house of two storeys, is raised upon eighteen pillars, six yards in height, which support a wooden platform; and into this. pillars of four cubits in length are fixed with bolt and nuts, forming an upper storey. The inside and outside are ornamented, as in the preceding On the march it is used by his Majesty as a sleeping apartment, and also as a place of divine worship, where he prays to the Sun; and hence the building resembles a man who strives after God without forgetting his worldiv duties whose one eye is directed to the solitude of pure devotion, and the other eye to the motley sura of the world. After the devotions are over, the women are allowed to enter to pay their compliments, and after them, outsiders. On journeys his Majesty inspects in this building the rations (of the elephants, camels, etc.), which is called iharoka, or window. 4. The Zamindoz is a tent made of various forms, sometimes with one, sometimes with two door poles; screens are also hung up within it, so as to form divisions. 5. The Ajā*ībī consists of nine awnings on four pillars. Five of the awn-ngs are square, and four tapering; sometimes they make it so as to contain one division only, and four tapering; sometimes they make it so as to contain one division only, supported by a single pole. 6. The Mandal is composed of five awnings joined together, and is supported by four poles. Four of the awnings are let down so as to form a private room; sometimes all four are drawn up, or one side only is left 7. The Ath-khamba consists of seventeen awnings, sometimes

A triangular piece of wood fixed into the angle formed by the vertical beam and the cross-beam, a support.

⁽² Saqirla, perhaps a scarlet broad-cloth. F.)

(3 Jharaki, a small window in an upper storey, especially one in a palace, to obtain a view.—P.)

separate, sometimes joined together; they are supported by eight poles. 8. The Khargāh is a folding tent made in various ways; some with one, others with two doors. 9. The Shāmyāna-awning is made of various sizes, but never more than of twelve yards square. 10. The Qalandarī has been described. 11. The Sarāparda was made in former times of coarse canvas, but his Majesty has now caused it to be made of carpeting, and thereby improved its appearance and usefulness. 12. The Gulābār is a wooden screen, its parts being fastened together, like the walls of the Khargāh, with leather straps, so that it can be folded together when the camp breaks up. The gulābār is covered with red cloth, tied with tape.

Carpets.2

His Majesty has caused carpets to be made of wonderful varieties and charming textures; he has appointed experienced workmen, who have produced many masterpieces. The gilīms of Īrān and Tūrān are no more thought of, although merchants still import carpets from Goshkān, Khūzistān, Kirmān, and Sabzwār. All kinds of carpet weavers have settled here, and drive a flourishing trade. These are found in every town, especially in Āgra, Fathpūr and Lāhor. In the imperial workshops single gilīms are made 20 gaz 7 tassūjes long, and 6 gaz 11½ tassūjes broad, at a cost of 1810 rupees, which those who are skilled in the business have valued at 2715 rupees.

Takya-namada, or woollen coverlets, are brought from Kābul and Persia, but are also made in this country

It would take up too much time to lescribe the jājams, shatrinns, balüchis, and the fine mats which look as if voven of silk.

A ir 22.

THE ABDAR KhANA.

His Majesty calls this source of life "the water of immortality", and has committed the care of this department to proper persons. He does not drink much, but pays much attention to this matter. Both at home and

In text any wildyes. Both countries are known by the name, as also England

in modern times.-P.]

Vide p. 48.
 In text gilim, which is a carpet without a pile...-P.;

Goshkin, er Joshugda, a town ir Glades GAjami, halfway between Kāshān and Islahān Khūnistān is the Persian province of which Shunhtar, or Shustar, is the Lapital; the ancient Susians. Kirmān is the capital of the Persian province Kirmān, which borders on Balūchistān. Sabrudz is one of the shief cities of the Persian province Kliurāsān, between Mashhad (Meshed) and the Caspian Sec.

on travels he drinks Ganges water. Some trustworthy persons are stationed on the banks of that river, who dispatch the water in sealed jars. When the court was at the capital Agra and in Fathpur, the water came from the district of Sorun, but now that his Majesty is in the Paniab. the water is brought from Hardwar. For the cooking of the food, rainwater or water taken from the Jamna and the Chanab is used, mixed with a little Ganges water. On journeys and hunting parties, his Majesty, from his predilection for good water, appoints experienced men as watertasters.

Saltpetre, which in gunpowder produces the explosive heat, is used by his Majesty as a means for cooling water, and is thus a source of joy for great and small. Saltpetre is a saline earth. They fill with it a perforated vessel, and pour some water over it, and collecting what drops through, they boil it, clean it, and let it crystallize. One ser of water is then put into a goglet of pewter, or silver, or any other such metal, and the mouth closed. Then two and a half sers of salt petre are thrown into a vessel, together with five sers of water, and in this mixture the goglet is stirred about for a quarter of an hour, when the water in the goglet will become cold. The price of saltpetre varies from ? to 4 mans per rupee.

Since the thirtieth year 3 of the Divine Era, when the imperial standards were erested in the Panjab, snow and ice have come into use. Ice is brought by land and water, by post carriages or bearers, from the district of Panhan, in the northern mountains, about forty-five kos from Lähor. The dealers derive a considerable profit, two to three sers of ice being sold per rupee. The greatest profit is derived when the ice is brought by water, next when by carriages, and least when by bearers. The inhabitants of the mountains bring it in loads, and sell it in piles containing from 25 to 30 sers, at the rate of 5 dams. If they have to bring it very far, it costs 24 d. 17 j.; if the distance be an average one, 15 d.

Out of the ten boats employed for the transport of ice, one arrives daily at the capital, each being manned by four boatmen. The ice bundles contain from six to twelve sers, according to the temperature. A carriage brings two loads. There are fourteen stages, where the horses are changed, and besides, one elephant is used. Twelve pieces of ten to four sers By this kind of transport, a ser of ice costs in winter 3 d 21 j.; during the rains 14 d. 20 j.; in the intermediate time 9 d. 211 j.;

a A D. 1586.

The nearest station on the Ganges from Agra.
 A D 1596. As in 1586 Fathpur had ceased to be the capital, Akbar resided mostly in the Panjab.

and in the average, 15d. $15\frac{1}{2}j$. If it is brought by bearers, twenty-eight men are required for the fourteen stages. They bring every day one load, containing four parcels. In the beginning of the year, the ice costs 5d. $19\frac{1}{2}j$.; in the middle 16d. $2\frac{1}{8}j$.; and in the end 19d. $15\frac{1}{8}j$. per ser; in the average, $18\frac{1}{8}d$.

All ranks use ice in summer; the nobles use it throughout the whole year.

Ā^eīn 23.

THE IMPERIAL KITCHEN.

His Majesty even extends his attention to this department, and has given many wise regulations for it; nor can a reason be given why he should not do so, as the equilibrium of man's nature, the strength of the body, the capability of receiving external and internal blessings, and the acquisition of worldly and religious advantages, depend ultimately on proper care being shown for appropriate food. This knowledge distinguishes man from beasts, with whom, as far as mere eating is concerned. he stands upon the same level. If his Majesty did not possess so lofty a mind, so comprehensive an understanding, so universal a kindness, he would have chosen the path of solitude and given up sleep and food altogether; and even now, when he has taken upon himself the temporal and spiritual leadership of the people, the question, "What dinner has been prepared to-day?" never passes over his tongue. In the course of twenty four hours his Majesty eats but once, and leaves off before he is fully satisfied, neither is there any fixed time for this meal, but the servants have always things so far ready, that in the space of an hour, after the order has been given a hundred dishes are served up. The food allowed to the women of the seragilo commences to be taken from the kitchen in the morning, and goes on till night.

Trustworthy and experienced people are appointed to this department; and all good servants attached to the court, are resolved to perform well whatever service they have undertaken. Their head is assisted by the Prime Minister hunself. His Majesty has entrusted to the latter the affairs of the state, but especially this important department. Notwithstanding all this, his Majesty is not unmindful of the conduct of the servants. He appoints a zealous and sincere man as Mir Bakāwal, or

The test has sardsari which may mean the average; but the price given by Abb'l-Farl is not an average. The charges for ire at the time of Akbar may be compared to the prices of the present age. Here, in Calcutta, one ser of American ice costs two sansas, or § rupee, i.e., \$\psi\$ = 5 ddms of Akbar.

Master of the Kitchen, upon whose insight the success of the department depends, and gives him several upright persons as assistants. There are also treasurers for the cash and the stores, several tasters, and a clever writer. Cooks from all countries prepare a great variety of dishes of all kinds of grains, greens, meats; also oily, sweet, and spicy dishes. Every day such dishes are prepared as the nobles can scarcely command at their feasts, from which you may infer how exquisite the dishes are which are prepared for his Majesty.

In the beginning of the year the Sub-tressurers make out an annual estimate, and receive the amount; the money bags and the door of the store-house being sealed with the seals of the Mir Bakawal and the writer; and every month a correct statement of the daily expenditure is drawn up, the receipt for which is sealed by the same two officers, when it is entered under the head of the expenditure. At the beginning of every quarter.1 the Diwan-i buyutat 2 and the Mir Bakawal, collect whatever they think will be necessary; e.g. Sukhdas rice from Bharaij, Deuzīra rice from Gwāliār, Jinjin rice from Rājórī and Nīmlah, ghī from Hisār Fīrūza; ducks,4 water-fowls, and certain vegetables from Kashmir. Patterns are always kept. The sheep, goats, berberies, fowls, ducks, etc., are fattened by the cooks; fowls are never kept less than a month. The slaughter-house is without the city or the camp, in the neighbourhood of rivers and tanks, where the meat is washed, when it is sent to the kitchen in sacks sealed by the cooks. There it is again washed, and thrown into the pots. The water-carriers pour the water out of their leather bags into earthen vessels, the mouths of which are covered with pieces of cloth, and scaled up; and the water is left to settle before it is used. A place is also told off as a kitchen garden, that there may be a continual supply of fresh greens. The Mir Bakawal and the writer determine the price of every estable, which becomes a fixed rule; and they sign the day-book, the estimates, the receipts for transfers, the list of wages of the servants, etc., and watch every transaction. Bad characters, idle talkers, unknown persons are never employed; no one is entertained without a personal security, nor is personal acquaintance sufficient.

The victuals are served up in dishes of gold and silver, stone and earthenware; some of the dishes being in charge of each of the Sub-

^{[1} Fast.—P.]

2 Superintendent of the stores, workshops, etc.

18 Reference P. 1

^{[*} Bahräich,—B.]
[* Qāz T. goose not duck,—P.]
[* Apparently the Barbary goat,—P.]
[* Qāz T. goose,—P.]

Bakāwals. During the time of cooking, and when the victuals are taken out, an awning is spread, and lookers-on kept away. The cooks tuck up their sleeves, and the hems of their garments, and hold their hands before their mouths and noses when the food is taken out; the cook and the Bakāwal taste it, after which it is tasted by the Mir Bakāwal, and then put into the dishes. The gold and silver dishes are tied up in red cloths, and those of copper and china in white ones. The Mir Bakāwal attaches his seal, and writes on it the names of the contents, whilst the clerk of the pantry writes out on a sheet of paper a list of all vessels and dishes, which he sends inside, with the seal of the Mir Bakawal, that now of the dishes may be changed. The dishes are carried by the Bakawals, the cooks, and the other servants, and macebearers precede and follow, to prevent people from approaching them. The servants of the pantry send at the same time, in bags containing the seal of the Bakāwal, various kinds of bread, saucers of curds piled up, and small stands containing plates of pickles, fresh ginger, limes, and various greens. The servants of the palace again taste the food, spread the table cloth on the ground, and arrange the dishes; and when after some time his Majesty commences to dine, the table servants sit opposite him in attendance; first, the share of the derwishes is put apart, when his Majesty commences with milk or curds. After he has dined, he prostrates himself in prayer. The Mir Bakāwal is always in attendance. The dishes are taken away according to the above list. Some victuals are also kept half ready, should they be called for.

The copper utensils are tinned twice a month; those of the princes, etc., once; whatever is broken is given to the braziers, who make new ones.

A*in 24.

RECIPES FOR DISHES.

There are many dishes, but the description is difficult. I shall give some particulars. Cooked victuals may be arranged under three heads, first, such in which no meat is used, called now-a-days suffying: secondly, such in which meat and rice, etc., are used; thirdly, meats with spices. I shall give ten recipes of each kind.

First, 1. Zard birinj: 10 s. of rice: 5 s. of sugarcandy; 3\frac{1}{2} s. of ghi; raisins, almonds, and pistachios. \frac{1}{2} s. of each; \frac{1}{2} s. of salt; \frac{1}{2} s. of fresh ginger; 1\frac{1}{2} ddms saffron, 2\frac{1}{2} misqdls of cinnamon. This will make four ordinary dishes. Some make this dish with fewer spices, and even without

any: and instead of without meat and sweets, they prepare it also with meat and salt. 2. Khushka: 10 s. rice; & s. salt; but it is made in different ways. This will likewise give four dishes. One maund of Dewzīra paddy yields 25 s. of rice, of which 17 sers make a full pot; jinjin rice yields 22 sers. 3. Khichri: Rice, mung dal, and ghi 5 s. of each; \frac{1}{3} s. salt; this gives seven dishes. 4. Shīrbirinj: 10 s. milk; 1 s. rice; 1 s. sugarcandy; 1 d. salt; this gives five full dishes. 5. Thuli: 10 s. of wheat, ground, of which one-third will be lost; half of that quantity of ghī; 10 misqāls of pepper; 4 m. cinnamon; 3\frac{1}{2} m. cloves and cardamums; \frac{1}{2} s. salt; some add milk and sweetmeats: this gives four dishes. 6. Chikhi. 10 s. of wheat-flour, made into a paste, and washed till it is reduced to 2 s. of fine paste. This is mixed with spices, and dressed with various kinds of meat. 1 s. ghī; 1 s. onions; saffron, cardmums, and cloves, ½ d. of each; cinnamon, round pepper, and coriander seed, 1 d. of each; fresh ginger, salt 3 d. of each: this gives two dishes; some add lime juice. 7. Badinjān: 2 10 s.; 1\frac{1}{2} s. ghī: 3\frac{3}{2} s. onions; \frac{1}{4} s. ginger and lime juice; pepper and coriander seed, 5 m. of each; cloves, cardamums, and assafortida, each & m. This gives six dishes. 8. Pahit: For ten sers of dal of vetches (or gram, or skinned lentils, etc.) take 2½ s. ghī; ½ s. of salt and fresh ginger; 2 m. cuminseed; 13 m. assafætida: this yields fifteen dishes. It is mostly eaten with Klushka. 9. Sag: It is made of spinsch, and other greens, and is one of the most pleasant dishes. 10 s. spinach, fennel, etc., 1\frac{1}{2} s. ghi; 1 s. onions; \frac{1}{3} s. fresh ginger; 5\frac{1}{3} m. of pepper; 1 m. of cardamums and cloves; this gives six dishes. 10. Halwā: Flour, sugarcandy, ghi, 10 s. of each, which will give fifteen dishes; it is eaten in various ways.

There are also various kinds of sugared fruits, and drinks, which I cannot here describe.

Secondly, 1. Qabūlī: 10 s. rice; 7 s. meat; 3\frac{1}{3} s. ghī; 1 s. gram skinned; 2 s. onions; 1 s. salt; 1 s. fresh ginger; cinnamon, round pepper, cuminseed, of each 1 d.: cardamums and cloves, & d. of each; some add almonds and raisins: this gives five dishes. 2. Duzdbiryan. 10 s. rice, 31 s. ghī; 10 s. meat; 1 s. salt: this gives five dishes. 3. Qīma 3 Palāo: Rice and meat as in the preceding; 4s. ghī; 1s. peeled gram; 2s. onions; \(\frac{1}{2}\) s. salt; \(\frac{1}{2}\) s. fresh ginger, and pepper; cuminseed, cardamums and cloves, 1 d. of each: this gives five dishes. 4. Shulla: 10 s. meat, 3½ s. rice; 2 s. ghī; 1 s. gram; 2 s. onions; ½ s. salt; ¼ s. fresh

^{[1} All split peas, pulse, lentils, vetches, etc., are called dal.—P.]
[2 Bādinjān is the egg-plant or brinjāl.—P.]
[3 Gima is pounded (or minced) meat.—P.]

ginger; 2 d. garlic, and round pepper, cinnamon, cardamums, cloves, 1 d. of each: this gives six dishes. 5. Bughrā: 10 s. meat; 3 s. flour; 11 s. ghi; 1 s. gram; 11 s. vinegar; 1 s. sugarcandy; onions, carrots, beets, turnips, spinach, fennel, ginger, 1 s. of each; saffron, cloves, cardamorns, cuminseed, 1 d. of each; 2 d. cinnamon; 8 m. round pepper: this gives twelve dishes. 6. Qīma Shūrbā: 10 s. meat; 1 s. rice; 1 s. ghi; 1 s. gram, and the rest as in the Shulla: this gives ten full dishes. 7. Harisa: 10 s. meat; 5 s. crushed wheat; 2 s. ghi; 1 s. salt; 2 d. cinnamon: this gives five dishes. 8. Kashk: 10 s. meat; 5 s. crus! wheat; 3 s. ghi; 1 s. gram; 1 s. salt; 11 s. onions; 1 s. ginger; 1 d. cinnamon; saffron, cloves, cardamums, cuminseed, 2 m. of each: this gives five dishes. 9. Halim: The meat; wheat, gram, spices, and saffron, as in the preceding; 1 s. ghi; turnips, carrots, spinach, fennel, 1 s. of each: this gives ten dishes. 10. Qutab, which the people of Hind call sanbūsa: This is made in several ways. 10 s. meat; 4 s. fine flour; 2 s. ghī; 1 s. onions; ! s. fresh ginger; ! s. salt; 2 d. pepper and coriander seed; cardamums, cuminseed, cloves, 1 d. of each; 1 s of summaq. This can be cooked in twenty different ways, and gives four full dishes.

Thirdly, 1. Biryan. For a whole Dashmandi sheep, take 2 s. salt; 1 s. ghī; 2 m. saffron, cloves, pepper, cuminseed: it is made in various ways. 2. Yakhnī 1: for 10 s. meat, take 1 s. onious, and \frac{1}{2} s. salt. 3. Yulma: A sheep is scalded in water till all the wool comes off; it is then prepared like yakhni, or any other way; but a lamb, or a kid, is more preferable. 4. Kabāb is of various kinds. 10 s. meat; \(\frac{1}{2} \) s. ghī; salt, fresh ginger, onions, 1 s. of each; cuminseed, coriander seed, pepper, cardamums, cloves, 14 d. of each. 5. Musamman: They take all the bones out of a fowl through the neck, the fowl remaining whole; Is. minced mest; 1 s. ghi; 5 eggs; 1 s. onions; 10 m. coriander; 10 m. fresh ginger; 5 m. salt; 3 m. round pepper; 1 m. saffron. It is prepared as the preceding. 6. Dupiyāza: 10 s. meat that is middling fat; 2 s. ghi; 2 s. onions; 1 s. salt; 1 s. fresh pepper; cuminseed, coriander seed, cardamums, cloves, 1 d. of each; 2 d. pepper: this will give five dishes. 7. Mutanjanu sheep: 10 s. meat that is middling fat; 2 s. ghī; 1 s. gram; 1 s. ginger; 1 d. cuminseed; round pepper, cloves, cardamums, coriander seed, 2 d. of each; this will give seven dishes full. It is also made of fowl and fish. 8. Dampukht: 3 10 s. meat; 2 s. ghi; 1 s. onions; 11 m. fresh ginger; 10 m. pepper; 2 d. cloves; 2 d. cardamums. 9. Qaliyy:

^{[1} Yakksi is a gravy or broth.—P.]
[2 Does this mean fried 1]
[3 Dom-pukkt means cooking slowly in a vessel with its lid closed by pasts.—P.]

10 s. meat; 2 s. ghī; 1 s. onions; 2 d. pepper; cloves, cardamums, 1 d. each; is. salt: this will give eight dishes. In preparing galing, the meat is minced and the gravy rather thick, in opposition to the mutanjana. Here in Hind they prepare it in various ways. 10. Malghūba: 10 s. meat; 10 s. curds; 1 s. ghī; 1 s. onions; 1 s. ginger; 5 d. cloves; this will give ten dishes.

Ā²īn 25.

OF BREAD.

This belongs, properly speaking, to the preceding chapter. Bread is made in the pantry. There is a large kind, baked in an oven, made of 10 s. flour; 5 s. milk; 1\frac{1}{2} s. ghī; \frac{1}{4} s. salt. They make also smaller ones. The thin kind is baked on an iron plate. One ser will give fifteen, or even more. There are various wavs of making it; one kind is called chapati, hich is sometimes made of khushka; it tastes very well when served ot. For the bread used at court, one man of wheat is made to yield 1 m. of fine flour; 2 s. coarsely pounded flour; and the rest bran; if this degree of fineness be not required, the proportions are altered.

$\bar{A}^{*}\bar{\imath}n$ 26.

THE DAYS OF ABSTINENCE. (Sūfiyāna.)2

His Majesty cares very little for meat, and often expresses himself to that effect. It is indeed from ignorance and cruelty that, although various kinds of food are obtainable, men are bent upon injuring living creatures, and lending a ready hand in killing and eating them; none seems to have an eye for the beauty inherent in the prevention of cruelty, but makes bimself a tomb for animals. If his Majesty had not the burden of the world on his shoulders, he would at once totally abstain from meat; and now it is his intention to quit it by degrees, conforming, however, a little to the spirit of the age. His Majesty abstained from meat for some time on Fridays, and then on Sundays; now on the first day of every solar month, on Sundays, on solar and lunar eclipses, on days between two fasts, on the Mondays of the month of Rajab 3 on the feast-day of every

^{[1} Probably a large flat cake.—P.]

8 Living according to the manners of the Suffs.

9 Akbar was born on the fifth of Rajab A.H. 949, a Sunday. This corresponds to the 15th October, 1542. The Mondays of the month of Rajab were observed as fasts, because the Sundays had been included in the list of fast days. The members of the Divine Faul fasted likewise during the month of their birth.

solar month, during the whole month of Farwardīn, and during the month in which his Majesty was born, viz. the month of Abān. Again, when the number of fast days of the month of Abān had become equal to the number of years his Majesty had lived, some days of the month of Azar also were kept as fasts. At present the fast extends over the whole month. These fast days, however, from pious motives, are annually increased by at least five days. Should fasts fall together, they keep the longer one, and transfer the smaller by distributing its days over other months. Whenever long fasts are ended, the first dishes of meat come dressed from the apartments of Maryam Makānī, next from the other begums, the princes, and the principal nobility.

In this department nobles, ahadīs, and other military, are employed. The pay of a foot soldier varies from 100 to 400 dāms.

Ā* în 27.

STATISTICS OF THE PRICES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES.

The prices of course vary, as on marches, or during the rains, and for other reasons; but I shall give here the average prices for the information of future enquirers.

A. The spring harvest.

				-	9				
Wheat, per man	•		12	d.	Safflower seed (carthamus),				
Kābul gram, do.		•	16	ι.	do			8	đ.
Black grain, do	٠		8	đ	Fenugreek, do.			10	đ.
Lentils, do		•	12	d.	Peas,2 do	•		6	đ.
Barley, do		•	8	d.	Mustard seed. do.	•	•	12	đ.
Millet, do			6	d .	Kewū, do			7	d.
Linseed, per man	•	•	10	d.					
		В.	The	e auta	mnal harvest.				
20 210 22				. 9	T1 - 11 1 3			12.0	

Mushkin, paddy per man 110 d. Jinjin rice, do. . . 80 d. Säda paddy, do. . . 100 d. Dakah (?) rice, do. . . 50 d.

Sukhdās rice, do . . 100 d. Zirhī rice, do. . . 40 d. Dūnaparsād rice, do. . 90 d. Sāthī rice, do. . . 20 d.

Dünaparsad rice, do. . . 90 d. Sathi rice, do. . . 20 d. Samzīra rice, do. . . 90 d. Mūng (black gram) do. . 18 d.

Shakarchini rice, do. . 90 d. Māsh (a kind of vetch) per

Dewzira rice, do. . . 90 d. man 16 d.

February-March; [or March and April ?—P]; ride the first A^gin of the third book; Aban corresponds to October-November.
[* Mashang or mushang, a pen ?—P.]

Mosh (a kind of vetch),	Lahdara, do 8 d.
per man 12 d.	Kōdram, do 7 d.
White sesame, do 20 d.	Kūrī, do 7 d.
Black sesame, do 19 d.	Shamākh (Hind. Sāwank),
Lobiyā (a kind of bean), do. 12 d.	$\mathbf{do.} . . . 6 \mathbf{d}.$
Juwārī (a kind of millet),	Gel (Hind. Kangni), do 8 d.
do 10 d.	Millet (Hind. $ch\bar{\imath}na$), do 8 d .
- Organism (em. 1997)	
Mūng dāl, per man 18 d.	Dal of Lentils, per man. 16 d.
$Nukh\overline{u}d d\overline{a}l$, do $16\frac{1}{2}d$.	Moțh dâl, do 12 d.
-	
Wheat flour, per man . 22 d.	Nulhūd flour, per man . 22 d.
Do. coarse, do 15 d.	Barley flour, do 11 d.
,	
C. Ve	getables.
Fennel, per man 10 d .	Garlic flowers, per ser . 1 d.
Spinach, do 16 d.	Upalhāk, (from Kashmīr)
Mint, do 40 d.	do 1 d.
Onions, do 6 d.	Jūū, do 3 d.
Garlie, do 40 d.	Ginger (green), do. $2\frac{1}{2}d$.
Turnips, do 21 d.	$Po, \bar{i}, do.$ 1 d .
Cabbage, per ser 1 . 1 d .	Kachnār buds, do \\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
Kankachkū, from Kash-	Chūkā (sorrel), do
mir, do $4 d$.	Bathwa, do
Dunwretū, 2 d.	Ratsakā, do 1 d.
Shaqaqul (wild carrot 2), do. $3 d$.	Chaulā, \bar{i} , do $\downarrow d$.
D. Living ani	mals and meats.
Dåshmandi sheep, per head $6\frac{1}{2}R$.	Mutton, per man 65 d.
Afghan sheep, 1st kind, do. 2 R.	Goat, do 54 d.
Do., 2nd kind, do $1\frac{1}{2}R$.	Geese, per head 20 d.
Do., 3rd kind, do 11 R.	Duck, per head 1 R.
Kashmir sheep, do. $1\frac{1}{2}R$.	Tuyldarī (bustard), do. 20 d.
Hindustāni sheep, do. 1½ R.	en est
Barbarī goat, 1st kind, do. 1 R.	Jarz (a kind of bustard),
Do., 2nd kind, do	do 18 d.
[1 Turb radish not turnip P.]	
[Or wild paranip ?—P.] [Tughdari is the Hubara bustard.—]	2.]
" Kulang is the Common Crane or "c	oolan "P.] he name of the Hubara, but elsewhere of
the Florican.—P.	Me maine of the Hubbis, but cleewhele of

Durrāj (black partridge),		Lāwah,3 do 1 d.
per head 3	d.	Karwānak (stone curlew),
Kabg 1 (partridge), do 20	d.	do 20 d.
Būdana, ² do 1	d.	Fākhta (ringdove), do 4 d.
E. E	hutter, S	Sugar, etc.
Ghī, per man 105	d.	Refined Sugar, per ser . 3 d.
Oil, do 80	d.	White sugar candy, do $5\frac{1}{2}$ d.
Milk, do 25	d.	White sugar, per man . 128 d.
Curds, do 18	d.	Brown sugar, do 56 d.
	F. Sp	ices.
Saffron, per ser 400	d.	Turmeric (Hind. haldī)
Cloves, do 60	d.	do 10 d.
Cardamums, do 52	d.	Coriander seed, do 3 d.
Round pepper, do 17	d.	Siyāhdāna (Hind. kalaunjī),
Long pepper, do 16	d.	do $1\frac{1}{2} d$.
Dry ginger, do 4	d.	Assafœtida, do 2 d.
Fresh do., do 2	d .	Sweet fennel, do 1 d.
Cumins sed, do 2	d.	Cinnamon, do 40 d.
Aniseed, per ser 2	d.	Salt, per man 16 d.
	G. Pic	kles.
Sour limes, per ser 6	d	Pickled bamboo, per ser 4 d.
Lemon-juice, do 5	ď.	Do. apples, do 8 d.
Wine vinegar 5	d.	Do. quinces, do 9 d.
Sugarcane vinegar, do 1	d.	Do. garlic, do i d.
Pickled ashtarahāi. do 8	ð.	Do. onions, do. $\frac{1}{2} d$.
Mangoes in oil, do 2	d.	Do. bādinjān (egg-plant),
To. in vinegar, do 2	d.	do 1 d.
Lemons in oil, do 2	d.	Do. raising and munaqqa,4
Do. in vinegar, do 2	d.	do
Do. in salt, do 13	đ.	Do. kachnār. do 2 d.
Do. in lemon-juice, do 5	_	Do. peaches, do 1 d.
	1 d.	Do. sahajna (horse-
	j d.	radish; 1 d.
Turnips in vinegar, do 1	•	Do. karīl buds (capparis),
-	1 d.	do
•	-	•

^{[1} Kabk the Chukor partridge.--P.]
[2 The Common Quail.--P.]
[3 The Rock Bush-quail.--P.]
[4 Kishmish sultana raisina; munaqqu large black raisina.--P.]

Pickled karīl berries, per ser	$\frac{1}{2} d$.	Do. cucumbers, do	$\frac{1}{2}d$.
Do. sūran, do	1 d.	Do. bādrang,1 (gourd) do.	$\frac{1}{3} d$.
Do, mustard	$\frac{1}{4}$ d.	Do. kachālū, do	$\frac{1}{2}$ d.
Do. torī (a kind of cu-	-	Do. radishes, do	$\frac{1}{2}$ d.
	1 d.		_

Ā⁴īn 28.

THE FRUITERY.

His Majesty looks upon fruits as one of the greatest gifts of the Creator, and pays much attention to them. The horticulturists of Iran and Turan have, therefore, settled here, and the cultivation of trees is in a flourishing state. Melons and grapes have become very plentiful and excellent; and water-melons, peaches, almonds, pistachios, pomegranates, etc., are everywhere to be found. Ever since the conquest of Kābul, Qandahar, and Kashmir, loads of fruit are imported; throughout the whole year the stores of the dealers are full, and the bazars well supplied. Muskmelons come in season, in Hindustan, in the month of Farwardin (February-March),2 and are plenty in Urdībihish (March-April).3 They are delicious, tender, opening, sweet smelling, especially the kinds called nāshpātī, bābāshaykhī, salīsherī, alcha, barg-i nay, dūd-i chirāgh, etc. They continue in season for two months longer. In the beginning of Sharīwar (August),4 they come from Kashmir, and before they are out of season plenty are brought from Kābul; during the month of Azar (November), 5 they are imported by the caravans from Badakhshan, and continue to be had during Day (December). When they are in season in Zābulistān, good ones also are obtainable in the Panjab; and in Bhakkar and its vicinity they are pleutiful in season, except during the forty cold days of winter. Various kinds of grapes are here to be had from Khurdad (May)7 to Amurdad (July),8 whilst the markets are stocked with Kashmir grapes during Shahrīwar.4 Eight sers of grapes sell in Kashmir for one dam, and the cost of the transport is two rupees per man. The Kashmiris bring them on their backs in conical baskets, which look very curious.

^{[1} Bådrang, not gourd. Perhaps a citron.—P.]
[5 March-April.—P.]
[6 April-May.—P.]
[6 August-September.—P.]
[6 November-December.—P.]
[6 December-January.—P.]
[7 May-June.—P.]
[8 July-August.—P.]

From Mihr (September) ¹ till Urdībihist ² grapes come from Kābul, together with cherries, ³ which his Majesty calls shāhālū, seedless pomegranates, apples, pears, quinces, guavas, peaches, apricots, girdālūs, and ālūchas, etc., many of which fruits grow also in Hindūstān. From Samarana apple statements and allichas, etc., many of which fruits grow also in Hindūstān.

qand even they bring melons, pears, and apples.

Whenever his Majesty wishes to take wine, opium, or kūknār (he calls the latter sabras), the servants in charge place before him stands of fruits; he eats a little, but most is distributed. The fruits are marked according to their degree of excellence: melons of the first quality are marked with a line drawn round the top; those of the second, with two lines; and so on.

In this department Mansabdars, Ahadas, and other soldiers are employed; the pay of a foot soldier varies from 140 to 100 d.

The following tables contain particulars regarding the names, scasons, taste, and prices of various fruits.

A. Tūrānī Fruits.

A. Luiun	Trace.
Arhang melons, 1st	Plums, do 8 d.
quality, at $2\frac{1}{2}R$.	Khūbānī (dried apricots),
Do., 2nd and 3rd do., at 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}R$.	per ser 8 d.
Kābul melons, ist do., at 1 to $\Pi_1 R$.	Qandahar dry grapes, do. 7 d.
Do., 2nd do., at # to . 1 R.	Figs, per ser 7. d.
Do., 3rd do., at 1 to . 3R.	Munaqqa, do 6 d.
Samarqand apples, 7 to	Jujubes, do 31 d.
15 for 1 R.	Almonds, without the
Quinces, 10 to 30 for . 1 R.	shell, do 28 d.
Pomegranates, per man,	Do., with do., do 11 d.
$6\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 R.	Pistachios, do., do 9 d.
Guavas, 10 to 100 for . 1 R.	Chilghuza i nuts, per ser 8 d.
Kābul and European	Sinjid (jujubes), do 61 d.
apples, 5 to 10 for . 1 R.	Pistachios, without shell,
Kashmir grapes, per man 108 d.	do 6 d.
Dates, per ser 10 d.	Jawz (nuts), do 44 d.
Raisins (kishmish), do 9 d.	Filberts, do 3 d.
Abjosh (large raisins), do. 9 d.	Hazel s nuts, do 21 d.

[[]I September-October.—P.]

The original has a word blide, which is not to be found in our dictionaride. It may be cerasus. [Glids is the common name in Persia and in Kashmir for the white ewest cherry.—P.]

A town in Bada Khahāu.

[4 Edible seed of pinus Gerardiana.—P.]

[5 Girdgān is properly the walnut.—P.]

B. The sweet fruits of Hindustan.

				•	•				
Mangoes, per hu	indre	<i>l</i> , up)		Tendū, do	•	•	2	d.
to				d.	$ar{U}$ sīrā	•			•
Pine-apples, one	for		4	d.	Dates, per ser	•	•	4	d.
Oranges,1 two fo			1	d.	Angühal .	•			*
Sugarcanes, two			1	d.	<i>Delä</i> , do	•	•	1	đ.
Jackfruits, two f	or	•	1	d.	Gūla	•	•		*
Plantains, do.			1	d.	Bholsari, per ser	•		4	đ.
Ber, per ser .			2	d.	Tarkul, two for	•	•	1	đ.
Pomegranates,					Paniyāla, per ser			2	đ.
80 to .	-		100	d.	Lahsaura, do.	•	•	1	d.
Guavas,2 two for			1	d.	Gumbhī, do .	•		4	d.
Figs, per ser .				_	Karahri .	•	•	4	d.
Mulberry, do.	•	•	2	d.	Tarri	•	•		*
Custard-apples,3	one fo	or .	1	d.	Banga, two for	•	•	1	d.
Melons, per man	•		40	d.	Gülar, per ser	•		2	d.
Water-melons, on	e	2 to	10	d.	Pilū, do		•	2	d.
Khirnī, per ser	•		ź	d.	Barauta .	•			*
Mahuwā, do.	•		1	d.	Piyār, do	•		4	d.
Dephal, do				-					

* The original does not mention the price.

Mulberries and gūlars are in season during spring; pine-apples, oranges, sugarcane, bers, ūsīrās, bholsarīs, guṃbhīs, déphals during winter; jackfruits, tarkuls, figs, melons, lahsauras, karahrīs, mahuwās, tendūs, pīlūs, barautas, during summer; and mangoes, plantains, dates, delās, gūlos, pomegranates, guavas, water-melons, paniyālas, bangas, khirnīs, piyārs, during the rains.

C. Dried Fruits.

Coco-nuts, one for		4	d.	Makhānā, per ser	•		4	đ.
Dry Dates, per ser.		6	d.	Sūpyāri, do .			8	d.
Walnuts, do	•	8	d.	Kawgatta, do.	•	•	2	d.
Chiraunchi, do .		4	d.					

Dates, walnuts, chiraunchis, and kaulgattas are in seasons during summer, and coco-nuts, makhānās, and supyāris, during winter.

^{[1} Kāwta?]

^{[2} Amrud guava, but in Persia and locally too in India, a pear.—P.]

^{[*} Said-phal. The custard-apple is sitd-phal.—P.] The original says that custard-apples are to be had throughout the whole year. This seems a mistake of the MSS. The remark suits the next fruit (melons).

^{[4} Gular wild fig .- P.]

D. Vegetables.

		2 d.	Kachālū, per ser			2	₫.
		$2\frac{1}{4} d$.		_			
		$1\frac{1}{2}d$.	Sūran, do				
•	•	$1\frac{1}{4}d$.	Carrots, do				
	•	$1\frac{1}{2}d$.	Singhāra, do.2	•			
•		$1\frac{1}{4}d$.		•			
•		$1\frac{1}{4}d$.	-			2	d.
		$1\frac{1}{2}d$.	Siyātī				*
•	•	1‡ d.	Kaserū, dc	•			
	•		. 2½ d 1½ d.	. 2½ d. Chachīnḍā, do 1½ d. Sūran, do 1½ d. Carrots, do 1½ d. Singhāra, do.² . 1½ d. Sālak, do 1½ d. Pinḍālū, do 1½ d. Siyātī	. 2½ d. Chachīndā, do 1½ d. Sūran, do 1½ d. Carrots, do 1½ d. Singhāra, do.² . 1½ d. Sālak, do 1½ d. Pindālū, do 1½ d. Siyātī	2½ d. Chachīndā, do. 1½ d. Sūran, do. 1½ d. Carrots, do. 1½ d. Singhāra, do.² 1½ d. Sālak, do. 1½ d. Pindālū, do. 1½ d. Siyātī	. 2½ d. Chachīndā, do. 2 . 1½ d. Sūran, do

Sūrans and siyātīs are in season during summer; palwals, gourds, tura, īs. kachālūs, chachīndās, kandūrīs, senbs, veths, karīlas, kakūras, and singhāras during the rains; and carrots, sālaks, pindālūs, and kaserūs, during winter. Badinjans are to be had throughout the year.

E. Sour Fruits.

Limes, four up to		1	d.	Ghep	•			*
Amalbet, do	•	1	d.	Bijaurā, one for	•	•	8	d.
Galgal, two up to	•	1	d.	Awlā,3 per ser	•	•	2	d.

Limes and dwlas are to be had in summer, the others during the rains.

F. Fruits somewhat acid.

Ambīlī, per ser			2	d.	Kait, four up to .	1	d.
Badhal, one for			1	d.	Kānkū		
Kamrak, four up	to		1	d.	Pākar, per ser .	1	d.
Narangi,4 two up	to		1	đ.	Karnā, one for .	1	đ.
Mountain grapes					Labhīrā		
W.m.	•		1	d.	Janbhīrī, five up to	1	d.
Phälsa, do .	•	•	11	ã.	(farna!		
Karaundä, do.	٠		i	d.			

The original does not mention the price.

Kamraks and narangis, are in season during winter; ambilis, badhals, mountain-grapes, phalsas, labhiras, during summer; and kaits, pakars, karnās, jāmans, karaundās, jhanbhīrīs, during the rains.

The fruits of Hindustan are either sweet, or subscid, or sour; each kind is numerous. Some fruits also taste well when dry; others as above described are used when cooked. I shall give now a few details.

^{[1} Kods pompkin...P.]
[2 The water-nut...P.]
[3 The emblic myrobalans...P.]
[4 The orange with close skin...P.]

The Mangoe: The Persians call this fruit Naghzak, as appears from a verse of Khusraw.¹ This fruit is unrivalled in colour, smell, and taste; and some of the gourmets of Tūrān and Īrān place it above muskmelons and grapes. In shape it resembles an apricot, or a quince, or a pear, or a melon, and weighs even one ser and upwards. There are green, yellow, red, variegated, sweet, and subacid mangoes. The tree looks well, especially when young; it is larger than a walnut-tree, and its leaves resemble those of the willow, but are larger. The new leaves appear soon after the fall of the old ones in autumn, and look green and yellow, orange, peach-coloured, and bright red. The flower, which opens in spring, resembles that of the vine, has a good smell, and looks very curious. About a month after the leaves have made their appearance, the fruit is sour, and is used for preserves and pickles. It improves the taste of qalyas (p. 64), as long as the stone has not become hard. If a fruit gets injured whilst on the tree, its good smell will increase. Such mangoes are called koyiläs. The fruit is generally taken down when unripe, and kept in a particular manner. Mangoes ripened in this manner are much finer. They mostly commence to ripen during summer, and are fit to be eaten during the rains; others commence in the rainy season, and are ripe in the beginning of winter; the latter are called Bhadiyya. Some trees bloom and yield fruit the whole year; but this is rare. Others commence to ripen, although they look unripe; they must be quickly taken down, else the sweetness would produce worms. Mangoes are to be found everywhere in India, especially in Bengal, Gujrāt, Mālwah, Khāndesh, and the Dekhan. They are rarer in the Panjāb, where their cultivation has, however, increased, since his Majesty made Lahor his capital. A young tree will bear fruit after four years. They put milk and treacle round about the tree, which makes the fruits sweeter. Some trees yield in one year a rich harvest, and less in the next one; others yield for one year no fruit at all. When many mangoes are eaten, digestion is assisted by drinking milk with the kernels of the mangoe stones. The kernels of old stones are subacid, and taste well; when two or three years old they are used as medicine. If a half-ripe mangoe, together with its stalk to a length of about two fingers, be taken from the tree, and the broken end of its stalk be closed with warm wax, and kept in butter, or honey, the fruit will retain its taste for two or three months, whilst the colour will remain even for a year.

¹ Vide the fourth note on p. 75 of my Persian text edition. [* Shigarf, beautiful, fine.—P.]

Pine-apples 1 are also called kathal-i safari, or travelling jackfruits. because young plants, put into a vessel, may be taken on travels and will yield fruits. In colour and shape they resemble an oblong orange: and in taste and smell, a mangoe. The plant is about a yard long, and its leaves have the shape of a hand. The edges of the leaves are like a saw. The fruit forms at the end of the stalk and has a few leaves on its top. When the fruit is plucked, they cut out these leaves, separate them, and put them singly into the ground; they are the seedlings. Each plant bears only once, and one fruit only.

Oranges 2 have the colour of saffron, and the shape of quinces. They belong to the best fruits to be had in Hindustan. The tree resembles the lime tree; its flower has a weak, but fine smell.

Sugarcane, which the Persians call Nayshakar, is of various kinds: one species is so tender and so full of juice, that a sparrow can make it flow out by pecking it; and it would break to pieces, if let fall. Sugarcane is either soft, or hard. The latter is used for the preparation of brown sugarcandy, common sugar, white candy, and refined sugar, and thus becomes useful for all kinds of sweetmeats. It is cultivated as follows. They put some healthy sugarcane in a cool place, and sprinkle it daily with water. When the sun enters the sign of Aquarius, they cut off pieces, a cubit 3 and upwards in length, put them into soft ground, and cover them up with earth. The harder the sugarcane is, the deeper they put it. Constant irrigation is required. After seven or eight months it will come up.

Sugarcane is also used for the preparation of intoxicating liquor, but brown sugar is better for this purpose. There are various ways of preparing it. One way is as follows. They pound Babul 4 bark mixing it at the rate of ten sers to one man of sugarcane, and put three times as much water over it. Then they take large jurs, fill them with the mixture, and put them into the ground, surrounding them with dry horse-dung. From seven to ten days are required to produce fermentation. It is a sign of perfection, when it has a sweet, but a stringent taste. When the liquor is to be strong, they again put to the mixture some brown sugar, and sometimes even drugs and perfumes, as ambergris, camphor, etc. They also let meat dissolve in it. This beverage, when strained, may be used, but it is mostly employed for the preparation of arrack.

Johangir in his Memoirs (Tusuk-i Jakangiri, ed. Sayyid Ahmad. p. 3) states that the pine-apples at his time came from the harbour sowns held by the Portuguese.

[* Kéwid.—P.]

[* Wajab, a span.—P.]

[4 A species of acaic, the kikar of the Panjab.—P.]

They have several methods of distilling it; first, they put the above liquor into brass vessels, in the interior of which a cup is put, so as not to shake, nor must the liquid flow into it. The vessels are then covered with inverted lids which are fastened with clay. After pouring cold water on the lids, they kindle the fire, changing the water as often as it gets warm. As soon as the vapour inside reaches the cold lid, it condenses, and falls as arrack into the cup. Secondly, they close the same vessel with an earthen pot, fastened in the same manner with clay, and fix to it two pipes, the free ends of which have each a jar attached to them, which stands in cold The vapour through the pipes will enter the jars and condense. Thirdly, they fill an earthen vessel with the above-mentioned liquor, and fasten to it a large spoon with a hollow handle. The end of the handle they attach to a pipe, which leads into a jar. The vessel is covered with a lid, which is kept full with cold water. The arrack, when condensed, flows through the spoon into the jar. Some distil the arrack twice, when it is called Duātasha, or twice burned. It is very strong. If you wet your hands with it, and hold them near the fire, the spirit will burn in flames of different colours without injuring the hands. It is remarkable that when a vessel containing arrack is set on fire you cannot put it out by any means; but if you cover the vessel, the fire gets extinguished at once.

The Jackfruit has the shape of a black-pudding, looks greenish, and is sometimes a yard long, and half a yard broad. When small, it resembles a water-melon; its peel is full of thorns. It grows out of the branches, the trunk, and the roots. Those that grow below the ground are sweetest. On opening you see round clusters, so viscous, that the fingers stick together, when you take them out. The tree looks like a nut tree, but is somewhat bigger and has larger leaves. The flower, like the fruit, has a good smell. The fruits are also taken down when unripe. They then apply lime, etc., when the fruits will get ripe.

The Plantain tree looks straight like a spear; the leaves come out of the trunk thick and soft, and resemble an unsewn plaited a sleeve, but are much larger and wider. Out of the middle rises something looking like a spindle, of a lilac colour; this is the bud. The fruit consists of a cluster of seventy to eighty plantains. In shape they resemble small oucumbers; the peel is easily removed. As plantains are very heavy, you cannot eat many. There are various kinds of plantains. The plant is every year

^{[1} Kips the gut of a sheep stuffed with mince and rice.—P.]
[2 wife in might mean ironed.—P.]
[5 Sasan in the common purple flag-iris.—P.]

cut down, and a stump only is left of it; if this is not done, it will no longer bear fruit. The vulgar believe that the plantain tree yields camphor, but this is wrong; for the camphor tree, as shall be hereafter explained, is a different tree, although it has the same name. They also say that pearls originate in plantain trees—another statement upon which the light of truth does not shine.

The M thuwa tree resembles the mangoe tree; its wood is used for building purposes. The fruit, which is also called Gilaunda, yields an intoxicating liquor.

The Bholsīrī tree is large and handsome, the fruit has an orange colour, and resembles the jujube.

The Tarkul tree, and its fruit, resemble the coco-nut palm and its fruit. When the stalk of a new leaf comes out of a branch, they cut off its end and hang a vessel to it to receive the out-flowing juice. The vessel will fill twice or three times a day. The juice is called tari; when fresh it is sweet: when it is allowed to stand for some time it turns subscid and is inebriating.

The Paniyāla fruit resembles the Zardālū and its tree the lime tree; the leaves are like those of the willow. When unripe the fruit is green, and red when ripe.

The Gumbhi has a stem the branches of which are like creepers; its leaves and fruits, as those of the kunār, come from below the roots.

The Tarri forms at the root; it grows mostly in the mountains, and weighs a mun, more or less, when the creeper is a year old; and two, when two years old. It looks like a millstone. When older it grows larger according to the same proportion. Its leaves resemble those of the water melon.

The Piyar is like a small grape; brownish and sweet. The inside of the kernel is like butter, and is used in the preparation of food; it is called Chiraunji. Its tree is about a yard high.

The Coca-nut is called by the Persians Jawz i Hindi: the tree resembles the date tree, but is larger; its wood, however, looks better, and the leaves are larger. The tree bears fruit throughout the whole year; the fruits ripen in three months. They are also taken down, when unripe and green, and kept for some time. Their inside contains a cup full of milk-like juice, which tastes well, and is very often drunk in summer, mixed with sugar. When ripe, the fruit looks brown. The juice has now become solid, and

¹ The text has here a few words the meaning of which I do not understand. [* Sardd-16 the acid apricot.—P.]

gets black when mixed with butter; it is sweet and greasy. When eaten with $p\bar{a}n$ -leaves, it makes the tongue soft and fresh. The shell is used for spoons, cups, and <u>ghichaks</u> (a kind of violin). There are nuts having four, three, two, and one, holes or eyes; each kind is said to possess certain qualities, the last being considered the best. Another kind is used for the preparation of an antidote against poison. The nuts weigh sometimes twelve sers and upwards. The bark of the tree is used for ropes; the large ropes used on ships are made of it.

Dates are called in Hindi Pind-khajūr. The tree has a short stem, rising little above the ground, and produces from four to five hundred fruits.

The Sūpyārī, or betel nut, is called in Persian fūfal. The tree is graceful and slender, like the cypress. The wind often bends it, so that its crown touches the ground; but it rises up again. There are various kinds. The fruit when eaten raw tastes somewhat like an almond, but gets hard when ripe. It is eaten with betel leaves.

The Singhāra is a triangular fruit; its creeper grows in tanks, and the fruit is on the surface of the water. It is eaten raw or roasted.

The Sālak grows in tanks under the earth. They go into the water and dig it up.

The Pindala is reased on lattice work, and grows about two yards high. Its leaf resembles the betel lead; they dig up the root.

The Kaserū grows in tanks. When the water gets low, they take it out of the ground and eat it, raw or boiled.

The Siyalt root is long and conical; the plant is a creeper; to whose root the fruit is attached.

The Orange 1 has the shape of an egg One kind is called kāghazī. 1 Between the peel and the fruit is a thin white membrane. The fruit is juicy, and tastes well; one kind is to be had throughout the whole year.

The Amalbet is like a lime,² and very sour. If you put a steel needle into this fruit, the needle in a short time will dissolve; and a white shell when put into its juice will soon disappear.

The Karnā resembles an apple, and appears after the plant has reached the third year. At first the fruit is green, sour, and also somewhat bitter, but turns afterwards yellow and bitter; when ripe it is red and sweet. When it is kept long, it turns green again. The tree looks like an orange tree, but the leaves are somewhat broader, and the buds like fine arrows.³

^{[*} Nëranj, orange ?--P.]
[* Limë, lime. Këghagi is applied to a small green lime with a skin as thin as paper.—P.]
[* Paykān-i khākī !- P.]

The flower is white, and has four petals and yellow stamens. It has a fine smell, and is used for ambergris; but it is beyond my power to describe the process of the manufacture.

The Betel leaf is, properly speaking, a vegetable, but connoisseurs call it an excellent fruit. Mir Khusraw of Dihli, in one of his verses, says, "It is an excellent fruit like the flower of a garden, the finest fruit in Hindustan." The eating of the leaf renders the breath agreeable, and repasts odorous. It strengthens the gums, and makes the hungry satisfied, and the satisfied hungry. I shall describe some of the various kinds. 1. The leaf catied Bilahri is white and shining, and does not make the tongue harsh and hard. It tastes best of all kinds. After it has been taken away from the creeper it turns white, with some care, after a month, or even after twenty days when greater efforts are made. 2. The Kaker leaf is white with spots, and full, and has hard veins. When much of it is eaten, the tongue gets hard. 3. The Jaiswar leaf does not get white, and is profitably sold mixed with other kinds. 4. The Kapūri leaf is yellowish, hard, and full of veins, but has a good taste and smell. 5. The Kapūrkānt leaf is yellowish-green, and pungent like pepper; it smells like camphor. You could not eat more than ten leaves It is to be had at Banaras; but even there it does not thrive in every soil. 6. The Bangla leaf is broad, full, hard, plushy, hot, and pungent.

The cultivation is as follows. In the month of Chait (March-April), about New-Year's 1 time, they take a part of a creeper four or five fingers long with Karhani leaves on it, and put it below the ground. From nifteen to twenty days after, according as leaves and knots form, a new creeper will appear from a knot, and as soon as another knot forms, a leaf will grow up. The creepers and new leaves form for seven months, when the plant ceases to grow. No creeper has more than thirty leaves. As the plant grows, they prop it with canes, and cover it, on the top and the sides, with wood and straw, so as to rear it up in the shade. The plant requires continually to be watered, except during the rains. Sometimes they put milk, sesame oil and its dregs, etc., about the plant. There are seven kinds of leaves, known under nine names: 1. The Kurhani leaf, which they separate for seedlings and call Peri. The new leaf is called Gadauta. 2. The Nauti leaf. 3. The Bahuti leaf. 4. The Chhiw leaf. 5. The Adhinida leaf. 6. The Agahniya or Lewar leaf. 7. The Karhani leaf itself. With the exception of the Gadanta, the leaves are taken away from the creeper when a month old. The last kind of leaf is eaten by some;

^{[1} The 21st March is New Year's Day.-P.]

others keep it for seeding: they consider it very excellent, but connoisseurs prefer the Peri.

A bundle of 11,000 leaves was formerly called Lahāsa, which name is now given to a bundle of 14,000. Bundles of 200 are called Pholī; a lahāsa is made up of dholīs. In winter they turn and arrange the leaves after four or five days; in summer every day. From 5 to 25 leaves, and sometimes more, are placed above each other, and displayed in various ways. They also put some betel nut and kath 1 on one leaf, and some lime 2 paste on another, and roll them up; this is called a bīrā. Some put camphor and musk into it, and tie both leaves with a silk thread. Others put single leaves on plates, and use them thus. They are also prepared as a dish.

Ā in 29.

ON FLAVOURS.

As I have mentioned various kinds of food, I shall also say something on flavours. Heat renders pungent that which is agreeable, bitter that which is greasy, and brackish that which has the proper flavour; cold makes the first acid, the second astringent, and the third tart. Astringency when affecting the tongue merely, is called in Arabic qabz; and sufficient when affecting the whole frame. A moderate temperature renders the first quality greasy, the second sweet, and the last tasteless. These are the fundamental flavour. Others count four, viz., the sweet, the bitter, the acid, the brackish. The flavours produced by combinations are endless; some have, however, names, e.g. bashāsat is a bitter and tart flavour, and zusūga a combination of the brackish and the bitter.

\bar{A}^{*} in 30.

ON PERFUMES.

His Majesty is very fond of perfumes, and encourages this department from religious motives. The court-hall is continually scented with ambergris, aloewood, and compositions according to ancient recipes, or mixtures invented by his Majesty; and incense is daily burnt in gold and silver censers of various shapes; whilst sweet-smelling flowers are used

¹ An astringent vegetable extract eaten by the natives of India with the pan leaf. It looks brown, and stains the tongue and the gums red. [Catechu !—P.]

² In Persian chans; but in Anglo-Indice, chunām.

in large quantities. Oils are also extracted from flowers, and used for the skin and the hair. I shall give a few recipes.

1. Santūk is used for keeping the skin fresh: 11 tolās Civet; 1 t. Chūwa1; 2 māshas Chambelī essence; 2 bottles of rose-water. 2. Argaja # s. sandalwood; 2 t. Iksīr and Mīd; 3 t. Chūroa; 1 t. violet root, and gehla (the seed of a plant): 1 m. camphor; 11 bottles of rose-water. It is used in summer for keeping the skin cool. 3. Gulkama: Pound together 1 t. best Ambergris; 1 t. Ladan; 2 t. best musk; 4 t. wood of aloes, and 8 t. Iksīr-i cabīr; and put it into a porcelain vessel, mix with it a ser of the juice of the flower called Gul-i surkh,2 and expose it to the sun, till it dries up. Wet it in the evening with rose-water and with the extract of the flower called Bahar, and pound it again on Samaq stone. Let it stand for ten days, mix it with the juice of the flower called Bahar-i Nāranj, 4 and let it dry. During the next twenty days, add occasionally some juice of the black Rayhan (also called black Nazhu).5 A part of this mixture is added to the preceding. 4. Rūh-afzā, 5 s. Aloewood; 11 s. Sandalwood; 11 s. Lādan; Iksīr, Lūbān, Dhūp (a root brought from Kashmir), 31 t. of each; 20 t. violet root; 10 t. Ushna, called in Hind. Chharila: Press till it gets tenacious like syrup. To be made into discs with four bottles of rose-water. It is burnt in censers, and smells very fine. 5. Opatna is a scented soap: 2\frac{3}{2} s. L\bar{a}dan; 1\frac{1}{2} s. 5 d. Aloewood; the same quantity of Bahār-i Narani, and 11 s. of its bark; 1s. 10 d. Sandalwood; 1 s. 5 d. Sumbul" 't-tib, called in Hind Chhar; the same quantity of Ushna; 381 t. musk; 1 s. 4 t. pacha leaves; 36 t. apples; 11 t. Sued, called in Hind Moth; 5 d. violet root; 1 5, 2 m. Dhūp; 1 t. Ikanki (a kind of grass); the same quantity of Zurumbad, called in Hind, kachur (zerumbet); 1 t. 2 m Lúbān; 106 bottles of rose-water; 5 bottles of extract of Bahar. Pound the whole, sift it, and boil slowly in rose-water, When it has become less moist let it dry. 6. Abīrmāya, 4 d. Aloewood; 2 d. Sandalwood: 1 d. violet root; 3 d. Sumbul" 't-tib; 3 d. Duwālak; 4 !. musk of Khatā (Cathay); 21 d. Lādan; 71 d. Bahār-i Nāranj. Pound and sift, boil over a slow fire in 10 bottles of rose-water, and put it into the shade to dry. 7. Kishta, 24 t. Aloewood: 61 Ladan, Luban, and Sandalwood; Iksīr and Dhūp, 2 t. of each; violet root and musk, 2 t.;

¹ This and the following names of perfumes are explained further on in this chapter.

[[]a Gul-s surth in Persian is a pink fragrant cose that blooms in Spring.—P.]
[a Summde (vide summe) is the hardest kind of marble.—P.]

[[] Orange-flower bloom.-P.]

Nweet basil.—P.]
Vide below the twelfth flower.

1 t. Ushna; mix with 50 t. refined sugar, and boil gently in two bottles of rose-water. It is made into discs. It smells very fine when burnt, and is exhilarating. 8. Bukhūr: 1 s. Aloewood and Sandalwood; 1 s. Lādan; 2 t. musk; 5 t. Iksīr; mix with two sers of refined sugar and one bottle of rose-water over a slow fire. 9. Fatila: 5 s. Aloewood: 72 t. Sandalwood: Iksīr and Lādan, 20 t. of each; 5 t. Violet root; 10 t. Lūbān; 3 t. refined sugar; mix with two bottles of rose-water, and make into tapers. Bārjāt; 1 s. Aloewood; 5 t. Lādan; 2 t. musk; 2 t. Sandalwood; 1 t. Lūbān; 1 t. Camphor. Then distill it like Chūwa (vide below). 11, Abīr-Iksīr: 3 s. Sandalwood; 26 t. Iksīr; 2 t. 8 m. musk. Pound it, and dry it in the shade. 12. Ghasūl (a liquid soap), 35 t. Sandalwood: 17 t. Katūl (?) 1; 1 t. musk; 1t. Chūwa; 2m. Camphor; 2m. Mīd. Mix with 2 bottles of rose-water.

A List of Perfumes 2 and their Prices.

Ambar i ashhab				•		1 to 3 Muhurs, per tolā.
Zabād (civet) .						$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M., do.
Musk		•				1 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ R., do.
Lignum aloes Hi	nd. Age	ar `				2 R. to 1 M., per ser.
Chūwa (Distilled			es)		•	$\frac{1}{4}$ R. to 1 R., per tolā.
Gaura 3			•			3 to 5 R., do.
Bhimsini Campho	or .					3 R. to 2 M., do.
Mīd					•	1 to 3 R., do.
Za ^c farān						12 to 22 R., per ser.
Zasfarān-i Kamar	ndī.					1 to 3 M., do.
Zasfarān (from K	ashmīr) .		•		8 to 12 R., do.
Sandalwood .		•		•		32 to 55 R., per man.
Nāfa-yi mushk			•	•		3 to 12 M., per ser.
Kalanbak (Calemi	oic)					10 to 40 R., per man.
Silāras					•	3 to 5 R., per ser.
SAmbar-i Lādan						11 to 4 R., do.
Kāfūr-ī Chīna .	•					1 to 2 R., do.
Araq-i Fitna .	•					1 to 3 R., per bottle.
SAraq-i Bēd-i Mu	shk					1 to 4 R., do.
Rosewater .					•	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 R., do.
SArag-i Bahār .						1 to 5 R., do.
Araq-i Chambelī	•		•			$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ R., do.
Violet-root .	•		•		•	to 1 R., per ser.
						-

According to some MSS. Kanwal.

Most of the following names are explained below.

In the text, p. 85, by mistake Kaurah. Vide my text edition, p. 94; l. 6.

Asfar" 't-	tīb			•		•	•	11 to 2 R., per ser.
Barg-i M	āj (br	ought	from	Gujra	it)			to 1 R., do.
Sugandh	Gūgal	ā	•		•	•		10 to 13 R., do.
Lüban (fr	om S	argard	()	•	•	•		1 to 3 R., per tolā.
Lūbān (ot	her k	inds)			•	•		1 to 2 R., per ser.
Alak, Hir	d. C/	har			•	•		$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ R., do.
Duwālak,	Hind	. Chh	arīla	•	•			3 to 4 d., do.
Gehla				•	•			*
Su ^c d			•	•	•	•	•	*
Ikankī	•		•	•	•	•		*
Zurumbād	l			•		•		•

^{*} The original does not mention the prices.

A List of fine smelling Flowers.

- 1. The Sewti. Whitish; blooms the whole year, especially towards the end of the rains.
 - 2. The Bholsari. Whitish; in the rains.
- 3. The Chambeli. White, yellow, and blue. In the rains, and partly during winter.
- 4. Rāy-bel. White and pale yellow. In the end of the hot season, and the beginning of the rains.
 - 5. The Mongrā. Yellow. In summer.
- 6. The Champa. Yellow. All the year; especially when the sun stands in Pisces and Aries.
- 1. Ketki. The upper leaves are green, the inner ones yellowish-white. It blooms during the hot summer.
 - 8. Kūza. White. During the hot season.
 - 9. The Pādal. Brownish lilac. In spring.
 - 10. The Juhi. White and yellow, like jasmin. During the rains.
 - 11. The Niwari. Whitish. In spring.
 - 12. The Nargis. White. In spring.
 - 13. The Kewara. From Leo to Libra.
 - 14. The Chalta.
 - 15. The Gulal. In spring.
 - 16. The Tasbih Gulāl. White. In winter.
 - 17. The Singārhār. It has small white petals. In the hot season.
 - 18. The Violet. Violet. In the hot season.
 - 19. The Karna. White. In spring.
 - 20. The Kapur bel.
 - 21. The Gul-i Zaffarān. Lilac-colour. In autumn.

A List of Flowers notable for their beauty.

- 1. The Gul-i Aftab. Yellow.
- 2. The Gul-i Kāwal. White and also bluish. In the rains.
- 3. The Jasfari. A golden yellow, or orange coloured, or greenish. In spring.
- 4. The Gudhal. Of different colours, red, yellow, orange, white. In the rains.
- 5. The Ratan-manjani. Bright red. It is smaller than jasmin. All the year.
 - 6. The Kesü. In the hot season.
 - 7. The Senbal. Dark red. In spring.
 - 8. The Ratan-mālā. Yellow. In spring.
 - 9. The Sonzard. Yellow. In spring.
 - 10. The Gul-i Māltī.
 - 11. The Karnphül. A golden red.
 - 12. The Karil. In spring.
 - 13. The Kaner. Red and white.
- 14. The Kadam. Outside green; in the middle yellow threads; the inside leaves white. In spring.
 - 15. The Nag-kesar. In spring.
- 16. The Surpan. White, with red and yellow stripes in the middle. During the rains.
- 17. The Sirī khandī. Inside yellowish white, outside reddish. In spring.
 - 18. The Jait. Inside yellow, outside a blackish red. In the rains.
 - 19. The Champala. White, like orange blossoms. In spring.
 - 20. The Lāhī. It blooms in Pisces.
- 21. The Gul-i Karaunda. White. It is smaller than the Chambell, and blooms during the rains.
 - 22. The Dhanantar resembles the Nīlūfar. During the rains.
 - 23. The Gul-i Hinnā.
 - 24. The Dupahriyā. Bright red and white. All the year.
 - 25. The Bhun Champa. Peach coloured.
- 26. The Sudarsan. Yellow; it resembles the Nilufar, but is smaller.
 - 27. The Kangla, i. There are two kinds, red and white.
 - 28. The Sirs. Yellowish green. It is full of stamens. In spring.
 - 29. The San. Yeliow. During the rains.

On the Preparation of some Perfumes.

- Some say that Ambar grows at the bottom of the sea, and that it is the food brought up again after eating, by various animals living in the sea. Others say that fishes eat it and die from it, and that it is taken from their intestines. According to some, it is the dung of the seacow, called sarā; or the foam of the sea. Others again say, it trickles from the mountains of islands. Many look upon it as marine gum; others whose opinion I adopt, take it to be wax. It is said that on some mountains a great deal of honey is to be found, so much in fact that it runs into the sea; the wax rises to the surface, when the heat of the sun reduces it to a solid state. As the bees collect the honey from sweet smelling flowers, Ambar is, naturally, scented. Bees are also occasionally found in it. Abū Sīnā thinks that there is a fountain at the bottom of the sea, from which sambar rills, when it is carried by waves to the shore. Ambar, when fresh, is moist; the heat of the sun causes it to dry up. It is of various colours: the white is the best, and the black is the worst; the middling sort is pistachio-coloured and yellow. The best kind goes by the name of ashhab. It feels greasy, and consists of layers. If you break it, it looks yellowish white. The whiter, lighter, and more flexible it is the better. Next in quality is the pistachio-coloured Ambar; and the inferior to it the yellow kind, called Khashkhashī. The black kind is bad; it is inflammable. Greedy bazar-dealers will mix it with wax, Mandal, and Ladan, etc.; but not every one has recourse to such practices. Mandal is a kind of Ambar taken from the intestines of dead fishes; it does not smell much.
- 2. Lādan is also often called Ambar. It is taken from a tree which grows in the confines of Qibrus (Cyprus) and Qīsūs (Chios) or Qistūs. It is a moisture that settles on the leaves of the tree. When goats in grazing pass near it, the hairs of their thighs and the horn of their hoofs stick to it, and the whole then dries up. Such Lādan as is mixed with goat's-hair is counted superior. It looks greenish, and has a good smell. But Lādan which is mixed with horn is looked upon as inferior. Sometimes people tie ropes round about the trees, and collect the Lādan which sticks to them. Afterwards they boil it in water, clean it, and make it into discs.
- 3. The Camphor tree is a large tree growing in the ghauts of Hindustan and in China. A hundred horsemen and upwards may rest in the shade of a single tree. Camphor is collected from the trunk and the branches. Some say that during summer a large number of snakes wind themselves round about the tree for the sake of its coolness; people then mark such trees by shooting an arrow into the trunks, and collect the camphor during

the winter. Others say that camphor trees are much frequented by leopards, which like camphor so much that they seldom leave them. The camphor within the tree looks like small bits of salt; that on the outside like resin: It often flows from the tree on the ground, and gets, after some time, solid. If there are earthquakes during the year or any other cosmical disturbances, camphor is found in large quantities.

Of the various kinds of camphor the best is called Ribāhī, or Qausūrī.2 Although different in name, they are the same; for it is said that the first camphor was found by a king of the name of Ribāh near Qayşūr, which is a place near the island of Ceylon. According to some books, it is white like snow; and this is true, for I have broken it myself from the tree. Ibn Baytar, however, said that it was originally red and shining, and only got white by artificial crystallization. Whatever the case may be, there is certainly a kind of camphor which is white in its natural state. And of all kinds it is the best, the whitest, has the thinnest layers, and is the cleanest and largest. Inferior to it is the kind called Qurquu, which is blackish and dirty. Still inferior is the light brown kind called Kawkab. The worst camphor is mixed with pieces of wood; it goes under the name of Bālūs. By artificial crystallization each kind will become clean and white. In some books, camphor in its natural state is called Jūdāna or Bhimsini. If kept with a few barley grains, or peppercorns, or surkh dana, it will evaporate the less. The camphor which is made of Zurumbad by mixing it with other ingredients, is called Chini or Mayyit-camphor. White Zurumbad is finely pounded, and mixed with sour cream 4 of cow or buffalo; on the fourth day they put fresh cream 4 to it, and beat it with the hand till foam appears, which they take away. With this they mix some camphor, put it into a box, and keep it for some time in the husks of grains. Or, they reduce some white stone to fine powder, mix it at the rate of ten dirhams of it with two dirhams of wax, and half a dirham of oil of Violet, or oil of Surkh Gul. The wax is first melted, and then mixed with the powder, so as to form a paste. They then put it between two stones, and make it thin and flat. When it gets cold, it looks like camphor, bits of which are mixed with it. Unprincipled men profit in this manner by the loss of others.

4. Zabād (civet) is also called Shākh. It is a moist substance secreted during the rutting season by an animal which resembles a cat, having, how-

^{[1} Yes, the cheets or hunting-leopard.—P.]

* Fanguri according to Marco Polo. Fangur is a state in Sumatra.—B.

* Bazar dealers give a few peppercorns along with every piece of camphor.

[4 Dogh buttermilk, not cream.—P.]

ever, a larger face and mouth. The zabād which is brought from the harbour-town of Sumatra, from the territory of Āchīn, goes by the name of Sumatra zabād, and is by far the best. The moist substance itself is yellowish white. The animal has below its tail a bag, of the size of a small hazel nut, in which there are from five to six holes. The bag may be emptied every week or fortnight, and yields from half a told to eight māshas. Some civet cats become so tame as to keep still when the bag is being emptied; but in the case of most animals, they have to catch hold of the tail and draw it through the cage when they take out the zabād with a shell, or by pressing gently against the bag. The price of a civet cat varies from 300 to 500 Rs. The zabād of the male is better than that of the female, because in the latter the vulva is just above the bag. When removed, the zabād is washed, and becomes afterwards one of the finest perfumes. The perfume will remain a long time in the clothes, and even on the skin. There are several ways of washing it. If the quantity be small, they put in into a cup, or if greater, into a larger vessel, and wash it thirty times in cold water, and three times in warm water. The latter renders it thin and removes impurities. Then they wash it again in cold water till it gets solid, when they wash it three times in lime juice, which removes all unpleasant smell. After this, they wash it again three times in cold water, pass it through a piece of cloth, put it into a China cup, and wash it three times in rose-water. They then smear the zabād on the inside of the cup, keep it at night inverted in extract of Chambeli, or Ray-bel, or Surkh gul, or Gul-i Karna, and expose it at daytime to the rays of the sun, covered with a piece of white cloth till all moisture goes away. It may then be used, mixed with a little rose-water.

- 5. Gaura looks greyish white, but does not smell so well as the preceding. It is a moisture secreted during the rutting season by an animal like the civet cat, but somewhat larger. It is also brought from the confines of Achīn. The price of this animal varies from 100 to 200 Rs.
- 6. $M\bar{i}d^{-1}$ resembles the preceding, but is inferior to it. They mix it with other substances: hence they sell it in larger quantities. The animal which yields $M\bar{i}d$ is found in various countries, and sells for from five to six $d\bar{a}ms$ only. Some say that $M\bar{i}d$ is the dried bag of the civet cat, pounded and boiled in water; the greasy substance which rises to the surface is the $M\bar{i}d$.
- 7. $\vec{V}d$, or wood of Aloes, called in Hind. Agar, is the root of a tree. They lop it off and bury it in the earth, when whatever is bad rots, and the

⁴ age with the kasrab, a kind of perfume. Kashfu 'l-lughat.

remainder is pure aloes. Some say that they do so with the whole tree. The statement occasionally found in some old books that the habitat of the tree is Central India, is an absurdity of fanciful writers. There are several kinds: the best is called Mandall, and the second in quality, Jabali or Hindi. The smell of the wood, especially that of the first kind, is a preventive against fleas; but some think both kinds equal in this respect. Of other good kinds I may mention the Samanduri; the Qumārī, which is inferior to it; the Qāqulī, next in rank; the Barrī; the Qitci; and the Chinese, also called Qismūri, which is wet and sweet. Still inferior are the Jalali, the Māyatāgi, the Lawagi, the Rītali. But of all kinds, the Mandali is the best. The Samanduri is grey, fatty, thick, hard, juicy, without the slightest sign of whitishness, and burns long. The best of all is the black and heavy; in water it settles at the bottom, is not fibrous, and may be easily pounded. The wood which floats is looked upon as bad. Former kings transplanted the tree to Gujrāt, and nowadays it grows in Chanpanir. It is generally brought from Achin and Dahnāsarī. Nothing is known of the habitat mentioned in old books. Aloewood is often used in compound perfumes; when eaten, it is exhilarating. It is generally employed in incense; the better qualities, in form of a powder, are often used for rubbing into the skin and clothes.

8. Chūwa is distilled wood of aloes; it is in general use. The preparation is as follows: They take fine clay, mix it with cotton or rice bran and beat it well. When properly intermixed, they take a small bottle large enough to put a finger in, smear it all over with the clay, and let it dry. After this, they put very small pieces of wood of aloes into it, so as nearly to fill the bottle. The wood must have been kept wet for a week before. Another vessel, with a hole in the middle, is now placed on a three-legged stand. Into this vessel, they pass the neck of the little bottle inverted, placing a cup full of water at the bottom of the vessel in such a manner that the mouth of the bottle reaches the surface of the water. On the top of the vessel they then put cow's dung, and light a gentle fire. Should flames break out they extinguish them with water. The wood of aloes will then sccrete a moisture which trickles on the surface of the water where it remains. This is collected, and washed several times with water and rose water, to take off all smell of smoke. The oftener it is washed, and the older it gets, the better will be the scent. It looks black, although experienced people make it white. One ser of wood aloes will yield from two to fifteen tolās of Chūwa. Some avaricious dealers mix sandalwood or almonds with it, thereby to cheat people.

¹ The last three names are doubtful.

- 9. Sundalwood is called in Hind. Chandan. The tree grows in China. During the present reign, it has been successfully planted in India. There are three kinds, the white, the yellow, the red. Some take the red to be more refreshing than the white; others prefer the white. The latter is certainly more cooling than the red, and the red more so than the yellow. The best is that which is yellow and oily; it goes by the name of Maqāṣarī. Sandalwood is pounded and rubbed over the skin; but it is also used nother ways.
- 10. Silāras (storax) is called in Arabic Mī^cah. It is the gum of a tree that grows in Turkey. The kind which is clear is called Mī^cah-yi sāyila liquid); the other kinds, Mī^cah-yi yābisa (dry). The best kind is that which spontaneously flows out of the trunk; it is yellowish.
- 11. Kalanbuk (calembic) is the wood of a tree brought from Zīrbād (?, 1: t is heavy and full of veins. Some believe it to be raw wood of aloes. When pounded it looks grey. They use it for compound perfumes; and they also make rosaries of it.
- 12. The *Malāgīr* is a tree resembling the former, only that the wood is lighter and not veined. When pounded it looks reddish white.
- 13 Lubān (frankincense) is the odorous gum of a tree which is found in Java. Some take it to be the same as Mīsah-yi yābisa. When exposed to fire it evaporates like camphor. The Lubān which the Persians call Kundur-i daryāt (mastix) is a resin brought from Yaman; but it is not odorous.
- 14. Azfāru't-tāb, or scented finger nails, are called in Hind Nakh, and in Persian Nākhun-i boyā. It is the house of an animal, consisting, like a thell, of two parts. It has a sweet smeil, as the animal feeds on sumbul; it is found in the large rivers of Hindustan, Başrah, and Baḥrayan, the latter being considered the best. It is also found in the Red Sea, and many prefer it to the other kinds. It is heated in butter; some expose it to the fire, pound it, and mix it with other perfumes.
- 15. Sugandh gügalā (bdellium) is a plant very common in Hindustan; it is used in perfumes.

As I have said something on perfumes, I shall make a few remarks on several beautiful flowers.

1. The Sewi resembles the Gul-i Surkh, but is smaller. It has in

¹ Zîrbād (Zîrābād), a town near the frontiers of Bengal. <u>Ghiyāg^{a '}l-lughāt</u>. [The Persiau translation of the Malay <u>Bāwah ang</u>īs, "below the wind, <u>beward</u>," being the Malay name for the countries and islands to the East of Sumatra.—B.]

the middle golden stamens and from four to six petals. Habitat, Gujrāt and the Dakhin.

- 2. Of the Chambeli there are two kinds. The Ray Chambeli has from five to six petals, outside red. The Chambeli proper is smaller, and has on the top a red stripe. Its stem is one and a half or two yards high, and trails over the ground. It has many long and broad branches. It flowers from the first year.
- 3. The Rāybel resembles the jasmin. There are various kinds; single and double, etc. A quintuple is very common, so that each petal might be separated as a distinct flower. Its stem grows a yard high. leaves of the tree resemble those of the lime tree; but they are somewhat smaller and softer.
- 4. The Mungrā resembles the Rāybel. It is larger, but inferior in perfume. It has more than a hundred petals; the plant grows to a large tree.
- 5. The Champa flower has a conical shape, of the size of a finger, 1 and consists of ten petals and more, lying in folds one above the other. It has several stamens. The tree looks graceful, and resembles in leaf and trunk the nut tree. It flowers after seven years.
- 6. The Ketki has the form of spindle of the size of a quarter of a yard, with twelve or more petals. Its smell is delicate and fragrant. It bears flowers in six or seven years.
- 7. The Kewra resembles the preceding, but is more than twice as big. The petals have thorns. As they grow on different places, they are not all equal. In the midst of the flower, there is a small branch with honeycoloured threads, not without smell. The flower smells even after it is withered. Hence people put it into clothes when the perfume remains for a long time. The stem of the tree is above four yards high; the leaves are like those of the maize, only longer, and triangular, with three thorns in each corner. It flowers from the fourth year. Every year they put new earth round about the roots. The plant is chiefly found in the ·Dakhin, Gujrāt, Mālwah, and Bihār.
- 8. The Chalta resembles a large tulip.3 It consists of eighteen petals, six green ones above, six others, some red, some green, some greyish yellow, and six white. In the midst of the flower, as in the flower called Hamesha Bahār, there are nearly two hundred little yellow leaves, with a red globule in the centre. The flower will remain quite fresh for five or six

Orientals, as a rule, have very small hands and fingers.

[* Sanābarī-paykar, a fir-cone ?—P.]

[* Lāla is the name of the common red poppy, as well as of the tulip.—P.]

days after having been plucked. It smells like the violet. When withered, the flower is cooked and eaten. The tree resembles the pomegranate tree; and its leaves look like those of the lime tree. It blooms in seven years.

9. The Tasbīḥ gulāl has a fine smell. The petals have the form of a dagger. The stem of the plant is two yards high. It flowers after four years. They make rosaries of the flowers, which keep fresh for a week.

10. The Bholsari is smaller than the jasmin; its petals are indented. When dry the flower smells better. The tree resembles the walnut tree, and flowers in the tenth year.

11. The Singārhār is shaped like a clove, and has an orange-coloured stalk. The stamens look like poppy seeds. The tree resembles the pomegranate tree, and the leaves are like the leaves of a peach tree. It flowers in five years.

12. The $K\bar{u}za$ looks like a Gul-i $sur\underline{kh}$; but the plant and the leaves are larger. It has five or a hundred petals and golden coloured stamens in the middle. They make $^{\varsigma}Ab\bar{v}rm\bar{a}ya$ and an extract from it.

13. The *Pādal* has five or six long petals. It gives water an agreeable flavour and smell. It is on this account that people preserve the flowers, mixed with clay, for such times when the flower is out of season. The leaves and the stem are like those of a nut tree. It flowers in the twelfth year.

14. The $J\bar{u}h\bar{i}$ has small leaves. This creeper winds itself round about trees, and flowers in three years.

15. The Niwārī looks like a simple Rāy-bel, but has larger petals. The flowers are often so numerous as to conceal the leaves and branches of the plant. It flowers in the first year.

16. The Kapūr bėl has five petals, and resembles the saffron flower. This flower was brought during the present reign from Europe.

17. The Zu^cfarān (saffron).¹ In the beginning of the month of Urdībihisht, the saffron seeds are put into the ground, which has been carefully prepared and rendered soft. After this, the field is irrigated with rain-water. The seed itself is a bulb resembling garlic. The flower appears in the middle of the month of Abān; the plant is about a quarter of a vard long; but, according to the difference of the soil in which it stands, there are sometimes two-thirds of it above, and sometimes two-thirds below the ground. The flower stands on the top of the stalk, and consists of aix petals and six stamens. Three of the six petals have a fresh lilac colour, and stand round about the remaining three petals. The stamens

¹ Vide a similar account of the saffron flower in the third book (Şūba Kabul).

are similarly placed, three of a yellow colour standing round about the other three, which are red. The latter yield the saffron. Yellow stamens are often cunningly intermixed. In former times saffron was collected by compulsory labour; they pressed men daily, and made them separate the saffron from the petals and the stamens, and gave them salt instead of wages, a man who cleaned two pals receiving two pals of salt. At the time of Ghāzī Khān,1 the son of (Khājī) Chak, another custom became general; they gave the workmen eleven tarks of saffron flowers, of which one tark was given them as wages; and for the remaining ten they had to furnish two Akbarshāhī sers of clean, dry saffron, i.e., for two Akbarshāhī mans a of saffron flowers they had to give two sers of cleaned saffron. This custom, however, was abolished by his Majesty on his third visit to Kashmir, to the great relief of the people.

When the bulb has been put into the ground, it will produce flowers for six years, provided the soil be annually softened. For the first two years, the flowers will grow sparingly; but in the third year the plant reaches its state of perfection. After six years the bulbs must be taken out; else they get rotten. They plant them again on some other place; and leave the old ground uncultivated for five years.

Saffron comes chiefly from the place Panpur, which belongs to the district of Mararaj. The fields there extend over nearly twelve kos. Another place of cultivation is in the Parganah of Paraspur, near Indrakol, not far from Kamraj, where the fields extend about a kos.

- 18. The Aftābī (sun-flower) is round, broad, and large, has a large number of petals, and turns continually to the sun. Its stem reaches a height of three yards.
- 19. The Kanwal. There are two kinds. One opens when the sublime Sun shines, turning wherever he goes, and closing at night. It resembles the shaqayiq.4 but its red is paler. Its petals which are never less than six in number, enclose yellow stamens, in the midst of which there is an excrescence of the form of a cone with the base upwards, which is the fruit, and contains the seeds. The other kind has four white petals, opens at night, and turns itself according to the moon, but does not close.

¹ He was the contemporary of Sher Khān; vide Abū 'l-Fazl's list of Kashmir Rulers in the third book. A good biography of Ghāzi Khān may be found in the beginning of the Ma Agir-i Raḥīmī, Persian MS. No. 45 of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

- 20. The Jasfarī is a pretty, round flower, and grows larger than the sadbarg. One kind has five, another a hundred petals. The latter remains fresh for two months and upwards. The plant is of the size of a man, and the leaves resemble those of the willow, but are indented. It flowers in two months.
- 21. The Gudhal resembles the jūghāsū tulip, and has a great number of petals. Its stem reaches a height of two yards and upwards; the leaves look like mulberry leaves. It flowers in two years.
- 22. The Ratanmanjani has four petals, and is smaller than the jasmin. The tree and the leaves resemble the ray-bel. It flowers in two years.
- 23. The Kesū has five petals resembling a tiger's claw. In their midst is a yellow stamen of the shape of a tongue. The plant is very large, and is found on every meadow; when it flowers, it is as if a beautiful fire surrounded the scenery.
- 24. The Kaner remains a long time in bloom. It looks well, but it is poisonous. Whoever puts it on his head is sure to fall in battle.1 It has mostly five petals. The branches are full of the flowers; the plant itself grows to a height of two yards. It flowers in the first year.
- 25. The Kadam resembles a tumāgha 2 (a royal cap). The leaves are like those of the walnut tree, which the whole tree resembles.
- 26. The Nag kesar, like the Gul-i surkh, has five petals and is full of fine stamens. It resembles the walnut tree in the leaves and the stem; and flowers in seven years.
- 27. The Surpan resembles the sesame flower, and has yellow stamens in the middle. The stem resembles the Hinna plant, and the leaves those of the willow.
- 28. The Srikandhi is like the Chambeli, but smaller. It flowers in two years.
- 29. The Hinna has four petals, and resembles the flower called Nafarman. Different plants have often flowers of a different colour.
- 30. The Dupahriyā is round and small, and looks like the flower called Hamesha-bahar. It opens at noon. The stem is about two yards high.
- 31. The Bhûn champā resembles the Niligar, and has five petals. The stem is about a span long. It grows on such places as are periodically under water. Occasionally a plant is found above the water.
- 32. The Sudarsan resembles the Ray-bel, and has yellow threads inside. The stem looks like that of the Susan s flower.

- 33. Senbal has five petals, each ten fingers long, and three fingers broad.
- 34. The Ratanmälä is round and small. Its juice, boiled and mixed with vitriol and mueasfar, 1 furnishes a fast dye for stuffs. Butter, sesame, oil, are also boiled together with the root of the plant, when the mixture becomes a purple dye.

35. The Sunzard resembles the jasmin, but is a little larger, and has from five to six petals. The stem is like that of the Chambels. It flowers in two years.

- 36. The Malti is like the Chambeli, but smaller. In the middle there are little stamens looking like poppyseed. It flowers in two years more or less.
- 37. The Karil has three small petals. It flowers luxuriantly, and looks very well. The flower is also boiled and eaten; they also make pickles of it.
- 38. The Jait plant grows to a large tree; its leaves look like Tamsrind leaves.
- 39. The Chanpala is like a nosegay. The leaves of the plant are like walnut leaves. It flowers in two years. The bark of the plant, when boiled in water, makes the water red. It grows chiefly in the hills; its wood burns bright like a candle.
- 40. The Lahi has a stem one and a half yards high. The branches before the flowers appear are made into a dish, which is eaten with bread. When camels feed on this plant they get fat and unruly.
 - 41. The Karaunda resembles the Jūhī flower.
- 42. The Dhanantar resembles the Nilufar, and looks very well. It is a cresper.
- 43. The Siras flower consists of silk-like threads, and resembles a tumagha. It sends its fragrance to a great distance. It is the king of the trees, although the Hindus rather worship the Pipal and Bar trees. The tree grows very large; its wood is used in building. Within the stem the wood is black, and resists the stroke of the axe.
- 44. The Kanglä, thas five petals, each four fingers long, and looks very beautiful. Each branch produces only one flower.
- 45. The San (hemp) looks like a nosegay. The leaves of the plant resemble those of the Chinar. Of the bank of the plant strong ropes are made. One kind of this plant bears a flower like the cotton tree, and is called Pat-san. It makes a very soft rope.

^{[1} Mucasfer is perhaps bastard saffron —P.]
[2 Ber the banyan tree.—P.]
[3 Chinde, the plane tree.—P.]

It is really too difficult for me, ignorant as I am, to give a description of the flowers of this country: I have mentioned a few for those who wish to know something about them. There are also found many flowers of Iran and Türan, as the Gul-i surkh, the Nargis, the violet, the Yasman-i kabūd, the Sūsan, the Rayhān, the Rasnā, the Zébā, the Shaqāyiq, the the Taj-i khurus, the Qulgha, the Nafarman, the Khatmi, etc. Garden and flower beds are everywhere to be found. Formerly people used to plant their gardens without any order, but since the time of the arrival in India of the emperor Babar, a more methodical arrangement of the gardens has obtained; and travellers nowadays admire the beauty of the palaces and their murmuring fountains.

It would be impossible to give an account of those trees of the country whose flowers, fruits, buds, leaves, roots, etc., are used as food or medicine. If, according to the books of the Hindus, a man were to collect only one leaf from each tree, he would get eighteen bars (or loads) (5 surkhs=1 māsha; 16 māshas=1 karg; 4 kargs=1 pal; 100 pals=1 tulā; 20 tulās= 1 bar); i.e., according to the weights now in use, 96 mans. The same books also state that the duration of the life of a tree is not less than two gharis (twice 24 minutes), and not more than ten thousand years. The height of the trees is said not to exceed a little above a thousand jujune. When a tree dies, its life is said to pass into one of the following ten things: fire. water, air, earth, plants, animals, animals of two senses, such as have three, or four, or five senses.

A*in 31.

THE WARDROBE AND THE STORES FOR MATTRESSES.

His Majesty pays much attention to various stuffs; hence Irani, European, and Mongolian articles of wear are in abundance. Skiiful masters and workmen have settled in this country to teach people an improved system of manufacture. The imperial workshops, the towns of Lähor, Agra, Fathpür, Ahmadābād, Gujrāt, turn out many masterpieces of workmanship; and the figures and patterns, knots, and variety of

¹ Susan, the iris.—P.]

^{[*} Rayban, sweet basil.—P.]

[* Shaqdyiq, wide p. 85, note 1.—P.]

[* Shaqdyiq, wide p. 85, note 1.—P.]

[* Khaqmi, the hollyhook and the marsh mallow.—P.]

* Regarding this measure, wide the fourth book.

* The text has a word only which occurs about three times in this work. I have also found it in Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk i Jahangiri; but I cannot find it in any Persian or Chagatai Dictionary. The meaning, a wardrobe, is however clear. (Also spelt کرک برای.—B.)

fashions which now prevail, astonish experienced travellers. His Majesty himself acquired in a short time a theoretical and practical knowledge of the whole trade; and on account of the care bestowed upon them the intelligent workmen of this country soon improved. All kinds of hairweaving and silk-spinning were brought to perfection; and the imperial workshops furnish all those stuffs which are made in other countries. A taste for fine material has since become general, and the drapery used at feasts surpasses every description.

All articles which have been bought, or woven to order, or received as tribute or presents, are carefully preserved; and according to the order in which they were preserved, they are again taken out for inspection, or given out to be cut and to be made up, or given away as presents. Articles which arrive at the same time, are arranged according to their prices. Experienced people inquire continually into the prices of articles used both formerly and at present, as a knowledge of the exact prices is conducive to the increase of the stock. Even the prices became generally lower. Thus a piece woven by the famous Ghiyas-i Nagshband may now be obtained for fifty muhrs, whilst it had formerly been sold for twice that sum; and most other articles have got cheaper at the rate of thirty to ten, or even forty to ten.1 His Majesty also ordered that people of certain ranks should wear certain articles; and this was done in order to regulate the demand.

I shall not say much on this subject, though a few particulars regarding the articles worn by his Majesty may be of interest.

- 1. The Takauchiya is a coat without lining, of the Indian form. Formerly it had slits in the skirt, and was tied on the left side; his Majesty has ordered it to be made with a round skirt and to be tied on the right side.2 It requires seven yards and seven girihs,3 and five girihs for the binding. The price for making a plain one varies from one rupee to three rupees: but if the coat be adorned with ornamental stitching, from one to four and three quarters rupees. Besides a misgal of silk is required.
- 2. The peshwaz (a coat open in front) is of the same form, but ties in front. It is sometimes made without strings.

pronounced in India girak.

Or as we would say, the prices have become less by 66‡, and even 75 per cent.
The coats used nowadays both by Hindus and Muhammadans resemble in The coats used nowadays both by Mindus and Muhammadans resemble in shape our dressing gowns (Germ. Schlafrock), but fitting tight where the lower ribs are. There the coat is tied; the Muhammadans make the tie on the left, and the Hindus on the right side. In the Eastern parts of Bengal, many Muhammadans adopt the old Hindu fashion of wearing a simple unsewn piece of muslin (chidar).

It is not stated in Asia how many girihs the tailor's gaz, or yard, contains. It is probable that 16 girihs=1 gaz, which is the usual division at present. For other yard measures, vide the 87th and 89th Asias of this book. The Persian word girih is

- 3. The Dutāhī (a coat with lining) requires six yards and four girihs for the outside, six yards lining, four girihs for the binding, nine girihs for the border. The price of making one varies from one to three rupees. One misgal of silk is required.
- 4. The Shah-ajida (or the royal stitch coat) is also called Shast-khatt (or sixty rows), as it has sixty ornamental stitches per girih. It has generally a double lining, and is sometimes wadded and quilted. The cost of making is two rupees per yard.
- 5. The Sūzanī requires a quarter of a ser of cotton and two dāms of silk. If sewed with bakhya 1 stitches, the price of making one is eight rupees; one with arida stitches costs four rupees.
- 6. The Qulami requires & s. cotton, and one dam silk. Cost of making, two rupees.
- 7. The Qabā, which is at present generally called jāma-yi pumba-dār, is a wadded coat. It requires 1 s. of cotton, and 2 m. silk. Price, one rupee to a quarter rupce.
- 8. The Gadar is a coat wider and longer than the gabā, and contains more wadding. In Hindustan it takes the place of a fur-coat. It requires seven gaz of stuff, six yards of lining, four girths binding, nine for bordering, 2\frac{1}{2} s. cotton, 3 m. silk. Price, from one-half to one and one-half rupees.
- 9. The Fargi has no binding, and is open in front. Some put buttons to it. It is worn over the jama (coat), and requires 5 gaz 12 girih stuff; 5 gaz 5 girih lining; 14 girih bordering; 1 s. cotton; 1 m. silk. Price, from a quarter to one rupee.
- 10. The Fargul resembles the yapanji, but is more comfortable and becoming. It was brought from Europe, but everyone nowadays wears 11. They make it of various stuffs. It requires 9 gaz 61 girsh stuff, the same quantity of lining, 6 m. silk, 1 s. cotton. It is made both single and double. Price from 4 to 2 rupees.

Abû 'l-Fagi's explanation (vide my text edition, p. 102, l. 16) corrects Vullers II, p. 668a.

Bakhya, in Hind. bakhiya, corresponds to what ladies call backstitching. Ajida is the buttonhole stitch. These, at least, are the meanings which bulkly and a jida now have. Suzani, a name which in the text is transferred to the coat, is a kind of embroidery, resembling our satin-statch. It is used for working leaves and flowers, etc., on stuffs, the leaves lying pretty loosely on the cicth; hence we often find stasset work in rugs, amali carpets, etc. The rugs themselves are also called sazant. A term sometimes used in dictionaries as a synonym for suzant is chiken; but this is what we call white embroidery.

^{*}A cost used in rainy weather. Calcutta Chaqatai Dictionary.

*The etymology of the word fargul is not known to me. The names of several articles of wear, nowadays current in India, are Portuguese; as saya, a petticoat; fita, a ribbon. Among other Portuguese words, now common in Hindustani, are padri, elergyman; girja, a church, Port. igréja; kobi, cabbage, Port. cuose; chabi, a key, Port. chave.

- 11. The Chakman is made of broadcloth, or woollen stuff, or wax cloth. His Majesty has it made of $D\bar{a}r\bar{a}^{\epsilon}\bar{i}$ wax cloth, which is very light and pretty. The rain cannot go through it. It requires 6 gaz. stuff, 5 girih binding, and 2 m. silk. The price of making one of broadcloth is 2 R.; of wool, $1\frac{1}{4}R$.; of wax cloth, $\frac{1}{4}R$.
- 12. The Shalwār (drawers) is made of all kinds of stuff, single and double, and wadded. It requires 3 gaz 11 girih cloth, 6 girih for the hem through which the string runs, 3 gaz 5 girih lining, 1½ m. silk, ½ s. cotton. Price, from ½ to ½ rupee.

There are various kinds of each of these garments. It would take me too long to describe the *chīras*, fawias, and dupațias,² or the costly dresses worn at feasts or presented to the grandees of the present time. Every season, there are made one thousand complete suits for the imperial wardrobe, and one hundred and twenty, made up in twelve bundles, are always kept in readiness. From his indifference to everything that is worldly, His Majesty prefers and wears woollen³ stuffs, especially shawls; and I must mention, as a most curious sign of auspiciousness, that his Majesty's clothes becomingly fit every one, whether he be tall or short, a fact which has hitherto puzzled many.

His Majesty has changed the names of several garments, and invented new and pleasing terms. Instead of jāma (coat), he says sarbgātī, i.e. covering the whole body; for izār (drawers), he says yār-pīrāhan (the companion of the coat); for nīmtana (a jacket), tanzeb; for fauta, patgat; for burqa (a veil), chitragupita; for kulāh (a cap), sīs sobhā; for mūy-bāf (a hair ribbon), kesghan; for patkā (a cloth for the loins), katzeb; for shāl (shawl), parmnarm; for . . ., parmgarm; for kapārdhūr, a Tibetan stufi, kapūrnūr; for pāy-afzār (shoes), charndharn; and similarly for other names.

¹ As this word is not given in any dictionary, the vowels are doubtful. So is Vuller's form chaspan.

⁸ Stuffs of different shapes used for making turbans.

In allusion to the practice of Sufis, who only wear garments made of wool (suf). Abu 'l-Fazl often tries to represent Akhar as a Suff of so high a degree as to be able to work miracles, and he states below that it was his intention to write a book on Akbar's miracles. The charge of fulsomeness in praise has often been brought against Abu 'l-Fazl, though it would more appropriately lie against Fayzf, who—like the poets of imperial Rome—represents the emperor as God, as may be seen in the puetical extracts of the second book. But the praises of the two brothers throw a peculiar light on Akbar's character, who received the most immoderate emcomiums with self-complacency.

⁴ The following passage is remarkable, as it shows Akbar's predilection for Hindi

⁵ The MSS, have an unintelligible word. The Banaras MS, has pardak Firany, or European Pardak (?).

A*in 32.

ON SHAWLS, STUFFS, ETC.

His Majesty improved this department in four ways. The improvement is visible, first, in the Tus shawls, which are made of the wool of an animal of that name; its natural colours are black, white, and red, but chiefly black. Sometimes the colour is a pure white. This kind of shawl is unrivalled for its lightness, warmth, and softness. People generally wear it without altering its natural colour; his Majesty has had it dyed. It is curious that it will not take a red dye. Secondly, in the Safid Alchas,1 also called Tarhdars, in their natural colours. The wool is either white or black. These stuffs may be had in three colours, white, black, or mixed. The first or white kind, was formerly dyed in three ways; his Majesty has given the order to dye it in various ways. Thirdly, in stuffs as Zardozī, Kalābatūn, Kashīda, Qalghatī, Bāndhnūn, Chhīnt, Alcha, Purzdar, to which his Majesty pays much attention. Fourthly, an improvement was made in the width of all stuffs; his Majesty had the pieces made large enough to yield the making of a full dress.

The garments stored in the Imperial wardrobe are arranged according to the days, months, and years, of their entries, and according to their colour, price, and weight. Such an arrangement is nowadays called migl, a set. The clerks fix accordingly the degree of every article of wear, which they write on a strip of cloth, and tack it to the end of the pieces. Whatever pieces of the same kind arrive for the imperial wardrobe on the Urmuzd day (first day) of the month of Furwardin, provided they be of a good quality, have a higher rank assigned to them than pieces arriving on other days; and if pieces are equal in value, their precedence or otherwise, is determined by the character 3 of the day of their entry; and if pieces are equal as far as the character of the day is concerned, they put the lighter stuff higher in rank; and if pieces have the same weight, they arrange them according to their colour. The following is the order of colours: tus, safidalcha. ruby-coloured, golden, orange, brass-coloured, crimson, grass green, cotton-flower coloured, sandalwood-coloured, almond-coloured, purple, grape-coloured, maure like the colour of some parrots, honey coloured, brownish lilar, coloured like the Ratanmanians

a progress, as they show that some order at least was kept.

Alche, or Aldche, any kind of corded (mukhaitat) stuff. Tarhdar means corded.

Bardozi, Kalabatan (Forbes, kalabattan), Kashida, Qalahai, are stuffs with gold and silk threads; Bandhain, are stuffs dyed differently in different parts of the piece; Chhint is our chastz, which is derived from Chhint. Purzder are all kinds of stuffs the outside of which is plush-like.

Akbar, like the Parsees, believed in lucky and unlucky days. The arrangement of the stores of clothing must strike the reader as most unpractical. Similar arrangements, equally surious, will be found in the following Asias. Perhaps they indicate a processes, as they show that some order at least was kent.

flower, coloured like the Kāsnī flower, apple-coloured, hay-coloured, pistachio, . . ., bhojpatra coloured, pink, light blue, coloured like the galahah flower, water-coloured, oil-coloured, brown red, emerald, bluish like China-ware, violet, bright pink, mangoe coloured, musk-coloured, coloured like the Fākhta.2

In former times shawls were often brought from Kashmir. People folded them up in four folds, and wore them for a very long time. Nowadays they are generally worn without folds, and merely thrown over the shoulder. His Majesty has commenced to wear them double, which looks very well.

His Majesty encourages, in every possible way, the manufacture of shawls in Kashmir. In Lähor also there are more than a thousand workshops. A kind of shawl, called māyān, is chiefly woven there; it consists of silk and wool mixed. Both are used for chiras (turbans), fotas (loin bands), etc.

I subjoin the following tabular particulars.

A. Gold stuffs.

ızd,³ p	er pie	ce	•	•		15 to 150 M.
	•		4	•	•	10 to 70 M.
•	•	•	•	•		10 to 50 M.
•		•	•	•	•	10 to 40 M.
•	•		•	•	•	•
	•			•	•	10 to 40 M.
•	•	•	•	•	•	3 to 70 M.
•	•		•	•	•	2 to 70 M.
•	•	•	•	•	•	3 to 70 M.
)	•	•	•	•	•	4 to 60 M.
do.	•	•	•	•	•	1 to 35 M.
		nzd, per pie	nzd, per piece	nzd,* per piece	azd, * per piece	nzd,* per piece

¹ The text contains two doubtful words. The next word bhojyatra is the bark of a tree used for making hugga tubes.

[[] Fakhte is the Common Ring-dove of India, the Turtur risoris of Jerdon .-- P.] * Yazd is the principal city in the south of the Persian province of Khurasan. Kāskān lies in Irāg-i SAjamī, north of Islahān. "The asses of Khāsān are wiser than the men of Islahān," which latter town is for Persia what Resotia is for Ancient Greece, or the Bretagne for France, of the kingdom of Fife for Scotland, or the town of Schilds for Germany, or Bihar for India-the home of fools. During the time of Moguls, the Sayyids of Barhah enjoyed a similar notoriety.

Mutabbaq, a kind of cloth, chiefly brought from Khallukh, and Milak from Naushad in Turkestan. Chiyas l-lughat.

The means generally brounde; Daraibafie a kind of brounded silk; Muqayyash is silk with stripes of silver—the Chiyas says that Muqayyash comes from the Rind. keek, hair to which the silver-stripes are compared, and that it is an Arabicized form of the Hindi word as quesuful, a clove, for the Hind. karnphul; itrifal, a kind of medicine for triphel, as it consists of three fruits, etc. Mushajjar is a kind of silk with leaves and branches woven in it; Debā is coloured silk; Khārā, moirée antique; Khass is filoselle-slik. For tafeila (vide Freytag III, p. 353), we also find tafeila.

Jārā ^s ī-bāf, from Gujrāt				ı	•		. 2 to 50 M.
Iuqayyash, do				,			. 1 to 20 M.
Shirwani Brocade, do.				,	•		. 6 to 17 M.
Jushajjar, from Europe	, per	r yard				•	. 1 to 4 M.
Debā silk, do. do	-	٠.				•	. 1 to 4 M.
Do., from Yazd, do						•	. 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}M$.
Larā, do							. 5 R. to 2 M.
Satin, from Chinese Tar	tary		•		•	•	•
Jawār, from do			,		•		
Thazz silk		•	•		•		•
'afsila (a stuff from Me		,			•		from 15 to 20 R.
"uştahwar, from Gujrat	,		•	•	•		. 1 to 20 M.
Mindil			•	•	•	•	. 1 to 14 M.
Chira (for turbans) .		•	•	•			. 1 to 8 M.
Jupatta, do		•		•		•	, 9 to 8 R.
Fotas (loin bands) .		•	•				. 1 to 12 M.
Counterpanes		•	•				. 1 to 20 M.
	B	. Sil	ks, etc	., pl	ain.		
Velvet from Europe, pe	r va						. 1 to 4 M.
Do. from Käshän, per p						•	2 to 7 M.
Do. from Yazd, do							. 2 to 4 M.
Do. from Mashhad, do.							. 2 to 4 M.
Jo. from Hirat, do		•	•				. 11 to 3 M.
Do. Khāfī, do			•				. 2 to 4 M.
Do. from Lahor, do			•				. 2 to 4 M.
Do. from Gujrāt. per ye	ırd						. 1 to 2 R.
Jatīfa-yi i Pūrabī,1 do.						•	1 to 1 R.
Tāja-bāf, per piece .							. 2 to 30 M.
Dārā i-bāf, do							. 2 to 30 M.
Mutabbay, do				•			. 1 to 30 M.
Shirwani, do			•				. 11 to 10 M.
Milak, do					•		. 1 to 7 M.
Kemkhāb, from Kābul	and	Persia	a, do.	•			. 1 to 5 M.
Tavar (?), do			•				. 2 R. to 2 M.
Khiri (!), do		•					. 4 to 10 R.
Muchanias, from Europ	e. 11	er wer	d		•	•	. 2 R. to 1 M.
Do. from Yass, per pie		J		_	_		. 1 to 2 M.
	40	•	•	-	•	-	•

Satin, from Europe,			•	•	•	•	. 2 R. to 1 M.
Satin, from Hirat, p	er pie	ce	•	•	•	•	. 5 R. to 2 M.
<u>Kh</u> ārā, per yard	•	•	•	•		•	. 1 R. to 6 R.
Sihrang,1 per piece		•	•	•	•	•	. 1 to $3 M$.
Quini, do	•	•	•	•	•	•	. $1\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 2 M.
Katān,3 from Europ	e, <i>per</i>	yard	•				. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 R.
Tāfta,4 do	•	•	•	•			$. \qquad \frac{1}{4} \text{ to } 2 R.$
Anbari, do	٠,	•		•		•	. 4 d. to $\frac{1}{2}$ R.
Dārās, do		•		•		•	$\frac{1}{8} R$ to $2 R$.
Sitīpūrī, per piece		•	•		•	•	. 6 R. to 2 M.
Qabāband, do	•			•	•		. 6 R . to 2 M .
Tāt bandpūrī, do.			•	•	•	•	. 2 R. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ M.
Lāh, per yard .	•			•			. $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{7}$ R .
Misri, per piece .		•	•	•	٠	•	. $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1 M$.
Sår, per yard .	•						10 to 1 R.
Tassar, per piece			•				. $\frac{1}{2}$ to $2R$.
Plain Kurtavār Sati	n, <i>per</i>	yard					. $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1 R$.
Kapūrnūr, formerly				r, do.			. $\frac{1}{R}$ to $1 R$.
Alcha, do							. $\frac{1}{4}$ to $2R$.
Tafzīla, per piece						•	, 7 to 12 R.
= syrous, per proce		•		•		•	
		C .	Cotto	m cloti	ks.		
Khāsa, per piece		•					. 3 R. to 15 M.
Chautār, do	•	•				•	2 R. to 9 M.
Malmal, do .	•		•			•	. 4 R.
Tansukh, do			•				. $4 R$. to $5 M$.
Svri Saf, do	•	•				•	. 2 R. to 5 M.
Gangājal, do	•	•		•		•	. 4 R. to 5 M.
Bhīraun, do			•	•			. 4 R. to 4 M.
Sahan, do							. 1 to 3 M.
Jhona, do				•			. 1 R. to 1 M.
Aţān, do			•			•	. 21 R. to 1 M.
Astroali, do.		-	-	•	-	•	. 1 to 5 M.
Bāfta, do	•	•	-		•	•	. 11 R. to 5 M.
W.1	•	•	•		•		1 to 3 M.
Maņmuas, ao	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 200 0 44.

¹ Changing silk.

A stuff made of silk and wool.

Generally translated by lines. All dictionaries agree that it is exceedingly thin, so much so that it tears when the moon shines on it; it is Muslin.

Properly, weren; hence teffets.

Nowadays chiefly made in Berhampore and Patna; vulgo, tessa.

Panchtoliya, per	piece				•	•	•	. 1 to 3 M.
Jholo, do			•	•		•		. 1 to 21 M.
Sālū, per piece				•		•		. 3 R. to 2 M.
Doriva, per piec				•		•		. 6 R. to 2 M.
Bahādur Shāhī,	do			•		•	•	. 6 R. to 2 M.
Garba Süti, do.				•	•			. $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2M$.
Shela, from the	Dakhi	n, do.		•	•	•		. 1 to 2 M.
Mihrkul, do.		,	•	•				. 3 R. to 2 M.
Mindil, do.		, ,	•	•	•	•	•	. 1 to 2 M.
Sarband, do.		,					•	. 1 to 2 M.
Dupatta, do.		,	•		•			. 1 R. to 1 M.
Katāncha, do.		,	•	•		•		. 1 R. to 1 M.
Fota, do		•	•					. $\frac{1}{2}$ to $6 R$.
Goshpech, do.			•	•	•		•	. 1 to 2 R.
Chhini, per yard	l		•				•	2 d to $1 R$.
Gazīna, per piec		•						. $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}R$.
Silāhafi, per yar		•					•	. 2 to 4 d.
			ות תו	7 11		t.		
					r stuff			
Scarlet Broadcl	oth, fro	om Ti	ırkey	, Euro	ope, i s	nd P	ortuge	
per yard			•	•		•	•	. 21 R. to 4 M.
Do., from Nago	r and	Lähor	, per	piece		•	•	. 2 R. to 1 M.
Sūf-i murabbas,	do.	•			•	•		4 to 15 M.
\$4, do.				•	•	•	•	. 3 R. to $1\frac{1}{5}$ M.
Pormnorm, do.	•	•		•	•	•		. 2 R. to 20 M.
Chira-yi-Parmn	arm, d	0.	•	•	•	•	•	. 2 R. to 25 M.
Fota, do		•	•	•		•		$. \frac{1}{2} \text{ to } 3 M.$
Jāmawār-i Peri	MARKET NE	do.			•			. $\frac{1}{4}$ to $4 M$.
Goshpech, do.	•		•		•	•	•	. 11 R to 11 M .
Sarpeck, do.		•			•		•	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4 M$.
Aghri, do.		•		•	•		•	7 R. to 21 M.

The articles imported from Europe were chiefly broadcloth; musical instruments, as trumpets; pictures; curiosities (vide Badžoni II p. 290, l. 2 from below; p. 338, l. 7) and, since 1600, tobacco. Of the names of cloths mentioned by Abū l-Pasl several are no longer known, as native weavers cannot compete with the English Longeloth and the cheap European Muslins, Alpaces, Chintzes, and Mohairs, which are nowadays in common use with the natives all over the East. At the time of the Moguls, and before, the use of woollen stuffs and, for the poorer classes, blankets, was much more general than now. Even the light caps generally worn by Muhammadans in this sountry, called in Hind, topi, and in Persian tablifies (vide Bahār-i Çājam) are mostly imported from England. I am not aware that the coldiers of the armies of the Moguls were uniformly dressed, though it appears that the comminders of the contingents at least looked to uniformity in the caps and turbans.

Parmgarm, per	piece		•				•		3	R	. to	21	M.
Katās, do.	•		•	•			•					_	М.
Phūk, do			•				•	•		•			R.
Durman, do.	•		•		•	•			2	_			M.
$Paț\bar{u}$, do.			•				•					-	R.
Rewkār, do.							•		2				M.
	•								_				R.
Burd-i Yamani,							•					-	R.
Mānjī (?) nama	d, do.								2				M.
Kanpak (?) nam	ad, de	0.											M.
Takyal namad,	from	Kā				•	•				*	_	
Do., country ma				•		•	•			11	to	5	R.
Losi, do					•					d.			
Blankets, do.	•			•	•	•	•		10	d.	to	2	R.
Kashmirian Cap	s, do.		•	•			•			d.			R.
-													

* The price is not given in the text.

A*in 33.

ON THE NATURE OF COLOURS.

White and black are believed to be the origin of all colours. They are looked upon as extremes, and as the component parts of the other colours. Thus white when mixed in large proportions with an impure black, will yield yellow; and white and black, in equal proportions, will give red. White mixed with a large quantity of black, will give a bluish green. Other colours may be formed by compounding these. Besides, it must be borne in mind that cold makes a juicy white bedy, and a dry body black; and heat renders that which is fresh black, and white that which is dry. These two powers (heat and cold) produce, each in its place, a change in the colour of a body, because bodies are both qābil, i.e. capable of being acted upon, and muqtaza, i.e. subject to the influence of the heavenly bodies (chiefly the sun), the active origin of heat.

Ä*in 34.

THE ARTS OF WRITING AND PAINTING.

What we call form leads us to recognize a body; the body itself leads us to what we call a notion, an idea. Thus, on seeing the form of a letter, we recognize the letter, or a word, and this again will lead us to some idea. Similarly in the case of what people term a picture. But though it is true

that painters, especially those of Europe, succeed in drawing figures expressive of the conceptions which the artist has of any of the mental states, 1 so much so, that people may mistake a picture for a reality: yet pictures are much inferior to the written letter, inasmuch as the letter may embody the wisdom of bygone ages, and become a means to intellectual progress.

I shall first say something about the art of writing, as it is the more important of the two arts. His Majesty pays much attention to both, and is an excellent judge of form and thought. And indeed, in the eyes of the 'riends of true beauty, a letter is the source from which the light confined within it beams forth; and, in the opinion of the far-sighted, it is the world-reflecting cup 2 in the abstract. The letter, a magical power, is piritual geometry emanating from the pen of invention; a heavenly writ from the hand of fate; it contains the secret word, and is the tongue of the hand. The spoken word goes to the hearts of such as are present to hear it; the letter gives wisdom to those that are near and far. If it was not for the letter, the spoken word would soon die, and no keepsake would be left us of those that are gone by. Superficial observers see in he letter a sooty figure; but the deepsighted a lamp of wisdom. written letter looks black, notwithstanding the thousand rays within it; or, it is a light with a mole on it that wards off the evil eye.3 A letter is the portrait painter of wisdom; a rough sketch from the realm of ideas; a dark night ushering in day, a black cloud pregnant with knowledge; the wand for the treasures of insight; speaking, though dumb; stationary, and yet travelling; stretched on the sheet, and yet soaring upwards.

When a ray of God's knowledge falls on man's soul, it is carried by the mind to the realm of thought, which is the intermediate station between that which is conscious of individual existence (mujarrad) and that which is material (madds). The result is a concrete thing mixed with the absolute, or an absolute thing mixed with that which is concrete. This compound steps forward on man's tongue, and enters, with the assistance of the conveying air, into the windows of the ears of others. It then drops the

¹ Khilqi (from khilqat) referring to states of mind natural to us, as benevolence, wrath, etc. These, Abu l'Farl says, a painter may succeed in representing; but the power of writing is greater.

The fabulous cup of King Jamshed, which revealed the secrets of the seven

heavens. * Human beauty is imperfect unless accompanied by a mole. For the mole on the cheek of his sweetheart, Hafig would make a present of Samarqand and Bulhara. Other poets rejoice to see at least one black spot on the beautiful face of the beloved who, without such an amulet, would be subject to the influence of the evil eye. 4 The spoken word, the idea expressed by a sound.

burden of its concrete component, and returns, as a single ray, to its old place, the realm of thought. But the heavenly traveller occasionally gives his course a different direction by means of man's fingers, and having passed along the continent of the pen and crossed the ocean of the ink, alights on the pleasant expanse of the page, and returns through the eye of the reader to its wonted habitation.

As the letter is a representation of an articulate sound, I think it necessary to give some information regarding the latter.

The sound of a letter is a mode of existence depending on the nature of the air. By qara we mean the striking together of two hard substances: and by galas, the separation of the same. In both cases the intermediate air, like a wave, is set in motion; and thus the state is produced which we call sound. Some philosophers take sound to be the secondary effect, and define it as the air set in motion; but others look upon it as the primary effect, i.e. they define sound to be the very quras, or the qulas, of any hard substances. Sound may be accompanied by modifying circumstances; it may be a piano, deep, nasal, or guttural, as when the throat is affected by a cold. Again, from the nature of the organ with which man utters a sound, and the manner in which the particles of the air are divided, another modifying circumstance may arise, as when two pianos, two deep, two nasal, or two guttural sounds separate from each other. Some, as Abū SAlī Sīnā, call this modifying element (sāriz) the sound of the letter; others define it as the original state of the sound thus modified (ma^crūz); but the far-sighted define an articulate sound as the union of the modifying element and the original state modified. This is evidently the correct view.

There are fifty-two articulate sounds in Hindi, so and so many in Greek, and eighteen in Persian. In Arabic there are twenty-eight letters represented by eighteen signs, or by only fifteen when we count the joined letters, and if we take the Hamzah as one with the alif. The reason for writing an alif and a lām (I) separately as the end of the single letters in the Arabic alphabet is merely to give an example of a sakin letter, which must necessarily be joined to another letter; and the reason why the letter lam is preferred 2 as an example is because the letter lam is the

¹ Abū 'l Fazi has forgotten to put in the number. He counts eighteen letters, or rather signs, in Persian, because z, ż, and z, have the same fundamental sign.

8 Or rather the alif was preferred to the wim or yā, because these two letters may be either sākin or mutaharrik. But the custom has become established to call the alif, when mutaharrik, kamzak; and to call the alif, when sākin, merely alif. CAbdulwasi, of Hansah, in his excellent Persian Grammar, entitled Risala-yi CAbdulwasi, which is read all over India, says that the lam-alif has the meaning of not,

middle letter of the word alif, and the letter alif the middle letter of the word läm.

The vowel-signs did not exist in ancient times, instead of which letters were dotted with a different kind of ink; thus a red dot placed over a letter expressed that the letter was followed by an a; a red dot in front of the letter signified a u; and a red dot below a letter an i. It was Khalil ibn-i Aḥmad, the famous inventor of the Metrical Art of the Arabians, who fixed the forms of the vowel-signs as they are now in use.

The beauty of a letter and its proportions depend much on personal taste: hence it is that nearly every people has a separate alphabet. Thus we find an Indian, Syriac, Greek, Hebrew, Coptic, Masqalī, Kūfī, Kashmīrī, Abyssinian, Rayhānī, Arabic, Persian, Himyaritic, Berbery, Andalusian, Rūḥānī, and several other ancient systems of writing. The invention of the Hebrew characters is traced in some poems to Ādam-i Hafthazārī; but some mention Idris 3 as the inventor. Others, however, say that Idrīs perfected the Masqalī character. According to several statements, the Kūfic character was derived by the Khalītah sAlī from the Masqalī.

The difference in the form of a letter in the several systems, lies in the proportion of straight and round strokes: thus the Kūfic character consists of one-sixth curvature and five-sixths straight lines; the Masqalī has no curved lines at all; hence the inscriptions which are found on ancient buildings are mostly in this character.

In writing we have to remember that black and white look well, as these colours best prevent ambiguities in reading.

In Iran and Türan, India and Turkey, there are eight caligraphical

i.e., "do not read this compound lam-alif but pass over it, when you say the Alphabet: look upon it as a mere example of a sakin letter."

Another peculiarity of European grammars is this, that in acranging the letters of the alphabet, the seds is placed after the Ac; here in the East, the Ac is invariably put before the sed.

He is said to have been born A.H. 100, and died at Basrah, A.H. 175 or 190. He wrote several works on the science which he had established, as also several books on the rhyme, lexicographical compilations, etc.

3 Idris, or Enoch.

The term hamsuh, as used here in native schools, is correlated distinguished from the terms Shaki-i Hamsuh and Markiz-i Hamsuh. Shaki-i Hamsuh is the small sign consisting of a semicircle, one extremity of which stands upon a straight line slightly slanting. Markiz-i Hamsuh is either of the letters ai f. waw, or ya, but chiefly the latter, when accompanied by the Shaki-i Hamsuh. Hamsuh is a general term for either of the three letters alif, www. ya, when accompanied by the Shaki-i Hamsuh. In European grammars, the chapter on the Hamsuh is badly treated, because all explain the word Hamsuh as the name of a sign.

Adam is called Haft-hauiri, because the number of inhabitants on earth at his death had reached the number seven thousand. A better explanation is given by Badioni (II, p. 337, l. 10), who puts the creation of Adam seven thousand years before his time. Vide the first A is of the Third Book.

systems 1 current, of which each one is liked by some people. Six of them were derived in A.H. 310 by Ibn-i Muglah from the Macgali and the Kufic characters, viz., the Suls, Taugis, Muhaggag, Naskh, Rayhan, Rigas. Some add the Ghubar, and say that this seventh character had likewise been invented by him. The Naskh character is ascribed by many to Yaqut, a slave of the Khalifah Musta sam Billah.2 The Suls and the Naskh consist each of one-third 2 curved lines, and two-thirds straight lines: the former (the suls) is jali, whilst the latter (the naskh) is khafi. The Tauqis and Rigas consist of three-fourths curved lines and one-fourth straight lines; the former is jali, the latter is khafi. The Muhaqqaq and Rayhan contain three-fourths straight lines; the former, as in the preceding, is jali, and the Rayhan is khufi.

Among famous copyists I must mention Alī ibn-i Hilāl, better known under the name of Ibn-i Bawwab; b he wrote well the six characters. Yaqut brought them to perfection. Six of Yaqut's pupils are noticeable; 1. Shaykh Ahmad, so well known under the name of Shaykh-zāda-yi Suhrwardī; 2. Arghūn of Kābul; 3. Mawlānā Yūsuf Shāh of Mash,had; 4. Mawlana Muharik Shah, styled Zarrin-galam (the golden pen; 5. Haydar, called Gandahnawis (i.e., the writer of the jali); 6. Mir Yahya.

It is remarkable that, in the whole chapter, there is not the slightest allusion. to the art of printing. Nor do Abū 'l-Fagl's letters, where nearly the whole of this Abūn is repeated, contain a reference to printed books. "The first book printed in India was the Doctrina Christiana of Giovanni Gonsalvez, a lay brother of the order of the Jesuits, who, as far as I know, first cast Tamulic characters in the year 1577. After this appeared, in 1578, a book entitled Flos Sanctorum, which was followed (?) by the Tamulic Dictionary of Father Antonio de Proenza, printed in 1679, at Ambalacate, on the noast of Malabar. From that Period the Danish Missionaries at Tranquebar have printed many works, a catalogue of which may be found in Alberti Fabricii Salutares lux Evangelii." Johnston's translation of Fra P. Da San Bartolomeo's Voyage to the East Indies, p. 395. The Italian Original has the same years:

<sup>1677, 1578, 1679.

*</sup> He was the last caliph, and reigned from 1242 to 1258, when he was put to death by Hulagu, grandson of Chingis Khan. [Billah is not in the text.—P.]

[·] Hence, the name sule, or one-third.

⁴ Jalf (i.e. clear) is a term used by copyists to express that letters are thick, and

written with a pen full of ink. Ghiās.—Khafī (hidden) is the opposite.

* Ibn Muqlah, Ibn Baweāō, and Yāqūt are the three oldest caligraphists mentioned in various histories. The following notes are chiefly extracted from Bakhātwar Khan's Mir-atul SAlam :--

Ibn Muqlah, or according to his full name, Abū SAli Muhammad ibn-i SAli ibn-i Hasan ibn-i Muqlah, was the vizier of the Khalifaha Muqtadir billah, Alqahir billah, and ArRazi billah, who reigned from A.D. 907 to 940. The last, cut off Ibn-i Muqlah's

right hand. He died in prison, A.H. 327, or A.D. 938-9.

**Ibn-i Baweeth, or Abu 'l-Hasan cAll ibn i Hilal, lived under the twenty-fifth...

Khalifah, Alqādir billah (A.D. 992-1030), the contemporary of Mahmud of Ghazni, and died A.H. 416, or A.D. 1026,

Fāqūt, or Shaykh Jamāla 'd-Din, was born at Baghdād, and was the Librarian of Mustacam billah, the thirty-seventh and last Khalifah, who imprisoned him some time on account of his Shigah tendencies. He survived the general slaughter (1258) of Halaga Khan and died, at the age of one hundred and twenty, A.H. 697, or A.D. 1297, during the reign of Chazan Khan Halaga's great grandson.

The following caligraphists are likewise well-known: Sūfī Naṣru 'llāh, also called Sadr-i 'Irāqī; Arqūn; 'Abdu 'llāh; Khwāja 'Abdu 'llāh-i Sayrafī; Hājī Muḥammad; Mawlānā SAbdu 'llāh-i Āshpaz; Mawlānā Muḥi of Shīrāz; Musīnu'd-Dīn-i Tanūrī; Shamsu'd-Dīn-i Khatāsī; Shadu 'r-Raḥīm-i Khalūlī (?); SAbdu 'l-Hayy; Mawlānā Jasfar1 of Tabrīz; Mawlana Shah of Mash, had; Mawlana Macruf 2 of Baghdad; Mawlana Shamau 'd-Dīn Bāyasanghur; Musīnu 'd-Dīn of Farāh; SAbdu 'l-Ḥaqq of Sabzwār; Maulāna Niemata 'llāh-i Bawwāb; Khwājagī Mumin-i Marwarid, the inventor of variegated papers and sauds for strewing on the paper: Sultan Ibrahim, son of Mirza Shahrukh; Mawlana Muhammad Hakim Hāfiz; Mawlānā Mahmūd Siyā, üsh; Mawlānā Jamāla 'd-Dīn Husayn; Mawlānā Pīr Muḥammad; Mawlānā Fazla 'l-Haqq of Qazwin.3

A seventh kind of writing is called Tasliq, which has been derived-from the Rigas and the Tawas. It contains very few straight lines, and was brought to perfection by Khwaja Tāj-i Salmānī,4 who also wrote well the other six characters. Some say that he was the inventor.

Of modern caligraphists I may mention: Mawlana Abdu'l-Hayy, the Private Secretary 5 of Sultan Abū Sasid Mirzā, who wrote Taslīg well; Mawlana Darwish; Amir Mansur; Mawlana Ibrahim of Astarabad; Khwaja Ikhtiyar; Munshi Jamala 'd-Din: Muhammad of Qazwin; Mawlana Idris: Khwaja Muhammad Husava Munshi; and Ashraf Khan,*

He lived in the beginning of the lifteenth century, at the time of Mirzā Shāhrukh. (1404-47).

A contemporary and rival of the great poet palman of Sarah (died 769). The name Musrafappears to have been common in Baghdad since the times of the famous saint Musraf of Kurkh (a part of Baghdad).

The Maktabat and the Mr. at also mention fulla Aba Bakr. and Shaykh

Mahmad.

cangraphist. He was Private Secretary to Sultan Husayn Mirra.

This is the title of Muhammad Asghar a Sayyid from Mashhad—or according to the Tabaqāt-i Ahbari, from SArabshāhi. He served Humāyūn as Mir Munshi, Mir SArai, and Mir Māli. He accompanied Tardi Beg on his flight from Dihli, was imprisoned by Bayrām, and had to go to Mecca. He rejoined Akbar in A.H. 968, when Bayrām had just fallen in disgrace, received in the following year the title of Ashraf Aha, and served under MunSim hhān ir Bengal. He died in the tenth year of Akbar's reign, A.H. 973. In Abl'l-Farl's list of grandees, in the second book, Ashraf Khān is quoted as a commander of two thousand. Badā, oni mentions him among the contemporaneous noets. Abū 'l-Muzaffar Ashraf Khān's sen were A Died and the contemporaneous noets. among the contemporaneous poets. Abu 'l-Mugaffar, Ashraf Khan's son, was, A.D. 1596, a commander of five hundred.

According to the Maktübāt and several MSS. Sulcymānī.

In the original text, p. 114, h. 5 by nestake, Mawlānā ÇAbda 'l-Ḥayy and the Munshi of Sultān Abū Saçid. · Mawland Darwish Muhammad was a friend of the famous Amir SAli Shor, the vizier of Sultan Husayn Mîrza, king of Khurasan (A.D. 1470 to 1505), and the patron of the poet Jami. Mawlana Darwish entered afterwards the service of Shah Junayd-i Safawi, king of Persia (A.D. 1499 to 1523). A biography of the Mawlana may be found in the Madistri Rahlwi p. 751.

7 Khwāja Ikhtiyār, the contemporary and successful rival of the preceding caligraphist. He was Private Secretary to Sultan Husayn Mirra.

the Private Secretary of his Majesty, who improved the Taslig very much.

The eighth character which I have to mention is the Nasta liq; it consists entirely of round lines. They say that Mir SAli of Tabriz, a contemporary of Timur, derived it from the Naskh and the Tacliq; but this can scarcely be correct because there exist books in the Nastaska character written before Timūr's time. Of Mir Ali's pupils, I may mention two: 1 Mawlana Jacfar of Tabriz, and Mawlana Azhar; and of other caligraphists in Tacliq, Mawlana Muhammad of Awbah (near Hirat). an excellent writer; Mawlana Barī of Hirat; and Mawlana Sultan SAlī of Mash, had, who surpasses them all. He imitated the writing of Mawlana Azhar, though he did not learn from him personally. Six of his pupils are well known: Sultan Muhammad-i Khandan; Sultan Muhammad Nür: Mawlana 'Ala'u 'd-Din' of Hirat: Mawlana Zavnu 'd-Din (of Nīshāpūr); Mawlānā Abdī of Nīshāpūr; Muhammad Qāsim Shādī Shāh, each of whom possessed some distinguishing qualities.

Besides these, there are a great number of other good caligraphists, who are famous for their skill in Nastasliq; as Mawlana Sultan SAI, of Qāyin; 5 Mawlānā Sultān Alī of Mashhad; 6 Mawlānā Hijrānī; 7 and after them the illustrious Mawlana Mir Ali, the pupil, as it appears, of Mawlana Zayn" 'd-Din. He brought his art to perfection by imitating the writing of Sultan Ali of Mash, had. The new method, which he established, is a proof of his genius; he has left many masterpieces. Some one asked him once what the difference was between his writing and that of the Mawlana. He said, "I also have brought writing to perfection; but yet, his method has a peculiar charm."

¹ The Mir²di mentions a third immediate pupil of Mir SAli Mawlana Khwaja Muhammad, and relates that he put Mir SAli's name to his own writings, without

giving offence to his master.

2 He also was a friend of Amir CAli Sher, and died A.H. 910, during the reign of Sultan Husayn Mirza, mentioned in the fourth note.

He was called Khandan, as he was always kappy. He was a friend of Amir

⁵ He was the instructor of Sultan Hussyn Mirza's children, and died A.H. 914, Qâyin is a Persian town, S.E. of Khurāsan, near the frontier of Afghanistan. It is spelt Chayan on our maps.

According to the Maktubat, Mawlana Sultan Cali sher of Mashhad, which is evidently the correct reading.

¹ A poet and friend of Amir SAli Sher. He died A.H. 921.

⁸ Mawlānā Mir GAli, a Sayyid of Hirāt, died A.H. 924. As a poet he is often mentioned together with Mir Ahmad, son of Mir Khusraw of Dihli, and Bayrām Khān, Akbār's Khānkhānān, as a master of Dakhl poetry. Dakhl, or entering, is the skilful use which a poet makes of verses, or parts of verses, of another poet.

In conclusion, I may mention: Shah Maḥmūd¹ of Nīshāpūr; Maḥmūd Is-haq; Shamsu'd-Din of Kirman; Mawlana Jamshed, the riddle-writer; Sultan Husayn of Khujand; Mawlana 'Ayshi; Chiyasa'd-Din, the gilder; Mawlānā ʿAbdu s-Samad; Mawlānā Malik; Mawlānā ʿAbdu 'l-Karīm; Mawlana ⁶Abd^a 'r-Raḥīm of Khwārizm; Mawlana Shaykh Muḥammad; Mawlānā Shāh Maḥmūd-i Zarrīnqalam (or gold pen); Mawlānā Muḥammad Husayn^a of Tabrīz; Mawlana Hasan Ali of Mash,had; Mīr MuSizz of Kāshān; Mīrzā Ibrāhīm of Isfahān; and several others who have devoted their lives to the improvement of the art.

His Majesty shows much regard to the art, and takes a great interest in the different systems of writing; hence the large number of skilful caligraphists. Nasta fliq has especially received a new impetus. The artist who, in the shadow of the throne of his Majesty, has become a master of caligraphy, is Muhammad Husayn s of Kashmir. He has been honoured with the title of Zarringalam, the gold pen. He surpassed his master Mawlana 'Abdu 'l-'Aziz; his maddat and dawa'ir show everywhere a proper proportion to each other, and art critics consider him equal to Mulia Mir Ali. Of other renowned caligraphists of the present age, I must mention Mawlana Baqir, the son of the illustrious Mulla Mir SAli; Muhammad Amin of Mash, had; Mir Husayn i Kulanki; Mawlana SAbdu 'l-Hay; Mawlana Dawri; Mawlana Abda 'r-Rahim; Mir Abda 'llah; Nizami of Qazwin; Ali Chaman of Kashmir; Nüru 'llah Qasim Arsalan.

His Majesty's library is divided into several parts; some of the books are kept within, and some without, the Harem. Each part of the library

Both mention another caligraphist, Mir Sayyid Ahmad of Mashhad.

The was the teacher of the celebrated caligraphist Cimad, whose biography will be found in the Mirtat. Vide also the preface of Dr. Sprenger's Guistan.

He died A.H. 1020, six years after Akbar's death.

By Maddat (extensions), caligraphists mean letters like —, —; by dawater

According to the Maktüböt and the Mirtal, Shah Musammad of Nishapur.

⁽curvatures), letters like w, c.

Draw four horizontal lines at equal intervals; call the spaces between them a, b, c, of which a is the highest. Every letter which fills the space b is called a shieha; as i, p, s, s. The discritical points are immaterial. Every line above b is called a markus; every line below b, i.e., in c, a daman. Thus a consists of a shieha and a markus; or of a shieha and a daman. The knob of a p, i., or J, is called balla. Thus is a Madda, consisting of a kalla, and a damen; so also go, is. The consists of a marker and a damen.

In Grammar the word marker means the same as skilche in caligraphy; thus 1, 1, consist of a marker, and a skeld-i hamma.

^{.,} a, consist or a market, and a shell-i hawes.

By islay, caligraphists mean any additional ernamental strokes, or realling a written letter with ink (Hind. siyahi bhand), or essaing (Hind. chhilad).

Bis name is Sultan Bayinid; he was born at Hirat. Dawri is his postical name. Fide Baddoni's list of posts (vol. iii of the Bibl. Indica). Abbar bestowed on him the title of Ratio 'l-Mulk, the writer of the empire. His pupil was Khwaja Muhammad Husayn, an Ahadi (vide Baddoni, ii, p. 394, where for lorshim, in the Taribh, read Barahim).

is subdivided, according to the value of the books and the estimation in which the sciences are held of which the books treat. Prose books. poetical works, Hindi, Persian, Greek, Kashmīrian, Arabic,1 are all separately placed. In this order they are also inspected. Experienced people bring them daily and read them before His Majesty, who hears every book from the beginning to the end. At whatever page the readers daily stop, His Majesty makes with his own pen a sign, according to the number of the pages; and rewards the readers with presents of cash, either in gold or silver, according to the number of leaves read out by them. Among books of renown, there are few that are not read in his Majesty's assembly hall; and there are no historical facts of the past ages, or curiosities of science, or interesting points of philosophy, with which His Majesty, a leader of impartial sages, is unacquainted. He does not get tired of hearing a book over again, but listens to the reading of it with more interest. The Akhläg-i Näsiri, the Kimiya-yi Safadat, the Qābūsnāma, the works of Sharaf of Munayr (vide p. 50), the Gulistān, the Hadiga of Hakim Sanāti, the Masnawi of Masnawi, the Jām-i Jam, the Bustan, the Shahnama, the collected Masnawis of Shaykh Nizami, the works of Khusraw and Mawlana Jami, the Diwans of Khaqani, Anwari, and several works on History, are continually read out to His Majesty. Philologists are constantly engaged in translating Hindi, Greek, Arabic, and Persian books, into other languages. Thus a part of the Zīchi-i Jadīd-i Mirza i (vide 3rd book, A in 1) was translated under the superintendence of Amīr Fatha 'llah of Shīrāz (vide p. 34), and also the Kishnjoshi, the Gangādhar, the Mohesh Mahānand, from Hindī (Sanscrit) into Persian, according to the interpretation of the author of this book. The Mahabharat which belongs to the ancient books of Hindustan has likewise been translated, from Hindi into Persian, under the superintendence of Naqib Khān, Mawlānā Abda 'l-Qādir of Badāon, and Shaykh Sultan of

Observe that the Arabic books are placed last. [But see p. 104, line 4.—B.]
 Regarding this renowned man, vide Abū 'l-Faşl's list of Grandees, 2nd book,
 No. 161.

No. 161.

** Mullä CAbda '!-Qādir, poetically styled Qādirī, was born A. H. 947 [or 949] at Badāon, a town near Dihlī. He was thus two years older than Akbar. His father, whom he lost in 969, was called Shaykh Mulūk Shāh, and was a pupil of the Saint Bechü of Sambhal. CAbda '!-Qādir, or Badāonī, as we generally call him, studied various sciences under the most renowned and pious men of his age, most of whom he enumerates in the beginning of the third volume of his Muntakhab. He excelled in Music, History, and Astronomy, and was on account of his beautiful voice appointed Court Imēm for Wednesdays. He had early been introduced to Akbar by Jalāl Khān Qūrchī (vide List of Grandees, 2nd book, No. 213). For forty years Badāonī lived in company with Shaykh Mubārak, and Fayzī and Abū 'I-Fazī, the Shaykh's sens; but there was no sincere friendship between them, as Badāonī looked upon them as heretics. At the command of Akbar, he translated the Ramāyan (Badāonī,

Thanesar.¹ The book contains nearly one hundred thousand verses: His Majesty calls this ancient history Razmnāma, the book of Wars. The same learned men translated also into Persian the Ramāyan, likewise a book of ancient Hindustan, which contains the life of Rām Chandra, but is full of interesting points of Philosophy. Ḥājī Ibrāhīm of Sarhind translated into Persian the Atharban * which, according to the Hindus, is one of

II, pp. 336, 366), from the Sanscrit into Persian, receiving for twenty-four thousand sloks 150 Ashrafis and 10,000 Tangahs; and parts of the Mahābhārat; extracts from the History of Rashīd; and the Baḥra'l-Asmār, a work on the Hadīs. A copy of another of his works, entitled Najāta'r-Rashīd, may be found among the Persian MSS. of the As. Soc. Bengal. His historical work, entitled Munta khata'l-Tawārīkh, is much prized as written by an enemy of Akbar, whose character, in its grandeur and its failings, is much more prominent than in the Aba:nāma or the Tabaāt-i Akbarī or the Maāsīr-i Rabīmī. It is especially of value for the religious views of the emperor, and contains interesting biographies of most famous men and poets of Akbar's time. The History ends with the beginning of A.H. 1004, or eleven years before Akbar's death, and we may conclude that Badāonī died soon after that year. The book was kept secret, and according to a statement in the Mirān' l-Çālam, it was made public during the reign of Jahāngīr, who showed his displeasure by disbelieving the statement of Badāonī's children that they themselves had been unaware of the existence of the book. The Tuzuk-i Jahāngīr unfortunately says nothing about this circumstance; but Badāonī's work was certainly not known in A.H. 1025, the tenth year of Jahāngīr's reign, in which the Muāāṣir-i Raāīmī was written, whose author complained of the want of a history beside the Tabaqāt, and the Akbarnāma.

In point of style, Badāonī is much inferior to Bakhtāwar Khān (Mirēat*'l-ÇAlam) and Muhammad Kāzim (the ÇÂlam-gîr Nāma), but somewhat superior to his friend Mirsā Nigāmu 'd-Dīn Ahmad of Hirāt, author of the Tabaqāt, and to ÇAbdu'l-Ḥamīd of Lāhor, author of the Pādishāhāmama.

SAbdu 'l-Qadir of Badaon must not be confounded with Wawlana Qadiri, another

learned man contemporaneous with Akbar.

1 Vide Badāoni II, p. 278; and for Hāji Ibrāhim, iii, p. 139. [ii, p. 278.—B.]
2 "In this year (A. H. 983, or A.D. 1575) a learned Brahmin, Shaykh Bhāwan, deeme from the Dakhin and turned Muhammadan, a han His Majarty gave me the

In this year (A.H. 983, or A.D. 1915) a learned brannin, Snayan Bhawan, had come from the Dakhin and turned Muhammadan, when His Majesty gave me the order to translate the Atharban. Several of the religious precepts of this book resemble the laws of Islām. As in translating I found many difficult passages, which Shayah Bhāwan could not interpret either, I reported the circumstance to His Majesty, who ordered Shayah Fayai, and then Hāji Ibrāhīm, to translate it. The latter, though willing, did not write anything. Among the precepts of the Atharban, there is one which says that no man will be saved unless he read a certain passage. This passage contains many times the letter l, and resembles very much our Là illah illa 'l-lāh. Besides, I found that a Hindū, under certain conditions, may eat cow flesh; and another, that Hindūs bury their dead, but do not burn them. With such passages the Shayah used to defeat other Brahmins in argument; and they had in fact led him to embrace Islām. Let us praise God for his conversion!" Badžonī, ii, p. 212.

The translation of the Mahābhārat was not quite a fallure. "For two nights His Majesty himself translated some passages of the Mahābhārat, and told Naqīb Khān to write down the general meaning in Persian: the third night he associated me with Naqīb Khān; and, after three or feur months, two of the eighteen chapters of these useless absurdities—enough to confound the eighteen worlds—were laid before His Majesty. But the emperor took exception to my translation, and called me a Harāmāhar and a tunnip-cater, as if that was my share of the book. Another part was subsequently finished by Naqīb Khān and Mullā Sherī, and another part by Sultān Hājī of Thaneser; then Shaykh Fayzi was appointed, who wrote two chapters, prose and poetry; then the Hājī wrote two other parts, adding a verbal translation of the parts that had been left out. He thus got a hundred jux together, closely written, so exactly rendered, that even the accidental dirt of flice on the

the four divine books. The Lilawati, which is one of the most excellent works written by Indian mathematicians on arithmetic, lost its Hindu veil, and received a Persian garb from the hand of my elder brother, Shaykh SAbdu 'l-Fayz-i Fayzī. At the command of His Majesty, Mukammal Khān of Gujrāt translated into Persian the Tājak, a well-known work on Astronomy. The Memoirs 2 of Babar, the Conqueror of the world, which may be called a code of practical wisdom, have been translated from Turkish into Persian by Mîrzā SAbdu-'r-Rahīm Khān, the present Khān Khānān (Commander-in-Chief). The History of Kashmīr, which extends over the last four thousand years, has been translated from Kashmirian into Persian by Mawlana Shah Muhammad of Shahabad. The Musjamu 'l-Buldan, an excellent work on towns and countries, has been translated from Arabic into Persian by several Arabic scholars, as Mulla Ahmad of Thathah, Qāsim Beg, Shaykh Munawwar, and others. The Haribas, a book containing the life of Krishna, was translated into Persian by Mawlana Sheri (vide the poetical extracts of the second book). By order of His Majesty, the author of this volume composed a new version of the Kalilah Damnah, and published it under the title of Ayar Danish. The original is a masterpiece of practical wisdom, but is full of rhetorical difficulties; and though Nașru 'llah-i Mustawfi and Mawlana Husayn-i Wāsiz has translated it into Persian, their style abounds in rare metaphors and difficult words. The Hindi story of the love of Nal and Daman, which melts the hearts of feeling readers, has been metrically translated by my

For Clydr-i Danish. Such abbreviations are common in titles.

original was not left out; but he was soon after driven from Court, and is now in Bhakkar. Other translators and interpreters, however, continue nowadays the fight between Pandus and the Kurus. May God Almighty protect those that are not engaged in this work, and accept their repentance, and hear the prayer of pardon not engaged in this work, and accept their repentance, and near the prayer of pardon of every one who does not hide his disgust, and whose heart rests in Islam; for 'He allows men to return to Him in repentance! 'This Razmaāma was illuminated, and repeatedly copied; the grandees were ordered to make copies, and CAbda'l-Fatl wrote an introduction to it of about two juz, etc.' Badāonī, ii, p. 302. A copy of this translation in two volumes, containing eighteen fans (4) is among the MSS. of the As. Soc. of Bengal, No. 1329. One juz (5) = sixteen pages quarto, or two sheets.

1 This work has been printed. Abū'l-Fatl's words Hindulveil are an allusion to

² Vide Tusuk-i Jahängiri, p. 417. The WāqiSāt-i Timūr were translated into Persian, during the reign of Shāhjahān, by Mir Abū Tālib-i Turbati. Pādshāhāma ii, p. 288. edit. Bibl. Indica. "Conqueror of the world," geti sitāni, is Bābar's title. Regarding the titles of the Mogul Emperors from Bābar to Bahādur Shāh, eids Journal As. Soc. Bengai for 1868, Part I, p. 39.

³ "During this year (A.H. 999, or A.D. 1590-1), I received the order from His

Majesty to re-write in an easy style, the History of Kashmir, which Mulla Shah Muhammad of Shahabad. a very learned man, had translated into Persian. I finished this undertaking in two months, when my work was put into the Imperial Library, to be read out to His Majesty in its turn." Baddoni, ii, p. 374.

* Regarding the tragic end of this "heretic", vide Baddoni, ii, p. 364. Notices-regarding the other two men will be found in the third volume of Baddoni.

brother Shaykh Fayzi-i Fayyāzī, in the magnawī metre of the Layī Majnun, and is now everywhere known under the title of Nal Daman.1

As His Majesty has become acquainted with the treasure of history, he ordered several well-informed writers to compose a work containing the events which have taken place in the seven zones for the last one thousand years. Naqīb Khān, and several others, commenced this history. A very large portion was subsequently added by Mulla Ahmad of Thathah, and the whole concluded by Jacfar Beg-i Asaf Khan. The introduction is. composed by me. The work has the title of Tārīkh-i Alfī,2 the History of a thousand years.

The Art of Painting.

Drawing the likeness of anything is called taşwīr. His Majesty, from his earliest youth, has shown a great predilection for this art, and gives it every encouragement, as he looks upon it as a means, both of study and amusement. Hence the art flourishes, and many painters have obtained great reputation. The works of all painters are weekly laid before His Majesty by the Daroghas and the clerks; he then confers rewards according to excellence of workmanship, or increases the monthly salaries. Much progress was made in the commodities required by painters, and the correct prices of such articles were carefully ascertained. The mixture of colours has especially been improved. The pictures thus received a hitherto unknown finish. Most excellent painters are now to be found, and masterpieces, worthy of a Bihzād,3 may be placed at the side of the wonderful works of the European painters who have attained world-wide fame. The minuteness in detail, the general finish, the boldness of execution, etc., now observed in pictures, are incomparable: even inanimate

Muhammadans that Islam and the world were approaching their end. Various men arose, pretending to be Imam Mahdi, who is to precede the reappearance of Christ on earth; and even Badāoni's belief got doubtful on this point. Akbar's disciples saw in the common number a happy omen for the propagation of the Din-i Hahi. The Tarith-i Alfi was likewise to give prominence to this idea.

The copy of the Tarith-i Alfi in the Library of the As. Soc. of Bengal (No. 19)

Reddonf, ii, p. 317.

"Biketd was a famous painter, who lived at the court of Shih Ismacil-i Safawi of Persia." Strajullughat.

^{1 &}quot;Fayzi's Naldaman (for Nal o Daman contains about 4,200 verses, and was composed, A.H. 1003, in the short space of five months). It was presented to Akbar with a few ashrafis as nazar. It was put among the set of books read at Court, and Naqib Khān was appointed to read it out to His Majesty. It is, indeed, a magnawi, the like of which, for the last three hundred years, no onet of Hindustan, after Mir Khusraw of Dihli, has composed." Badioni, ii, p. 296

In A.H. 1000, A.D. 1591-2, the belief appears to have been current among the Muhammadana that Islam and the more of appears to have been current among the

contains no preface, commences with the events subsequent to the death of the Prophet (8th June, 632), and ends abruptly with the reign of Cumar ibn-i CAbda'l-Malik (A.H. 99, or A.D. 717-18). The years are reckoned from the death of the Prophet, no from the Hijrah. For further particulars regarding this book, wide

objects look as if they had life. More than a hundred painters have become famous masters of the art, whilst the number of those who approach perfection, or of those who are middling, is very large. This is especially true of the Hindus; 1 their pictures surpass our conception of things. Few, indeed, in the whole world are found equal to them.

Among the forerunners on the high road of art I may mention:

- 1. Mir Sayyid Ali of Tabriz. He learned the art from his father. From the time of his introduction at Court, the ray of royal favour has shone upon him. He has made himself famous in his art, and has met with much success.
- 2. Khwāja 'Abdu 's-Şamad, styled Shīrīngalam, or sweet pen. He comes from Shiraz. Though he had learnt the art before he was made a grandee 3 of the Court, his perfection was mainly due to the wonderful effect of a look of His Majesty, which caused him to turn from that which is form to that which is spirit. From the instruction they received, the Khwāja's pupils became masters.
- 3. Daswanth. He is the son of a palkee-bearer. He devoted his whole life to the art, and used, from love of his profession, to draw and paint figures even on walls. One day the eye of His Majesty fell on him; his talent was discovered, and he himself handed over to the Khwaja. In a short time he surpassed all painters, and became the first master of the age. Unfortunately the light of his talents was dimmed by the shadow of madness; he committed suicide. He has left many masterpieces.

4. Basawan. In back grounding, drawing of features, distribution of colours, portrait painting, and several other branches, he is most excellent, so much so that many critics prefer him to Daswanth.

The following painters have likewise attained fame: Kesü, Lal, Mukund, Mushkin, Farrukh the Qalmaq (Calmuck), Madhu, Jagan, Mohesh, Khemkaran, Tārā, Sāwlā, Haribās, Rām. It would take me too long to describe the excellencies of each. My intention is "to pluck a flower from every meadow, an ear from every sheaf".

I have to notice that the observing of the figures of objects and the making of likenesses of them, which are often looked upon as an idle occupation, are, for a well regulated mind, a source of wisdom, and an

¹ Compare with Aba 'l-Faşl's opinion, Elphinstone's History of India, second

edition, p. 174.

Better known as a poet under the name of Judă, i. Vide the poetical extracts of the second book. He illuminated the Story of Amir Hamzah, mentioned on the

next page.

All was a Chaharpadi. Vide the list of grandees in the second book, No. 266.

Buntioned in the Manager-i Rabius (p. 753) as in the service of SAbda 'r-Rabius Khanan, Akbar's commander-in-chief.

antidote against the poison of ignorance. Bigoted followers of the letter of the law are hostile to the art of painting; but their eyes now see the truth. One day at a private party of friends, His Majesty, who had conferred on several the pleasure of drawing near him, remarked: "There are many that hate painting; but such men I dislike. It appears to me as if a painter had quite peculiar means of recognizing God; for a painter in aketching anything that has life, and in devising its limbs, one after the other, must come to feel that he cannot bestow individuality upon his work, and is thus forced to think of God, the giver of life, and will thus increase in knowledge."

The number of masterpieces of painting increased with the encouragement given to the art. Persian books, both prose and poetry, were ornamented with pictures, and a very large number of paintings was thus collected. The Story of Hamzah was represented in twelve volumes, and clever painters made the most astonishing illustrations for no less than one thousand and four hundred passages of the story. The Chingiznāma, the Zafarnāma, this book, the Razmnāma, the Ramayan, the Nal Daman, the Kalīlah Damnah, the Ayār Dānish, etc., were all illustrated. His Majesty himself sat for his likeness, and also ordered to have the likenesses taken of all the grandees of the realm. An immense album was thus formed: those that have passed away have received a new life, and those who are still alive have immortality promised them.

In the same manner, as painters are encouraged, employment is held

out to ornamental artists, gilders, line-drawers, and pagers.

Many Mansabdars, Ahadis, and other soldiers, hold appointments in this department. The pay of foot soldiers varies from 1,200 to 600 dams.

A în 35.

THE ARSENAL.

The order of the household, the efficiency of the army, and the welfare of the country, are intimately connected with the state of this department; hence His Majesty gives it every attention, and looks scrutinizingly into its working order. He introduces all sorts of new methods, and studies their applicability to practical purposes. Thus a plated armour was brought before His Majesty, and set up as a target; but no bullet was so

¹ A History of the House of Timer, by Sharafe 'd-Din of Yazd (died 1446).
Fide Morley's Catalogue of Historical MSS., p. 94.

powerful as to make an impression on it. A sufficient number of such armours has been made so as to supply whole armies. His Majesty also

boks into the prices of such as are sold in the bazars.

All weapons for the use of His Majesty have names, and a proper rank is assigned to them. Thus there are thirty swords (khāṣa swords), one of which is daily sent to His Majesty's sleeping apartments. The old one is returned, and handed over to the servants outside the harem, who keep it till its turn comes again. Forty other swords are kept in readiness; they are called kotal swords. When the number of khāṣa swords (in consequence of presents, etc.) has decreased to twelve, they supply new ones from the kotal swords. There are also twelve Yakbandī (?), the turn of every one of which recurs after one week. Of Jāmdhars and Khapwas, there are forty of each. Their turn recurs every week; and each has thirty kotals, from which deficiencies are supplied as before. Besides, eight knives, twenty spears and barchhas, are required monthly. Of eighty-six Mash, hadī bows, Bhadāyan bows, and twenty-four others, are returned monthly.* In the same manner a rank is assigned to each.

Whenever His Majesty rides out, or at the time of the Bār-i Am, or Levee, the sons of the Amīrs, and other Mansabdārs and Aḥadīs, carry the Our in their hands and on their shoulders, i.e. every four of them carry four quivers, four bows, four swords, four shields; and besides, they take up lances, spears, axes, pointed axes, piyāzī war-clubs, sticks, bullet bows, pestles, and a footstool, all properly arranged. Several qaṭār³ of camels and mules are loaded with weapons and kept in readiness; and on travels they use Bactrian camels, etc., for that purpose. At court receptions, the Amīrs and other people stand opposite the Qur, ready for any service; and on the march they follow behind it, with the exception of a few who are near His Majesty. Elephants in full trappings, camels, carriages, naqqāras, flags, the kawkabas, and other Imperial insignia, account my the Qur, while eager macebearers superintend the march, assisted by the Mīrbakhshīs. In hunting expeditions several swift runners are in attendance, and a few others are in charge of harnesses.

In order to shorten the trouble of making references, I shall enumerate the weapons now in use in form of a table, and give pictures of some of them.

¹ I doubt the correctness of the translation. The word yakbands is not in the dictionaries.

^{*} The text has an unintelligible sentence.

* Five camels are called gifar, in Hind. qufur. A string of some length is tied to the tail of the front camel and is drawn through the nose holes of the next behind it, and so on. Young camels are put on the backs of their mothers.

1.	Swords (slightly bent) .					1 R. to 15 Muhurs.
2.	Khāḍā (straight swords)					1 to 10 R.
3.	Guptī saçā (a sword in a wa	lking	stick)			2 to 20 R.
	Jamdhar (a broad dagger)					$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ M.
'5 .	<u>Kh</u> anjar					1 to 5 R.
6.	Khapwa	•				$\frac{1}{3}$ R. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ M.
7.	Jam <u>kh</u> āk	•	•			$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ M.
8.	Bak	•	•			$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M.
9.	Jhanbwa	•	•			$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M.
10.	Katāra					$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M.
11.	Narsink moth	•	•			$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 2 M.
12.	Kamān (bows)		•			$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 3 M.
13.	Ta <u>kh</u> sh kamān		•			1 to 4 R.
14.	Nāwak		•		•	$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M.
15.	Arrows, per bundle .				•	$\frac{1}{2}$ to 30 R .
16.	Quivers		•			$\frac{1}{4}$ R. to 2 M.
17.	Dadi			•	4	$\frac{1}{4}$ to $5 R$.
18.	Tīrbardār (arrow drawers)	١.				$\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ d.
19.	Paikānkash (do.).			•		1 to 3 R.
20.	Neza (a lance)					$1\frac{3}{4}$ R. to 6 M.
21.	Barchha					3 R. to 2 M.
22 .	Sāk					$\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ R .
23.	Sainthī					$\frac{1}{4}$ to 1 R .
24.	Selara					10 d. to 1 R.
25.	Gurz (a war club) .					$\frac{1}{4}$ to 5 R .
	Shashpar (do.)					$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 3 M.
	Kestan (?) 2					1 to 3 R.
	Tabur (a war axe) .	•				1 R. to 2 M.
	Piyāzī (a club) .		•			$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\tilde{3}$ R .
	Zāghnōl (a pointed axe)					$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M
	Chakar-basola		•			1 to 6 R.
	Takan adal wal		•			1 to 4 R.
	Tarangāla				_	1 to 2 R.
	Kārd (a knife)	•				2 d. to 1 M.
	Gupti kārd	•	•			3 R. to 1½ M.
	Qamchī kārd	•	•		•	1 to $3\frac{1}{2}R$.
		•	•	•	•	2 d. to \(\frac{1}{2}\) R.
o1.	Chāqū (a clasp knife) .		•	•		2 W. W I M.

¹ If this spelling be correct, it is the same as the next (No. 19); but it may be tir-i parder, an arrow with a feather at the bottom of the shaft, a barbed arrow.

² This name is doubtful. The MSS, give all sorts of spellings. I ide my text edition, p. 121, l. 1. The dictionaries give no information.

38. Kamān-i gurol	ha (bulle	et bow	7)	•			2 d. to 1 R.
39. Kamtha .		•		•			5 d. to 3 R.
40. Tufak-i dahān	1 (a tub	ю; <i>G</i> о	erm. B	lasero	hr)	•	10 d. to $\frac{1}{2}$ R.
41. Pushtkhār 2.			•		•	•	2 d. to 2 R.
42. Shaştāwez * .					•		2 d. to 1 R.
43. Girihkushā .		•		•			1 d. to $\frac{1}{4}$ R.
44. <u>Kh</u> är-i māhī	•	•			•		1 to 5 R.
45. Gobham (a slin	g) .	,			•		$1\frac{1}{2} d$. to $\frac{1}{4} R$.
46. Gajbāg .	•	•	•				1 to 5 R .
47. Sipar (a shield) .		•				1 to 50 R.
48. Dhāl	•	•	•		•		$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 4 M.
49. Khera .			•	•			1 R. to 4 M.
50. Pahrī.		•	•	•	•		1 R. to 1 M.
51. Udāna .			•		•		$\frac{1}{4}$ to 5 R .
52. Dubulaha .							1 R. to 31 M.
53. Khōghī .							1 to 4 R.
54. Zirih kulāh .							1 to 5 R.
55. Ghūghuwa .			•				1 R. to 2 M.
56. Jaibāh .				•			20 R. to 30 M.
57. Zirih			•	•			$1\frac{3}{4}$ R. to 100 M.
58. Bagtar .					4		4 R. to 12 M.
59. Jöshan .							4 R. to 9 M.
60. Chār ā*ina .							2 R. to 7 M.
61. Kothī			•				5 R. to 8 M.
62. Sādigī	,		•		•		3 R. to 8 M.
63. Angirkha .							$1\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 5 M.
64. Bhanjū .			•				3 R. to 2 M.
65. Chihrahzirih-i	āhanī			•			$1\frac{1}{4}R$. to $1M$.
66. Salhqabā .			•				5 R. to 8 M.
67 Chihilgad .			•				5 to 25 R.
68. Dastināna .			•				11 R. to 2 M.
69. Rāk			•		•		1 R. to 10 M.

^{[1} A blow-pipe —P.]

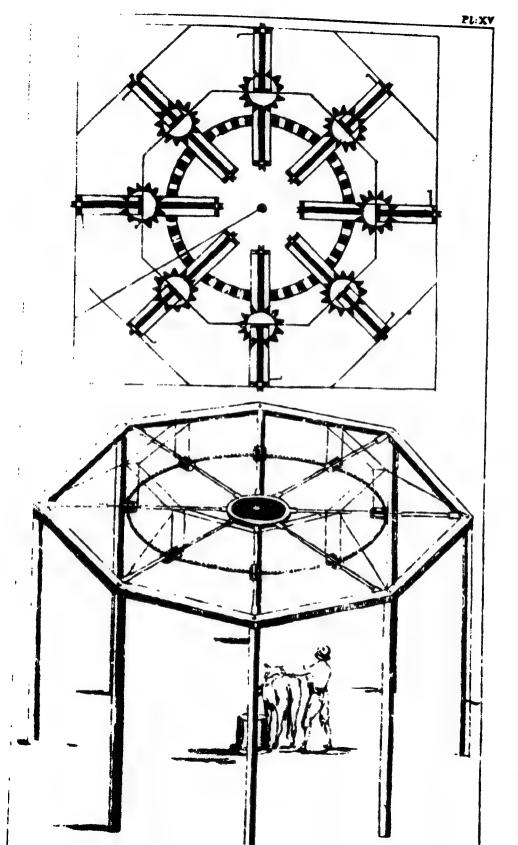
2 Vide Journal As. Society Bengal, for 1868, p. 61.

3 A weapon resembling the following. The word Shapthwez, or more correctly shapthwes.

4 Western Dictary, ii. p. 436b. means a thing by which you can hook anything. In Vullers' Persian Dioty., ii, p. 436h, read biz for panir (!).

⁴ This word is used in a general sense, an armour. It is either Turbish, or a corruption of the Arab. jubbah. The form jaibā is occasionally met with; but jebah, as given by Vullers, i. p. 508a, is wrong, and against the metre of his quotation.

^{[*} Baktar ?--P.]
According to some MSS. rag.



70.	Kantha sobh	ā 1	•	•	•			1 to 10 R.
71.	Moza-yi āhe	ะก ₹						1 to 10 R.
72.	Kajem	•			•			50 to 300 R.
73.	Artak (the	quilt)	-i ka	jēm		•		4 R. to 7 M.
74.	Qashqa	•						1 R. to 21 M.
75.	Gardanī *							1 R. to 1 M.
76.	Matchlocks		•					$\frac{1}{2}$ R. to 1 M.
	Bān (rocket			•				2½ to 4 R.

Ā*in 36.

ON GUNS.

Guns are wonderful locks for protecting the august edifice of the state; and befitting keys for the door of conquest. With the exception of Turkey, there is perhaps no country which in its guns has more means of securing the government than this. There are nowadays guns made of such a size that the ball weighs 12 mans; several elephants and a thousand cattle are required to transport one. His Majesty looks upon the care bestowed on the efficiency of this branch as one of the higher objects of a king, and therefore devotes to it much of his time. Dāroghas and clever clerks are appointed to keep the whole in proper working order.

His Majesty has made several inventions which have astonished the whole world. He made a gun which, on marches, can easily be taken to pieces, and properly put together again when required. By another invention, His Majesty joins seventeen guns in such a manner as to be able to fire them simultaneously with one match. Again, he made another kind of gun, which can easily be carried by a single elephant; such guns have the name Gajnāls. Guns which a single martinay carry are called Namāls.

The imperial guns are carefully distributed over the whole kingdom, and each Süba has that kind which is fit for it. For the siege of fortresses and for naval engagements, His Majesty has separate guns made, which accompany his victorious armies on their marches. It is impossible to count every gun; besides clever workmen make continually new ones, especially Guināls and Narnāls.

Amirs and Ahadis are on staff employ in this branch. The pay of the

foot varies from 100 to 400 d.

so as to protect the chest of the animal,

¹ The figure represents a long spear; but the etymology, as also its position in the list of weapons, shows that it must be a part of the armour, a neck-piers.

A round shield like plate of iron attached to the neck of the horse and hanging down

Ā²īn 37.

ON MATCHLOCKS, ETC.

These are in particular favour with His Majesty, who stands unrivalled in their manufacture, and as a marksman. Matchlocks are now made so strong that they do not burst, though let off when filled to the top. Formerly they could not fill them to more than a quarter. Besides, they made them with the hammer and the anvil by flattening pieces of iron, and joining the flattened edges of both sides. Some left them, from foresight, on one edge open; but numerous accidents were the result, especially in the former kind. His Majesty, has invented an excellent method of construction. They flatten iron, and twist it round obliquely in form of a roll, so that the folds get longer at every twist; they then join the folds, not edge to edge, but so as to allow them to lie one over the other, and heat them gradually in the fire. They also take cylindrical pieces of iron, and pierce them when hot with an iron pin. Three or four of such pieces make one gun; or, in the case of smaller ones, two. Guns are often made of a length of two yards; those of a smaller kind are one and a quarter yards long, and go by the name of Damanak. The gunstocks are differently made. From the practical knowledge of His Majesty, guns are now made in such a manner that they can be fired off, without a match, by a slight movement of the cock. Bullets are also made so as to cut like a sword. Through the assistance of the inventive genius of His Majesty there are now many masters to be found among gunmakers, e.g., Ustad Kabir and Husayn.

Iron, when heated, loses about one-half of its volume.

When a barrel is completed lengthways, before the transverse bottompiece is fixed to it, they engrave on it the quantity of its iron and the length, both being expressed in numerals. A barrel thus far finished, is called Daul In this imperfect state they are sent to His Majesty, and delivered, in proper order, at the harem, to which place they are also brought for . . . At the same time, the weight of the ball is fixed, and the order is given for the transverse section of the matchlock. For long guns the weight of a ball does not exceed twenty-five tānks, and for smaller ones fifteen. But balls of the former weight no one but His Majesty would dare to fire. When the barrels are polished, they are again

¹ The text has an unintelligible word; the variantes lectiones are marked on p. 125 of my text edition. Note (13). The Banāras MS. has ترتابي. The word appears to be a foreign term.

Akbar was remarkable for bodily strength. Vide Tusuk i Jahangiri, p. 16.

sent to the harem, and preserved in proper order. They are afterwards taken out, and closed, by the order of His Majesty, with a transverse bottom-piece. Having been put to an old stock, they are filled to onethird of the barrel with powder, and fired off. If no tarawish 1 takes place. and the trial is satisfactory, they take the barrels again to His Majesty, who gives the order to finish the mouthpiece of the barrel. After this the gun is again placed on the stock, and subjected to a trial. If the ball issues in a crooked line, the barrel is heated, and straightened by means of a rod introduced into it, and, in the presence of His Majesty, handed over to a filer. He adorns the outside of the barrel in various ways, according to orders, when it is taken to the harem. The wood and the shape of the stock are then determined on. Several things are marked on every matchlock, viz., the weight of the raw and the manufactured iron, the former marks being now removed; the place where the iron is taken from; the workman; the place where the gun is made; the date; its number. Sometimes without reference to a proper order, one of the unfinished barrels is selected and completed at His Majestv's command. It is then entered in another place; the transverse bottom-piece is fixed; and the order is given to make the cock, the ramrod, the pargaz,2 etc. As soon as all these things have been completed, a new trial is ordered; and when it succeeds, they send in the gun, and deliver it a third time at the harem. In this state the gun is called sada (plain). Five bullets are sent along with it. His Majesty, after trying it in the manner above described, returns it with the fifth bullet. The order for the colour of the barrel and the stock is now given; one of the nine kinds of colour is selected for the stock. Guns also differ in the quality of inland gold and enamel; the colour of the barrel is uniform. A gun thus far completed is called rangin (coloured). It is now, as before, handed over together with five bullets: His Majesty makes four trials, and returns t with the last ball. When ten of such guns are ready, His Majesty orders to inlay the mouth of the barrel and the butt end with gold. They are then again sent for trial into the harem, and whenever ten are quite complete they are handed over to the slaves.

day.

I Tardwish means a trickling, the particular meaning which it here has, is not clear and not given in the Dictionaries. * Pargas, or Purgas, may mean the groove into which the ramrod is put, or the ramrod itself. The word is not in the dicts.. and appears to be unknown at the present

Ā*in 38.

THE MANNER OF CLEANING GUNS.

Formerly a strong man had to work a long time with iron instruments in order to clean matchlocks. His Majesty, from his practical knowledge, has invented a wheel, by the motion of which sixteen barrels may be cleaned in a very short time. The wheel is turned by a cow. Plate XV will best show what sort of a machine it is.

A*in 39.

THE RANKS OF THE GUNS.

The Imperial arsenal contains manufactured, purchased, and presented, guns. Each of them is either long, or short; and these are again subdivided into sada (plain), rangin (coloured), and koftkar (hammered) guns. His Majesty has selected out of several thousand guns, one hundred and five as khāşa, i.e. for his special use. First, twelve in honour of the twelve months: each of them is brought back in its turn after eleven months. Secondly, thirty for every week; after every seven days one goes out, and another is brought. Thirdly, thirty-two for the solar days; one for every day. Fourthly, thirty-one kotals. Sometimes there are only twenty-eight. Whenever some of the former guns have been given away, kotals are brought, to supply their places. The order of precedence is as follows: the guns for the month; the week; days; kotals; plain; coloured; koftkar, not handed over to the slaves; koftkar, handed over to the slaves; long ones, selected from peshkash presents, or from such as were bought; damanaks, selected from peshkash, or from bought ones; such as have been chosen from selections of both. The one hundred and five khase guns are divided into seven parts; every fifteen form a kishk, or guard. and are always kept ready by the slaves. On Sundays two are taken from the first; four from the second; five from the third; four from the fourth This order is also followed on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Wednesdays. On Thursdays, two are again taken from the first, and four from the second; four from the third; five from the fourth. On Fridays, one is taken from the first; five from the second; four from the third; five from the fourth. So also for Saturdays. In order to supply the places of such khāsa guns as have been given away, five other classes have been determined on: half kotals, fourteen; quarter kotals, seven; one-eighth kotals, four; one-sixteenth kotals, two; one-thirtysecond kotals, one. When kotal guns are given away, they bring half kotals; similarly, the place of a gun.

when given away, is taken by the next; and the place of the last is supplied by one selected from such as have been bought.

One hundred and one guns are continually kept in the harem. Their order is as follows. On the first day of every solar month eleven guns are handed over to the servants of the harem, one of each of the guns for the months, the weeks, the days, the kotals, the plain ones, the coloured ones, the koftkār not in charge of the slaves, the koftār in their charge, the selected long ones, the selected Damānaks, the chosen ones of the selected ones. On the second day only the guns of the months (i.e. ten) are handed over in the same order. For ten days an equal number is sent to the harem.

His Majesty practises often. When he has tried each gun, he commences from the beginning; and when each gun has been used four times it is sent away and replaced by a new one of each kind. If guns have been left unused at the beginning of a new month, they are placed last, and the guns for the current month are put first.

An order has also been given to the writers to write down the game killed by His Majesty with the particulars of the guns used. Thus it was found that with the gun which has the name of Sangrām one thousand and nineteen animals have been killed. This gun is the first of His Majesty's private guns, and is used during the Farcardin month of the present era.

.f*īn 40.

ON THE PAY OF THE MATCHLOCK BEARERS.

The pay of a Mirdaha is of four grades, 300 dams, 280 d., 270 d., 260 d. The pay of the others is of five grades. Each grade is again subdivided into three classes. First grade, 250 d., 240 d., 230 d. Second grade, 220 d., 210 d., 200 d. Third grade 190 d., 180 d., 170 d. Fourth grade, 160 d., 150 d., 140 d. Fifth grade, 130 d., 120 d., 110 d.

J'in 41.

THE IMPERIAL ELEPHANT STABLES.

This wonderful animal is in bulk and strength like a mountain; and in courage and ferocity like a lion. It adds materially to the ponip of a king

A man placed over ten. The rank of the Mirdaha appears to have been the only mon-commissioned rank in the Megul armies. The lowest commissioned rank was that of a Dahbhahl, which word, though of the same eigenlogical meaning, differs in usage, and signifies a man in compand of ten. The rank of a Dahbhahl was the lowest Mangahar rank (wide the second book). Mirdaha is also used if the sense of a servent who hade after ten horses.

and to the success of a conqueror; and is of the greatest use for the army. Experienced men of Hindustan put the value of a good elephant equal to five hundred horses; and they believe that, when guided by a few bold men armed with matchlocks, such an elephant alone is worth double that number. In vehemence on one side, and submissiveness to the reins on the other, the elephant is like an Arab, whilst in point of obedience and attentiveness to even the slightest signs, it resembles an intelligent human being. In restiveness when full-blooded, and in vindictiveness, it surpasses man. An elephant never hurts the female, though she be the cause of his captivity: he never will fight with young elephants; nor does he think it proper to punish them. From a sense of gratitude, he does his keepers no harm, nor will he throw dust over his body when he is mounted, though he often does so at other times. Once an elephant, during the rutting-season was fighting with another. When he was in the height of excitement a small elephant came in his way; he kindly lifted up the small one with his trunk, set him aside, and then renewed the combat. If a male elephant breaks loose during the rutting season in order to have his own way, few people have the courage to approach him; and some bold and experienced man will have to get on a female elephant, and try to get near him and tie a rope round his foot. Female-elephants, when mourning the loss of a young one, will often abstain from food and drink; they sometimes even die from grief.

The elephant can be taught various feats. He learns to remember such melodies as can only be remembered by people acquainted with music; he will move his limbs to keep time, and exhibit his skill in various ways. He will shoot off an arrow from a bow, discharge a matchlock, and will learn to pick up things that have been dropped and hand them over to the keeper. Sometimes they get grain to eat wrapped up in hay; this they hide in the side of their mouth, and give it back to the keeper, when they are alone with him.

The teats of a female elephant, and the womb, resemble those of a woman. The tongue is round like that of a parrot. The testicles are not visible. Elephants frequently with their trunks take water out of their stomachs, and sprinkle themselves with it. Such water has no offensive smell. They also take out of their stomach grass on the second day, without its having undergone any change.

The price of an elephant varies from a lak 1 to one hundred rupees;

During the reigns of Akbar's successor, the price of a well-trained war elephant rosemuch higher. Vide Tuxuk-i Jahängiri, p. 198. At the time of Shāhjahān, the first white elephant was brought from Pégū, Pādiehāhnāma, i, p. 267.

elephants worth five thousand, and ten thousand rupees, are pretty common.

There are four kinds of elephants. 1. Bhaddar. It is well proportioned, has an erect head, a broad chest, large ears, a long tail, and is bold, and can bear fatigue. They take out of his forehead an excrescence resembling a large pearl, which they call in Hindī Gaj manik. 1 Many properties are ascribed to it. 2. Mand. It is black, has yellow eyes, a uniformly sized belly, a long penis, and is wild and ungovernable. 3. Mirg. It has a whitish skin with black spots; the colour of its eyes is a mixture of red, yellow, black, and white. 4. Mir. It has a small head, and obeys readily. It gets frightened when it thunders.

From a mixture of these four kinds are formed others of different names and properties. The colour of the skin of elephants is threefold; white, black, grey. Again, according to the threefold division of the dispositions assigned by the Hindus to the mind, namely, sat benevolence, raj love of sensual enjoyment, and tam irascibility, which shall be further explained below, elephants are divided into three classes. First, such in which sat predominates. They are well proportioned, good looking, eat moderately, are very submissive, do not care for intercourse with the female, and live to a very old age. Secondly, such in whose disposition raj prevails. They are savage-looking, and proud, bold, ungovernable, and voracious. Lastly, such as are full of tam. They are self-willed, destructive, and given to sleep and voraciousness.

The time of gestation of the female is generally eighteen slunar months. For three months the fluida germinalia intermix in the womb of the female; when agitated the mass looks like quicksilver. Towards the fifth month the fluida settle and get gelatinous. In the seventh month, they get more solid, and draw to perfection towards the ninth month. In the eleventh, the outline of a body is visible; and in the twelfth, the veins, bones, hoofs, and hairs, make their appearance. In the thirteenth month the genitalia become distinguishable, and in the fifteenth, the

¹ This excressionce is also called Gajmoti, or elephants' pearl. For bes has also Gajmania, and the Dalil-i Sati, and the fourth book of this work.

[&]quot;The time is differently given. The emperor Jahängir says in his Memoirs (p. 130):—
"During this mouth a female elephant in my stables gave birth before my own eyes. I had often expressed the wish to have the time of gestation of the female elephant correctly determined. It is now cortain that a female birth takes place after sixteen, and a male birth after nineteen, mouths [the emperor means evidently solar mouths]; and the process is different from what it is with man, the feetus being born with the feet foremost. After giving birth, the female at once covers the young one with earth and dust, and continually caresess it, whilst the young one sinks down every moment trying to reach the tests of the mother." Vide Lt. Johnstone's remarks on the same subject, in the Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bangal for May, 1868.

process of quickening commences. If the female, during gestation, gets stronger, the fœtus is sure to be a male; but if she gets weak it is the sign of a female. During the sixteenth month the formation becomes still more perfect, and the life of the fœtus becomes quite distinct. In the seventeenth month there is every chance of a premature birth on account of the efforts made by the fœtus to move, till, in the eighteenth month, the young one is born.

According to others the sperm gets solid in the first month; the eyes, ears, the nose, mouth, and tongue are formed in the second; in the third month, the limbs made their appearance; in the fourth month, the fœtus grows and gets strong; in the fifth, it commences to quicken; in the sixth, it gets sense, which appears more marked during the seventh month; in the eighth, there is some chance of a miscarriage; during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh months the fœtus grows, and is born during the twelfth. It will be a male young one if the greater part of the sperm came from the male; and it will be a female young one if the reverse is the case. If the sperm of both the male and female is equal in quantity the young one will be a hermaphrodite. The male fœtus lies towards the right side; the female towards the left; a hermaphrodite in the middle.

Female elephants have often for twelve days a red discharge, after which gestation commences. During that period they look startled, sprinkle themselves with water and earth, keep ears and tail upwards, and go rarely away from the male. They will rub themselves against the male, bend their heads below his tusks, smell at his urine and dung, and cannot bear to see another female near him. Sometimes, however, a female shows aversion to intercourse with the male; and must be forced to copulate, when other female elephants, at hearing her noise, will come to her rescue.

In former times, people did not breed elephants, and thought it unlucky; by the command of His Majesty, they now breed a very superior class of elephants, which has removed the old prejudice in the minds of men. A female elephant has generally one young one, but sometimes two. For five years the young ones content themselves with the milk of the mother; after that period they commence to eat herbs. In this state they are called bāl. When ten years old they are named pūt; when twenty years old, bikba; when thirty years old, kalba. In fact the animal changes appearance every year, and then gets a new name. When sixty years old, the elephant is full grown. The skull then looks like two

¹ The words of the text are ambiguous. They may also mean: In the seventeenth month the effort of the fortus to move causes the female to sink down,

halves of a ball, whilst the ears look like winnowing fans. 1 White eyes mixed with yellow, black, and red, are looked upon as a sign of excellence. The forehead must be flat without swellings or wrinkles. The trunk is the nose of the animal, and is so long as to touch the ground. With it, it takes up the food and puts it into the mouth; similarly, it sucks up water with it, and then throws it into the stomach. It has eighteen teeth; sixteen of them are inside the mouth, eight above and eight below, and two are the tusks outside. The latter are one and more yards long, round, shining, very strong, white, or sometimes reddish and straight, the end alightly bent upwards. Some elephants have four tusks. With a view to usefulness as also to ornament, they cut off the top of the tusks, which grow again. With some elephants they have to cut the tusks annually; with others after two or three years; but they do not like to cut them when an elephant is ten and eighty years old. An elephant is perfect when it is eight dast high, nine dast long, and ten dast round the belly, and along the back. Again, nine limbs, ought to touch the ground, namely, the fore feet; the hind feet, the trunk, the tusks, the penis, the tail. White spots on the forehead are considered lucky, whilst a thick neck is looked upon as a sign of beauty. Long hairs on and about the ears point to good origin.

Some elephants rut in winter, some in summer, some in the rains. They are then very fierce, they pull down houses, throw down stone walls, and will lift up with their trunks a horse and its rider. But elephants

differ very much in the amount of fierceness and boldness.

When they are hot, a blackish discharge exudes from the soft parts between the ears and the temples, which has a most offensive smell; it is sometimes whitish, mixed with red. They say that elephants have twelve holes in those soft parts, which likewise discharge the offensive fluid. The discharge is abundant in lively animals, but trickles drop by drop in slow ones. As soon as the discharge stops, the elephant gets fierce and looks grand; in this state he gets the name of Tafti or Sarkari. When the above discharge exudes from a place a little higher than the soft parts between the ears and the temples, the elephant is called Singāḍhāl; and when the fluid trickles from all three places, Tal-jor. When in heat, elephants get attached to particular living creatures, as men or horses; but some elephants to any animal. So at least according to Hindu books.

¹ Ghalls afalds. This word, though common, is not in our dictionaries. It is a flat piece of wicher work, from one to two feet square. Three sides of the square are slightly beat apwards. They put grain on it, and saising the instrument with both hands, they throw up the grain, till the husks, stones, and all other refuse collect near the side which is not bent upwards, when the refuse is removed with the hand. We use sieves for such purposes.

The Bhaddar ruts in Libra and Scorpio; the Mand in spring; the Mirg in Capricorn and Sagittarius; the Mir in any season. Elephant drivers have a drug which causes an artificial heat; but it often endangers the life of the beast. The noise of battle makes some superior elephants just as fierce as at the rutting season; even a sudden start may have such an effect. Thus His Majesty's elephant Gajmukta: he gets brisk as soon as he hears the sound of the Imperial drum, and gets the above-mentioned discharge. This peculiar heat generally makes its first appearance when elephants have reached the age of thirty; sometimes, however, earlier, at an age of twenty-five. Sometimes the heat lasts for years, and some of the Imperial elephants have continued for five years in an uninterrupted alacrity. But it is mostly male elephants that get in heat. They then sommence to throw up earth, and run after a female, or roll about in mud, and daub themselves all over with dirt. When in heat they are very irritable, and yawn a great deal, though they sleep but little. At last they even discontinue eating, and dislike the foot-chain: they try to get loose, and behave noisily.

The elephant, like man, lives to an age of one hundred and twenty years.

The Hindi language has several words for an elephant, as hasti, gaj, pil, hāthi, etc. Under the hands of an experienced keeper it will much improve, so that its value in a short time may rise from one hundred to ten thousand rupees.

The Hindus believe that the eight points of the earth are each guarded by a heavenly being in the shape of an elephant; they have curious legends regarding them. Their names are as follows: 1. Airāwata, in the East; 2. Pundarika, south-east; 3. Bāman, south; 4. Kumada, south-west; 5. Anjan, west; 6. Puhpadanta, north-west; 7. Sārbhabhūma, north; 8. Supratīka, north-east. When occasions arise, people read incantations in their names, and address them in worship. They also think that every elephant in the world is the offspring of one of them. Thus, elephants of a white skin and white hairs are related to the first; elephants with a large head and long hairs, of a fierce and bold temper, and eyelids apart, belong to the second; such as are . . . ¹ good-looking, black, and high in the back, are the offspring of the third; if tall, ungovernable, quick in understanding, short-haired, and with red and black eyes, they come from the fourth; if bright black, with one tusk longer than the other, with a white breast and belly, and long and thick fore-feet, from the

¹ The MSS, have an unintelligible word. Perhaps thushpanj, graceful, is the correct reading.

fifth; if fearful, with prominent veins, with a short hump and ears and a long trunk, from the sixth; if thin-bellied, red-eyed, and with a long trunk, from the seventh; and if of a combination of the preceding seven qualities, from the eighth.

The Hindus also make the following division into eight classes: 1. Elephants whose skin is not wrinkled, who are never sick, who are grand looking, do not run away from the battle-field, dislike meat, and prefer clean food at proper times, are said to be Dew mizāj (of a divine temper). 2. Such as possess all the good qualities of elephants, and are quick in learning, moving about the head, ears, trunk, forelegs, hind legs, and the tail, and do no one harm except they be ordered to do so, are Gandharba misēj (angelic). 3. If irritable, of good appetite, fond of being in water, they are Brahaman mizāj (of a brahminical temper). 4. Such as are very strong, in good condition, fond of fighting, ungovernable, are said to have the temper of a Khattri, or warrior. 5. Those which are of a low stature, and forgetful, self-willed in their own work, and neglectful in that of their master, fond of unclean food, and spiteful towards other elephants, are Sudra mizăj. 6. Elephants which remain hot for a long time, and are fond of playing tricks, or are destructive, and lose the way, have the temper of a serpent. 7. Such as squint, and are slow to learn, or feign to be hot, have the temper of a Pishācha (spectre). 8. Those which are violent, swift, and do men harm, and are fond of running about at night, have the qualities of a Rāckhas (demon).

The Hindus have written many books in explanation of these various tempers, as also many treatises on the diseases of the elephants, their causes and proper remedies.

Elephants are found in the Subah of Agra, in the forests of Bayawan and Narwar, as far as Barar; in the Saba of Ilahabad (Allahabad), in the confines of Pannah, (Bhath) Ghora, and Ratanpur, Nandanpur, Sirguja, and Bastar; in the Süba of Mālwa, in Handiyah, Uchhod, Chanderi, Santwas, Bijagarh, Raisin, Hoshangabad, Garha, Haryagarh; in the Suba of Bihar, in the neighbourhood of Rahtas

Abd 'I-Fest.

¹ Narwar, where Abū 'l-Faşl was subsequently murdered at the instigation of Prince Saltm (Jahängir), Long. 77°58', Lat. 25°39'; Ghordghāt, near Dinagepore, Long. 89° 17', Lat. 25° 12'; Rataupūr (Abū 'l-Faşl evidently means the one south-east of Sargachh). Long. 83°, Lat. 22° 14'; Sargachh, Long. 83° 3', Lat. 23° 8'; Buster, Long. 81° 58'. Lat. 19° 12'. The towns from Handiya to Haryāgadh lie all between Long. 75° and 79°, and Lat. 21° and 24° (Gwāliār). For Uchhod. (App. 1) the third book has Unchhod (App. 1). The Fert of Rahtās, the scene of Sher Shāh's first exploit, lies Long. 84°, Lat. 24° 38'. The name Pottah (a.) is doubtful, each MS. having a different reading.

Wild elephants have nowadays disappeared in nearly all the places mentioned by Abū 'l-Fasl.

and Jharkhand; and in the Suba of Bengal, in Orisa, and Satgaw.

The elephants from Pannah are the best.

A herd of elephants is called in Hindi sahn. They vary in number; sometimes a herd amounts to a thousand elephants. Wild elephants are very cautious. In winter and summer, they select a proper place, and break down a whole forest near their sleeping place. For the sake of pleasure, or for food and drink, they often travel over great distances. On the journey one runs far in front of the others, like a sentinel; a young female is generally selected for this purpose. When they go to sleep they send out to the four sides of the sleeping place pickets of four female elephants, which relieve each other.

Elephants will lift up their young ones, for three or four days after their birth, with their trunks, and put them on their backs, or lay them over their tusks. They also prepare medicines for the females when they are sick or in labour pains and crowd round about them. When some of them get caught, the female elephants break through the nets, and pull down the elephant-drivers. And when a young elephant falls into a snare they hide themselves in an ambush, go at night to the place where the young one is, set it at liberty, and trample the hunters to death. Sometimes its mother slowly approaches alone, and frees it in some clever way. I have heard the following story from His Majesty: "Once a wild young one had fallen into a pit. As night had approached, we did not care to pull it out immediately, and left it; but when we came next morning near the place, we saw that some wild elephants had filled the pit with broken logs and grass, and thus pulled out the young one." Again, "Once a female elephant played us a trick. She feigned to be dead. We passed her, and went onwards; but when at night we returned, we saw no trace left of her."

There was once an elephant in the Imperial stables named Ayaz. For some reason it had got offended with the driver, and was for ever watching for an opportunity. Once at night, it found him asleep. It got hold of a long piece of wood, managed to pull off with it the man's turban, seized him by the hair, and tore him asunder.

Many examples are on record of the extraordinary cleverness of

elephants; in some cases it is difficult to believe them.

Kings have always shown a great predilection for this animal, and done everything in their power to collect a large number. Elephant-keepers are much esteemed, and a proper rank is assigned to such as have a special knowledge of the animal. Wicked, low men see in an elephant a means of lawlessness; and unprincipled evildoers, with the help of this animal,

carry on their nefarious trade. Hence kings of former times never succeeded in suppressing the rebellious, and were thus disappointed in their best intentions. But His Majesty, though overwhelmed with other important matters, has been able, through God's assistance and his numerous elephants, to check those low but haughty men; he teaches them to desire submission, and bestows upon them, by wise laws, the blessings of peace.

His Majesty divided the Imperial elephants into sections, which he put in charge of honest Dāroghas. Certain elephants were also declared hades, i.e., appointed for the exclusive use of His Majesty.

Ā²īn 42.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE IMPERIAL ELEPHANTS.

His Majesty made a sevenfold division, based upon experience:

1. Mast (full blood); 2. Shergir (tiger-seizing); 3. Sāda (plain);

4. Manjhola (middlemost); 5. Karha; 6. Phandurkiya; 7. Mokal.

The first class comprises young elephants, possessed of the peculiar heat which renders the animal so strong. The second class contains likewise young ones which once or twice have given signs of perfection and exhibit an uninterrupted alacrity. The third class comprehends useful elephants, which are nearly as good as the preceding. The fourth class contains elephants of a somewhat inferior value. Those of the fifth class are younger than those of the fourth. The elephants of the sixth class are smaller than those of the fifth. The last class contains all young ones still unfit for use.

Each class is divided into three subdivisions, viz., large sized, middle, young ones; the last class contains ten kinds. A certain quantity of food has been fixed for each class.

A*in 43.

THE FOOD ALLOWED TO THE ELEPHANTS.

Formerly the classification of the elephants was never attended to; hence in feeding them a large quantity of the stores was wasted. But when His Majesty, soon after lifting the veil, commenced to care for the

 $^{^{1}}$ The same phrase as on μ_{i} 13, line 12. It refers to the year 1500, when Bayrim fell in diagrace, and Akbar assumed the reins of the government.

happiness of his subjects, this matter was properly inquired into, and wise regulations were issued for guidance. 1. Mast elephants. Large ones get daily 2 mans 24 sers; middle-sized, 2 m. 19 s.; small ones, 2 m. 14 s. 2. Shergirs. Large ones, 2 m. 9 s.; middle-sized ones, 2 m. 4 s.; small ones, 1 m. 39 s. 3. Sādas. Large ones, 1 m. 34 s.; middle-sized ones, 1 m. 29 s.; small ones, 1 m. 24 s. 4. Manjholas. Large ones, 1 m. 22 s.; middle-sized ones, 1 m. 18 s. 5. Karhas. Large ones, 1 m. 14 s.; middle-sized ones, 1 m. 9 s.; small ones, 1 m. 4 s. 6. Phandurkiyas. Large ones, 1 m.; middle-sized ones, 36 s.; small ones, 32 s. 7. Mokals. Large ones, 26 s.; middle-sized ones, 24 s.; third class, 22 s.; fourth class, 20 s.; fifth class, 18 s.; sixth class, 16 s.; seventh class, 14 s.; eighth class, 12 s.; ninth class, 10 s.; tenth class, 8 s.

Female elephants have been divided into four classes, viz., large ones, middle-sized ones, small ones, mobals. The first two classes are divided into three; the third, into four; the fourth, into nine subdivisions.

1. Large ones: Big, 1 m. 22 s.; middling, 1 m. 18 s.; small ones, 1 m. 14s.

2. Middle-sized ones. Big, 1 m. 10 s.; middling, 1 m. 6 s.; small, 1 m. 2 s.

3. Small ones. Big, 37 s.; middling, 32 s.; small, 27 s.; still smaller, 22 s. 4. Mobals. First class, 22 s.; second, 20 s.; third, 18 s.; fourth, 16 s.; fifth, 14 s.; sixth, 12 s.; seventh, 10 s.; eighth, 8 s.; ninth, 6 s.

Ā*īn 44.

THE SERVANTS OF THE ELEPHANT STABLES.

- 1. Mast elephants. There are five and a half 1 servants for each, viz., a Mahāwat, who sits on the neck of the animal and directs its movements. He must be acquainted with its good and bad properties, and thus contribute to its usefulness. He gets 200 dāms per month; but if the elephant be khutahar, i.e., wicked and addicted to pulling down the driver, he gets 220 d. Secondly, a Bhoī, who sits behind, upon the rump of the elephant, and assists in battle and in quickening the speed of the animal; but he often performs the duties of the Mahāwat. His monthly pay is 110 d. Thirdly, the Meths, of whom there are three and one-half, or only three in case of small elephants. A meth fetches fodder, and assists in capacisoning the elephant. Meths of all classes get on the march four dāms daily, and at other times three and a half.
- 2. For every Shergir, there are five servants, viz., a Mahāwat, at 180 d.; a Bhoi, at 108 d.; and three Meths as before.

¹ i.e., either eleven servants for two elephants, or the last was a boy.

- 3. For every Sāda, there are four and a half servants, viz., a Mahāwat, at 160 d., a Bhoī at 90 d.; and two and a half Meths.
- 4. For every Manjhola, there are four servants; viz., a Mahāwat, at 140 d.; a Bhoī, at 80 d; and two Meths.
- 5. For every Karha, there are three and a half servants; viz., a 'Mahāwat at 120 d.; a Bhoī, at 70 d.; and one and a half Meths.
- 6. For every *Phandurkiya*, there are two servants; viz., a *Mahdwat*, at 100 d; and a *Meth*.
- 7. For every Mokal, there are likewise two servants; viz., a Mahāwat, at 50 d.; and a Meth.

Female Elephants. 1. Large ones have four servants, viz., a Mahāwat, at 100 d.; a Bhoī, at 60 d.; two Meths. 2. Middle-sized ones have three and a half servants; viz., a Mahāwat, at 80 d.; a Bhoī, at 50 d.; and one and a half Meths. 3. Small ones have two; viz., a Mahāwat, at 60 d.; and a Meth. 4. Mokals have likewise two; viz., a Mahāwat, at 60 d., and a Meth.

The Fawjdar.

His Majesty has appointed a superintendent over every troop of ten, twenty, and thirty elephants. Such a troop is called a halps; the superintendent is called Fawjdar. His business is to look after the condition and the training of the elephants; he teaches them to be bold, and to stand firm at the sight of fire and at the noise of artillery; and he is responsible for their behaviour in these respects. When a Faujdar is raised to the dignity of a Sadi (a commander of one hundred) or higher, he has twenty-five elephants assigned to himself, the other Favejdars, as Bistis (commanders of twenty) and Dubbashis (commanders of ten) being under his orders. The same order is followed from the Dahbashis up to the Hazērie (commanders of one thousand). The pay of officers above the Sedi is different. Some Fawjdars have been raised to the dignity of grandees of the court. A Sadi marks two horses. A Bisti of the first grade has 30 rupees per mensem; second grade, 25 R., third grade, 20 R. A Dubbashi of the first grade has twenty R.; second grade, 16 R.; third grade, 12 R. Bistis and Dahbāshis mark one horse, and belong to the Abodis. Such Foujdars as have thirty or twenty-five elephants assigned to themselves have to pay the wages of the Mahawat and of one Bhoi of that elephant, which they select for their own use; but such as have twenty or ten only pay for a Mahawat.

The above arrangement regarding the servants was not thought sufficient by His Majesty, who has much experience in this matter. He therefore put several holess in charge of every grandes, and required him

to look after them. The fodder also is now supplied by the government. A trustworthy clerk has, besides, been appointed, who is in charge of the correspondence of this branch; he looks after the receipts and expenditure and sees that the orders of His Majesty are carried out. He also parades the elephants in the order described below (A^* is 78).

A*in 45.

THE HARNESS OF ELEPHANTS.

1. The *Dharna* is a large chain, made of iron, gold, or silver. It is made of sixty oval links, each weighing three sers; but the chain differs in length and thickness according to the strength of the elephant. One end of the chain is fixed in the ground, or fastened to a pillar; the other end is tied to the left hind leg of the elephant. Formerly, they fastened this chain to the forefoot; but as this is injurious for the chest of the elephant His Majesty ordered to discontinue the usage.

2. The Andu is a chain, with which both forefeet are tied. As it

annoys the elephant, His Majesty ordered it to be discontinued.

3. The Beri is a chain for fastening both hind feet.

4. The *Baland* is a fetter for the hind feet, an invention of His Majesty. It allows the elephant to walk, but prevents him from running.

5. The Gaddh beri resembles the Andu, and is an additional chain for

the hindlegs of unruly and swift elephants.

- 6. The Lok langar is a long chain, suitable for an elephant. One end is tied to the right fore foot, and the other end to a thick log, a yard in length. This the driver keeps near him, and drops it, when the elephant runs too swiftly, or gets so unruly as no longer to obey. The chain twists round his leg, and the log will annoy the animal to such extent that it necessarily stops. This useful invention, which has saved many lives, and protected huts and walls, is likewise due to His Majesty.
- 7. The Charkh is a piece of hollowed bamboo half a yard and two tassujes long, and has a hole in the middle. It is covered with sinews and filled with gunpowder, an earthen partition dividing the powder into two halves. A frace wrapt in paper is put into each end. Fixed into the hole of the bamboo at right angles is a stick, which serves as a handle. Upon fire being put to both ends, it turns round and makes a frightful noise. When elephants fight with each other, or are otherwise unruly, a bold man on foot takes the burning bamboo into his hand, and holds it before the animals, when they will get quiet. Formerly, in order to separate two elephants that were fighting, they used to light a fire; but people had

much trouble, as it seldom had the desired effect. His Majesty invented the present method, which was hailed by all.

- 8. Andhiyārī, i.e., darkness, a name which His Majesty changed into Ujyālī, i.e., light, is a piece of canvas above one and a half yards square. It is made of brocade, velvet, etc., and tied with two ends to the Kilāna (vide next). When the elephant is unruly, it is let fall, so that he cannot see. This has been the saving of many. As it often gives way, especially when the elephant is very wild, His Majesty had three heavy bells attached to the ends of the canvas, to keep it better down. This completed the arrangement.
- 9. The Kilāwa 1 consists of a few twisted ropes, about one and a half yards long. They are laid at the side of each other, without, however, being interwoven among themselves, the whole being about eight fingers broad. A ring is drawn through both ends of the ropes, and fastened where the throat of the elephant is; the elephant driver rests his feet in it, and thus sits firmly. Sometimes it is made of silk or leather. Others fix small pointed iron-spikes to the kalāwa, which will prevent an unruly elephant from throwing down the driver by shaking its head.
- 10. The Dulth is a rope, five yards long, as thick as a staff. This they tie over the kalāwa to strengthen it.
- 11. The Kanār is a small pointed spike, half a yard long. This they likewise attach to the kalāwa, and prick the elephant's ears with it in order to make the animal wild or to urge it on.
- 12. The Dor is a thick rope passing from the tail to the throat. When properly tied it is an ornament. They also catch hold of it, when the elephant makes an awkward movement. They also attach many other trappings to it.
- 13. The Gadela is a cushion put on the back of the elephant below the dulths. It prevents galling, and is a source of comfort.
- 14. The Gudaufi is a chain of brass. They attach it near the tail, which it prevents from getting injured by the dulthi. It is also ornamental.
- 15. The Pichwa is a belt made of ropes and is fastened over the buttocks of the elephant. It is a support for the Bhoi, and of much use to him in firing.
 - 16. The Chaurasi consists of a number of bells attached to a piece of

¹ This should be Keldws. Abū 'l-Faşl spells the word wrong; wide my text edition, p. 136, l. 16. It looks as if Abū 'l-Faşl had mistakun this Persian word for a Rindf term; clee, why should be have any spelling at all. In Vullers' Persian Dictionary, ii, p. 8636, read high for high, and be tenied for his emendation (?) tobyto.

broadcloth, which is tied on before and behind with a string passed through it. It looks ornamental and grand.

- 17. Pitkachh is the name of two chains fastened over the elephant's sides. Attached to them, a bell hangs below the belly. It is of great beauty and grandeur.
- 18. Large chains. They attach six on both sides, and three to the kalāwa, the latter being added by His Majesty.
- 19. Qutās (the tail of the Thibetan Yak). There are about sixty, more or less, attached to the tusk, the forehead, the throat, and the neck. They are either white, or black, or pied, and look very ornamental.
- 20. The Tayyā consists of five iron plates, each a span long, and four fingers broad, fastened to each other by rings. On both sides of the Tayyā there are two chains, each a yard long, one of which passes from above the ear, and the other from below it to the kalāwa, to which both are attached. Between them there is another chain, which is passed over the head and tied to the kalāwa; and below, crossways, there are four iron spikes ending in a curve, and adorned with knobs. The Qutās are attached here. At their lower end there are three other chains similarly arranged. Besides, four other chains are attached to the knob; two of them, like the first, end in a knob, whilst the remaining two are tied to the tusks. To this knob again three chains are attached, two of which are tied round about the trunk, the middle one hanging down. Qutās and daggers are attached to the former knobs, but the latter lies over the forehead. All this is partly for ornament, partly to frighten other animals.
- 21. The Pākhar is like an armour, and is made of steel; there are separate pieces for the head and the trunk.
- 22. The Gaj-jhamp is a covering put as an ornament above the pākhar. It looks grand. It is made of three folds of canvas, put together and sewn, broad ribbons being attached to the outside.
- 23. The Megh dambar is an awning to shade the elephant driver, an invention by His Majesty. It also looks ornamental.
- 24. The Ranpiyal is a fillet for the forehead made of brocade or similar stuffs, from the hem of which nice ribbons and quis hang down.
- 25. The Gatell consists of four links joined together, with three above them, and two others over the latter. It is attached to the feet of the elephant. Its sound is very effective.
 - 26. The Pay ranjan consists of several bells similarly arranged.
- 27. The Ankus is a small crook. His Majesty calls it Gajbāga.¹ It is used for guiding the elephant and stopping him.

¹ i.e., an elephant-rein. His Majesty had reason to change the name Anbus, "which sounds offensive to a Persian ear." Rashidi. Hence the Persians pronounce it angush.

28. The Gad is a spear which has two prongs instead of an iron point. The Bhoī makes use of it, when the elephant is refractory.

29. The Bangri is a collection of rings made of iron or brass. The rings are put on the tusks, and serve to strengthen as well as to ornament them.

30. The Jagāwat resembles the Gad (No. 28), and is a cubit long. The

Bhoi uses it, to quicken the speed of the elephant.

31. The *Jhanḍā*, or flag, is hung round with *Qutās*, like a *togh*. It is fixed to the side of the elephant.

But it is impossible to describe all the ornamental trappings of

elephants.

For each Mast and Shergir and Sāda, seven pieces of cotton cloth are annually allowed, each at a price of 8½ dāms. Also, four coarse woollen pieces, called in Hindi kambal, at 10 d. each, and eight ox hides, each at 8 d. For Manjhola and Karha elephants, four of the first; three of the second; and seven of the third, are allowed. For Phandurkiyas and Mokals, and female elephants, three of the first; two of the second; four of the third. The saddlecloth is made of cloth, lining, and stuff for edging it round about; for sewing, half a ser of cotton thread is allowed. For every man of grain, the halqa-dār is allowed ten sers of iron for chains, etc., at 2 d. per ser; and for every hide, one ser of sesame oil, at 60 d. per man. Also 5 s. coarse cotton thread for the kalāwa of the elephant on which the Fawjdār rides, at 8 d. per ser; but for other elephants, the men have to make one of leather, etc., at their own expense.

A sum of twelve dams is annually subtracted from the servants; but

they get the worn out articles.

4ª în 46.

THE ELEPHANTS FOR HIS MAJESTY'S USE (KHASA).

There are one hundred and one elephants selected for the use of His Majesty. Their allowance of food is the same in quantity as that of the other elephants, but differs in quality. Most of them also get 5 s. of sugar, 4 s. of ghi, and half a man of rice mixed with chillies, cloves, etc.; and some have one and a half man 2 of milk in addition to their grain. In the sugar-cane season, each elephant gets daily, for two months, 3(1) sugar canes, more or less. His Majesty takes the place of the Mahāwat.

Each elephant requires three bhois in the rutting season, and two, when cool. Their monthly wages vary from 120 to 400 d., and are fixed by His

Togh is the same as sag. Vide A^a in 19, p. 52.
 Liquide are sold in India by the weight.

Majesty himself. For each elephant there are four Meths. In the Halqas, female elephants are but rarely told off to accompany big male ones; but for each <u>khāsa</u> elephant there are three, and sometimes even more, appointed. First class big female elephants have two and one-half meths; second class do., two; third class do., one and one-half; for the other classes as in the <u>Halqas</u>.

As each Halqa is in charge of one of the grandees, so is every khāṣa elephant put in charge of one of them. Likewise, for every ten khāṣa elephants, a professional man is appointed, who is called Dahā,īdār. They draw, twelve, ten, and eight rupees per mensem. Besides, an active and honest superintendent is appointed for every ten elephants. He is called Naqīb (watcher) and has to submit a daily report, when elephants eat little, or get a shortened allowance, or in cases of sickness, or when anything unusual happens. He marks a horse, and holds the rank of an Aḥadī. His Majesty also weekly dispatches some of the servants near him, in the proportion of one for every ten elephants, who inspect them and send in a report.

A*in 47.

THE MANNER OF RIDING KHASA-ELEPHANTS.

His Majesty, the royal rider of the plain of auspiciousness, mounts on every kind of elephant, from the first to the last class, making them, notwithstanding their almost supernatural strength, obedient to his command. His Majesty will put his foot on the tusks, and mount them, even when they are in the rutting season, and astonishes experienced people.¹

They also put comfortable turrets on the backs of swift-paced elephants, which serve as a travelling sleeping apartment. An elephant so caparisoned is always ready at the palace.

Whenever His Majesty mounts an elephant, a month's wages are given as a donation to the *bhoīs*. And when he has ridden ten elephants, the following donations are bestowed, viz, the near servant who has weekly to report on the elephants, receives a present; the former, 100 R.; the Dahā,ī, 31 R.; the Naqīb, 15 R.; the Mushrif (writer), $7\frac{1}{2} R$. Besides, the regal rewards given to them at times when they display a particular zeal or attentiveness, go beyond the reach of speech.

Each elephant has his match appointed for fighting; some are always

Jahängir, in his Memoirs, gives several examples of Akbar's daring in this respect; side Tuzuk, p. 16.

ready at the palace, and engage when the order is given. When a fight is over, if the combatants were $\underline{kh\bar{a}}$, elephants, the bhois receive 250 $d\bar{a}$ ms as a present; but if other elephants, the bhois get 200 d.

The Dahā,īdār of khāṣa elephants receives one dām for every rupee paid as wages to the bhoīs and meths; the Mushrif is entitled to ½ d., and the Naqīb to ½ d. In the case of halqa elephants, the Sadīwāl, the Dahbāshī, and the Bīstī, are entitled to 1 d. for every rupee; and the Mushrif and the Naqīb receive the allowance given for khāṣu elephants.

A*in 48.

ON FINES.

In order to prevent laziness and to ensure attentiveness, His Majesty, as for all other departments, has fixed a list of fines. On the death of a male or a female <u>khāşa</u> elephant the <u>Bhoīs</u> are fined three months' wages. If any part of the harness is lost, the <u>Bhoīs</u> and <u>Meths</u> are fined two-thirds of the value of the article; but in the case of a saddlecloth, the full price. When a female elephant dies from starvation, or through want of care, the <u>Bhoīs</u> have to pay the cost price of the animal.

If a driver mixes drugs with the food of an elephant to make the animal hot, and it dies in consequence thereof, he is liable to capital punishment, or to have a hand cut off, or to be sold as a slave. If it was a <u>khāşa</u> elephant, the *Bhoīs* lose three months' pay and are further suspended for one year.

Two experienced men are monthly dispatched to inquire into the fatness or leanness of the khāṣa elephants. If elephants are found by them out of flesh to the extent of a quarter, according to the scale fixed by the Pagosht Regulation (vide As in 83), the grandees in charge are fined, and the bhote are likewise liable to lose a month's rages. In the case of halos elephants, Ahadis are told off to examine them, and submit a report to His Majesty. If an elephant dies, the Mahawat and the Bhoi are fined three months' wages. If part of an elephant's tusk is broken, and the injury reaches as far as the kali-this is a place at the root of the tuaks, which on being injured is apt to fester, when the tuaks get hollow and become useless -a fine amounting to one-eighth of the price of the elephant is exacted, the darogha paying two-thirds, and the Fanejdar onethird. Should the injury not reach as far as the knii, the fine is only onehalf of the former, but the proportions are the same. But, at present, a fine of one per cent has become usual; in the case of khaps elephants. however, such punishment is inflicted as His Majesty may please to direct.

°īn 49.

THE IMPERIAL HORSE STABLES.

His Majesty is very fond of horses, because he believes them to be of great importance in the three branches of the government, and for expeditions of conquest, and because he sees in them a means of avoiding much inconvenience.

Merchants bring to court good horses from 'Iraq-i 'Arab and 'Iraq-i Ajam, from Turkey, Turkestan, Badakhshan, Shirwan, Qirghiz, Thibet, Kashmīr, and other countries. Droves after droves arrive from Tūrān and Īrān, and there are nowadays twelve thousand in the stables-of His Majesty. And in like manner, as they are continually coming in, so there are others daily going out as presents, or for other purposes.

Skilful, experienced men have paid much attention to the breeding of this sensible animal, many of whose habits resemble those of man; and after a short time Hindustan ranked higher in this respect than Arabia, whilst many Indian horses cannot be distinguished from Arabs or from the Iraqi breed. There are fine horses bred in every part of the country; but those of Cachh excel, being equal to Arabs. It is said that a long time ago an Arab ship was wrecked and driven to the shore of Cachh; and that it had seven choice horses, from which, according to the general belief, the breed of that country originated. In the Panjab, horses are bred resembling Iraqis, especially between the Indus and the Bahat (Jhelum): they go by the name of Sanujī; 1 so also in the district of Patī Haybatpūr,2 Bajwāral, Tihāra, in the Sūbaof Āgra, Mewāt, and in the Suba of Ajmir, where the horses have the name of puchwariya. In the northern mountainous district of Hindustan, a kind of small but strong horse is bred, which are called qut; and in the confine of Bengal, near Küch [-Bahār], another kind of horses occurs, which rank between the gūt and Turkish horses, and are called tānghan,3 they are strong and powerful.

His Majesty, from the light of his insight and wisdom, makes himself acquainted with the minutest details, and with the classification and the condition of every kind of article; he looks to the requirements of the times, and designs proper regulations. Hence he also pays much attention to everything that is connected with this animal, which is of so great an importance for the government and an almost supernatural means for the attainment of personal greatness.

Several good MSS, read Satūji.
 Haibatpūr, Lat. 29° 51', Long. 76° 2'; Thāra, Lat. 30° 57', Long. 75° 25'.
 Taghan.—P.}

First, he has set apart a place for horse-dealers, where they may, without delay, find convenient quarters, and be secure from the hardships of the seasons. By this arrangement, the animals will not suffer 1 from that hardness and avariciousness so often observed in dealers of the present time; nor will they pass from the hands of well-intentioned merchants into those of others. But dealers who are known for their uprightness and humanity may keep their horses where they please, and bring them at an appointed time. Secondly, he appointed a circumspect man to the office of an Amin-i Kārwānsarā, who from his superior knowledge and experience keeps the dealers from the path of disobedience and ties the mischievous tongues of such as are wicked and evasive. Thirdly, he has appointed a clever writer, who keeps a roll of horses that arrive and have been mustered, and who sees that the orders of His Majesty do not fall into abeyance. Fourthly, he has appointed trustworthy men acquainted with the prices of horses to examine the animals, and to fix their prices, in the order in which they are imported. His Majesty, from his goodness, generally gives half as much again above the price fixed by them, and does not keep them waiting for their money.2

Ā*īn 50.

THE RANKS OF THE HORSES.

There are two classes of horses: 1. Khāsa; 2. Those that are not khāşa. The khāşa horses are the following--sız stables, each containing forty choice horses of Arabia and Persia; the stables of the princes; the stables of Turkish courier horses; the stables of horses bred in the Imperial studs. They have each a name, but do not exceed the number thirty. His Majesty rides upon horses of the six stables.

The second class horses are of three kinds, viz.. sī-aspī, bīst-aspī, dahcepi, i.e., belonging to the stables of thirty, twenty, and ten. A horse

Akbar abhorred cruelty towards domestic animals. Towards the end of his life, as

Akbar abhorred cruelty towards domestic animals. Towards the end of his life, as shall be mentioned below, he even gave up hunting and animal fights.

Aba 'l-Fayl mentions this very often in the A in. Contractors generally received chaques on a local treasury; but they might be sent from there to another local treasury, unless they bribed the collector, or made over their cheques, for a consideration, to Mahājans (bankers). It was the same in Persia. "The clerks, whose habit it is to annoy people, gave him (Wazir Mīraš Şālih, brother of the great Persian historian Sukandar Beg) in payment of his claims a lot of transfer receipts, and left him in the hands of the collectors (mahassil), who, like the clerks, always pretend to be in a hurry; and although Mīraš Rahīm, a relation of his, tried to come to an understanding with them, in order to help Mīraš Ṣālih out of his wretched plight, they ruined him, in a short time, to such an extent that they had to provide in lieu a daily subsistence allowance. He died of a broken heart."

Tithir Nagrābādi's Tagkira.

whose value comes up to ten muhurs, is kept in a Dah-muhri stable; those worth from eleven to twenty muhurs, in a Bist-muhri stable, and so on.

Grandees and other *Mansabdārs*, and *Senior Aḥadīs* are in charge of the stables. Hay and crushed grain are found by the government for all horses, except the horse which the *Yatāqdār* (guard) of every stable is allowed to ride, and which he maintains in grain ¹ and grass at his own expense.

Ā*īn 51.

THE FODDER ALLOWED IN THE IMPERIAL STABLES.

A khāsa horse was formerly allowed eight sers fodder per diem, when the ser weighed twenty-eight dams. Now that the ser is fixed at thirty dams a khāsa horse gets seven and a half sers. In winter, they give boiled peas or vetch; in summer, grain.1 The daily allowance includes two sers of flour and one and a half sers of sugar. In winter, before the horse gets fresh grass, they give it half a ser of ghī. Two dāms are daily allowed for hay; but hay is not given, when fresh grass a is available. About three bighas of land will yield sufficient fodder for a horse. When, instead of sugar, the horses get molasses,* they stop the ghi; and when the season of fresh grass a comes, they give no grain for the first three days, but allow afterwards six sers of grain and two sers of molasses per diem.8 In other SIrāqī and Turkī stables, they give seven and a half sers of grain. During the cool six months of the year, they give the grain 1 boiled, an allowance of one dam being given for boiling one man of it. The horses also get once a week a quarter ser of salt. When ghi and fresh grass are given, each horse, provided its price be above thirty-one muhurs, gets also one ser of sugar; whilst such as are worth from twenty-one to thirty muhurs, only get half a ser. Horses of less value get no sugar at all. Before green grass is given, horses of a value from twenty-one to upwards of one hundred muhurs. get one man and ten sers of ghi; such as are worth from eleven to twenty muhurs thirty sers; but horses up to ten muhurs get neither ahi, brown sugar, nor green oats. Salt is given at the daily rate one-fiftieth of a dam. though it is mostly given in a lump. Strags and Turks horses which belong to the court are daily allowed two d. for grass; but such of them as are in the country only one and a half. In winter, each horse gets a bighā of

[Qand-i slyth is probably gur.—P.]

^{[1} Meth, a small, hard, blue grain used, when well boiled, for fattening horses. Dana "grain" colloquially amongst horse-dealers, etc., means "gram."—P.]
[2 Kharid is green wheat or barley (not oats) before the ear is well formed; it is cut and used as fodder.—P.]

fresh oats,¹ the price of which, at court, is 240 d., and in the country 200 d. At the time of fresh oats,¹ each horse gets two mans of molasses,² the same quantity being subtracted from the allowance of grain.³

Experienced officers, attached to the Imperial offices, calculate the amount required, and make out an estimate, which in due course is paid. When a horse is sick, every necessary expense is paid on the certificate of the horse doctor.

Every stallion to a stud of mares receives the allowance of a <u>khāṣa</u> horse. The gūṭ horses get five and a half sers of grain,³ the usual quantity of salt, and grass at the rate of one and a half d. per diem, if at court, and at the rate of $1_{38}^{3}d$., when in the country; but they do not get $gh\bar{\imath}$, molasses, or green oats.¹ Qisrāqs [i.e., female horses] get, at court, four and a half sers of grain,³ the usual allowance of salt, and one d. for grass; and in the country, the same, with the exception of the grass, for which only three fourths of a $d\bar{a}m$ are allowed. Stud mares get two and three-fourths sers of grain,³ but the allowance for grass, salt, and fuel, is not fixed.

A foal sucks its dam for three months; after which, for nine months, it is allowed the milk of two cows; then, for six months, two and three-fourths sers of grain 3 per diem; after which period, the allowance is every six months increased by a ser, till it completes the third year, when its food is determined by the above regulations.

A*in 52.

ON HARNESS, ETC.

It would be difficult and tedious to describe the various ornaments, jewels, and trappings, used for the <u>khāşu</u> borses on which His Majesty rides.

For the whole outfit of a <u>khāsa</u> horse, the allowance is 277½ d. per annum; viz., an artak, or horse quilt, of wadded chintz, 47 d.; a yālposh (a covering for the mane), 32 d.; a woollen towel. 2 d.—these three articles are renewed every six months; in heu of the old artak, half the cost price is deducted, and one-sixth for the old yālposh; a saddle-cloth, the outside of which is woven of hair, the lining being felt, 42 d.; halters for the

^{[*} Khartd is green wheat or barley (not cate) before the ear is well formed; it is cut and used as fodder.—P.]

^{[*} Gend-i slight is probably gur.-P.]
[* Dine collequially means, as here, gram.—P.]

nukhta 1 (headstall) and the hind feet, 2 40 d.; a pusht-tang (girth), 8 d.; a magas-rān (a horse tail to drive away flies), 3 d.; a nukhta and qayza (the bit), 14 d.; a curry-comb, $1\frac{1}{2} d.$; a grain bag, 6 d.; a basket, in which the horse gets its grain, $1^4 d.$ These articles are given annually, and fifteen $d\bar{a}ms$, ten jetals, subtracted in lieu of the old ones.

In the other stables, the allowance for horses whose value is not less than twenty-one muhurs, is $196\frac{1}{2} d$. per annum, the rate of the articles being the same. Twenty-five and a half $d\bar{a}ms$ are subtracted in lieu of

the old articles.

In stables of horses worth twenty to eleven muhurs, the annual allowance is $155\frac{1}{4}d$; viz., for the artak, $39\frac{3}{4}d$.; the yālposh, $27\frac{1}{4}d$.; a coarse saddle cloth, 30d.; the girth, 6d.; the nukhta and qayza, 10d.; and the nukhta ropes and feet-ropes, 32d.; the magas-rān, 2d.; a towel, $1\frac{1}{4}d$.; a curry-comb, $1\frac{1}{4}d$.; a basket, 1d.; a grain bag, $4\frac{1}{4}d$. Twenty dāms are subtracted for the old articles.

For horses worth up to ten muhurs, and qisrāqs, and gūt, the allowance is $117\frac{1}{2}d$.; 5 viz., an artak, 37d.: a yālposh, $24\frac{1}{2}d$.; a jul, 24d.; a nukhta band and a pāy-band, 8d.; a nukhta and qayza, 8d.; a pushttang. 5d.; a magas-rān and a towel, each $1\frac{1}{2}d$.; a curry-comb, $1\frac{1}{4}d$.; a basket, 1d.; a grain bag, $4\frac{1}{2}d$. The amount subtracted is the same as before.

1. The Karāh is an iron vessel for boiling grain sufficient for ten horses. The price of a karāh is at the rate of one hundred and forty dāms per man of iron; but this includes the wages of the maker. 2. The Missīn Saṭl, or brass bucket, out of which horses drink. There is one for every ten khāṣa horses. The price of making one is 140 d. For other horses, as in the stables of thirty, etc., there is only one. 3. The Kamand, attached to iron pegs, is for fastening the horses. In stables of forty, there are three; in stables of thirty, two; in others, one. The weight of a halter is half a man; its cost price is 140 d., and 16 d. the

[* Kared or bars,d, H. ?-P.]

^{[1} Nultita for nulti.—P.]

In consequence of the climate, horses are kept, in the East, much more outside than in the stables. When being cleaned or fed, each of the hindlegs is fastened by means of a rope to a peg in the ground. In the case of wicked horses, a rope is attached to each side of the head-stall, and fastened, like tent ropes, to pegs in the ground. Native grooms, in feeding horses, generally equat on the ground, pushing the grain in the basket towards the mouth of the horse. The word nakhth, which, like hundreds of other words, is not given in our dictionaries, is generally pronounced sugts. Similarly, gaizah is pronounced gaizah: wide Journal As. Soc. Bengal for 1868, I, p. 36 b.c.

^{[*} In modern Urdu quant is a snaffle.—P.]

The items added only give 1161 d.

Altogether 1861 d., and 81 d. on account of the first three articles renewed after six months. The deduction in lieu of old articles refers, of course, to the wages of the grooms.

of which xosta 15 d. for fixing stables, if when they ence paid e is made ight dāms llowed for THE vernment. ses. This es of high -in-Chief). post may I down to roll of the orders are i for this da-war, or fore they t and the Mushrif. A khtachie them get he horses, down by dā. This ementary dictionaries vide List of

wages of the rope maker. 4. The Ahanin mekh, or iron peg, of which there are two for every halter. Each peg weighs five sers, and costs 15 d. 5. The Tabartukhmāq, or hammer, weighs five sers, and is used for fixing the iron pegs. There is one in every stable.

All broken and old utensils of brass and iron, in the khāṣa stables, if repairable, are repaired at the expense of the Daroghas; and when they are past mending, their present value is deducted, and the difference paid in cash. In other stables, a deduction of one-half of their value is made every third year.

6. Nacl, or horseshoes, are renewed twice a year. Formerly eight dams were given for a whole set, but now ten. 7. Kundlan. One is allowed for ten horses. The price of it is $80 \frac{3}{4} R$.

A*in 53.

THE OFFICERS AND SERVANTS ATTACHED TO THE IMPERIAL STABLES.

1. The Atbegi is in charge of all horses belonging to the government. He directs all officers charged with the management of the horses. This office is one of the highest of the State, and is only held by grandees of high rank: at present it is filled by the Khan Khanan 2 (Commander-in-Chief). 2. The Darogha. There is one appointed for each stable. This post may be held by officers of the rank of commanders of five thousand down to Senior Ahadis. 3. The Mushrif, or accountant. He keeps the roll of the horses, manages all payments and fines, sees that His Majesty's orders are carried out, and prepares the estimate of the stores required for this department. He is chosen from among the grandees 4. The Dida-war, or inspector. His duty is occasionally to inspect the horses before they are mustered by His Majesty: he also determines the rank and the condition of the horses. His reports are taken down by the Mushrif. This office may be held by the Mansabdars or Ahadis. 5. The Akhtachis look after the harness, and have the horses saddled. Most of them get their pay on the list of the Abadis. 6. The Chabuksuwar rides the horses, and compares their speed with the road, which is likewise taken down by the Mushrif. He receives the pay of an Ahadi. 7. The Hada. This name is given to a class of Rajpüts, who teach horses the elementary

¹ This appears to be the same as the Hind. laif, which our meagre dictionaries describe as a "kind of tent".

1 Or Mirat Ehte Shinds, i.e., Chbd-r-Rahim, son of Bayram Khan; wide List of Granders, 2nd book, No. 39.

steps. Some of them get their pay on the list of the Ahadis. 8. The Mirdaha is an experienced groom placed over ten servants. He gets the pay of an Ahadi; but in other khāşa stables, he only gets 170 d.; in the country-bred stables, 160 d.; in the other si-aspi stables, 140 d.; in the bist-aspi stables, 100 d.; and in the dah-aspi stables, 30 d. Besides he has to look after two horses. 9. The Baytar, or horse-doctor, gets the pay of an Ahadi. 10. The Naqib, or watcher. Some active, intelligent men are retained for supervision. • They report the condition of each stable to the Daroghas and the Mushrif, and it is their duty to have the cattle in readiness. The two head Nagibs are Ahadis, and they have thirty people under them, who receive from 100 to 120 d. 11. The Sā,is, or groom. There is one groom for every two horses. In the chihil-aspī stables, each groom gets 170 d.; in the stables of the eldest prince, 138 d.; in the stables of the other princes, and in the courier horse stables, 136 d.; in the country bred stables, 126 d.; in the other si-aspī stables, 106 d.; in the bist-aspi stables, 103 d.; and in the dah-aspi stables, 100 d. 12. The Jilawlär (vide A*in 60) and the Payk (a runner). Their monthly pay varies from 1,200 to 120 d., according to their speed and manner of service. Some of them will run from fifty to one hundred kroh (kos) a day. 13. The Nachband, or farrier. Some of them are Ahadis, some foot soldiers. They receive 160 d. 14. The Zindar, or saddle holder, has the same rank and pay as the preceding. In the khāsa stable of forty horses, one saddle is allowed for every two horses, in the following manner: for the first and twenty-first; for the second and twenty-second, and so on. If the first horse is sent out of the stable, the saddle remains at its place, and what was the second horse becomes first, and the second saddle falls to the third horse, and so on to the end. If a horse out of the middle leaves, its saddle is given to the preceding horse. 15. The Abkash, or water-carrier. Three are allowed in the stables of forty; two in stables of thirty, and only one in other stables. The monthly pay is 100 d. 16. The Farrash (who dusts the furniture). There is one in every khāsa stable. His pay is 130 d. 17. A Sipandsoz 1 is only allowed in the stables of forty horses;

[Sipand P., or harmal A., is wild rue not mustard,—P.]

The seeds of sipand (in Hind. sared, a kind of mustard seed) are put on a heated plate of iron. Their smoke is an effectual preventive against the evil eye (negar-i bad, plate of iron. Their smoke is an effectual preventive against the evil eye (nagar-i bad, chashm rasidan), which is even dangerous for Akbar's choice horses. The seeds burn away slowly, and emit a crackling sound. The man who burns them is called Sipandels. Vide the poetical extracts of the 2nd book, under Shikebi. Instead of Sipand, grooms sometimes keep a monkey over the entrance of the stable. The influence of the evil eye passes from the horses to the ugly monkey.

Another remedy consists in nailing old horseshoes to the gates of the stables. Hundreds of such shoes may still be seen on the gates in Fathpür Sikri.

his pay is 100 d. 18. The <u>Khākrūb</u>, or sweeper. Sweepers are called in Hindustan $Hal\bar{a}l\underline{k}hur$; ¹ His Majesty brought this name en vogue. In stables of forty, there are two; in those of thirty and twenty, one. Their monthly pay is 65 d.

During a march, if the dāroghas are in receipt of a fixed allowance for coolies, they entertain some people to lead the horses. In the stables of thirty horses, fifteen are allowed. And in the same proportion does the government appoint coolies, when a dārogha has not received the extra allowance. Each cooly gets two dāms per diem.

Aºin 54.

THE BARGIR.

His Majesty, from the regard which he pays to difference in rank, believes many fit for cavalry service, though he would not trust them with the keeping of a horse. For these he has told off separate stables, with particular Dāroghas and Mushrifs. When their services are required, they are furnished with a horse on a written order of the Bükkhī (writer); but they have not to trouble themselves about the keeping of the horse. A man so mounted is called a Bārgīrsuwār.

Ā*īn 55.

REGULATIONS FOR BRANDING HORSES.

In order to prevent fraudulent exchanges, and to remove the stamp of doubtful ownership, horses were for some time marked with the word (mage, sight), sometimes with the word واله (dagh, mark), and sometimes with the numeral v (seven). Every horse that was received by government had the mark burnt on the right cheek, and those that were returned, on the left side. Sometimes, in the case of Iraqi and Mujannas s

etc., is an example of the irony of fate.

Vide A* ins 7 and £ of the second book. The branding of horses was revived in A.H. 981.

A.D. 1878, when Shāhbās had been appointed Mir Babbeli. He followed the regulations of \$Ala*-ud-Din Khilji and Sher Shāh; wide Baddonf, pp. 173, 190.

* Majanas, i.e., put nearly equal (to an Iregi horse); rede 2nd book, A*in 2. [I think majanase means half-bred,—P.]

Akbar was very fond of changing names which he thought offensive, or of giving new names to things which he liked; side p. 46, l. 28; p. 55. l. 18; p. 65. l. 16; p. 90, l. 22; also Forbes! Distionary under rangiard. Haldligher, i.e., one who eats that which the coresnonial law allows, is a cuphemism for hardmidder, one who eats forbidden things, as park, etc. The word haldligher is still in use among culturated Muhammadans; but it is doubtful whether it was Akbar's invention. The word in common use for a sweeper is milter, a prince, which like the proud title of hallfa, nowadays applied to cooks, tailors, etc., is an example of the irony of fate.

horses, they branded the price in numerals on the right cheek; and in the case of Turki and Arab horses, on the left. Nowadays the horses of every stable are distinguished by their price in numerals. Thus, a horse of ten muhurs is marked with the numeral ten; those of twenty muhurs have a twenty, and so on. When horses, at the time of the musters, are put into a higher or a lower grade, the old brand is removed.

A*in 56.

REGULATIONS FOR KEEPING UP THE FULL COMPLEMENT OF HORSES.

Formerly, whenever there had been taken away either ten horses from the stables of forty, or from the stud-bred horses, or five from the courier horses, they were replaced in the following manner. The deficiency in the stables of forty was made up from horses chosen from the stables of the princes; the stud-bred horses were replaced by other stud-bred ones, and the courier horses from other stables. Again, if there were wanting fifteen horses in the stables of the eldest prince (Salīm), they were replaced by good horses of his brothers; and if twenty were wanting in the stables of the second prince (Murād), the deficiency was made up by horses taken from the stables of the youngest prince and from other stables; and if twenty-five were wanting in the stables of the youngest prince (Dānyāl), the deficiency was made up from other good stables.

But in the thirty-seventh year of the Divine Era (A.D. 1593), the order was given that, in future, one horse should annually be added to each stable. Thus, when, in the present year, the deficiency in the <u>khāps</u> stables had come up to eleven, they commenced to make up the complement, the deficiency of the other stables being made up at the time of the muster parades.

A*in 57.

ON FINES.

When a <u>khās</u> horse dies, the Dārogha has to pay one rupee, and the Mīrdaha ten d., upon every muhur of the cost price; and the grooms lose one-fourth of their monthly wages. When a horse is stolen, or injured, His Majesty determines the fine, as it cannot be uniform in each case.

In the other stables they exacted from the Darogha for a single horse that dies, one rupee upon every muhur; for two horses, two rupees

upon every muhur; and from the Mirdaha and the grooms the above proportions. But now they take one rupee upon every muhur for one to these horses that die; and two upon every muhur for four horses; and three upon every muhur for five.

If the mouth of a horse gets injured, the Mīrdaha is fined ten dāms

upon every muhur, which fine he recovers from the other grooms.

Ā²īn 58.

ON HORSES KEPT IN READINESS.

There are always kept in readiness two <u>khāşa</u> horses; but of courier-horses, three, and one of each stable from the seventy muhurs down to the ten muhur stables and the gife. They are formed into four divisions, and each division is called a *misl*.

First mid: one from the chihilaspi stables; one from the stable of the eldest prince; one from those of the second prince; one from the stable of khāsa courier horses. Second mid: one from the stable of the youngest prince; one from the stud-bred; one from the chihilaspi stables; one courier horse. Third mid, one horse from the stables of the three princes; one stud-bred. Fourth mid, one horse from each of the stables of horses of

forty, thirty, twenty, and ten muhurs.

His Majesty rides very rarely on horses of the fourth migl. But when prince Shah Murad joined his appointment, His Majesty also rode the best horses of the stables of forty muhurs. The arrangement was then as follows. First migl, one horse from the stables of forty; one horse from the stables of the eldest and the youngest prince, and a courier horse. Hecond migl, stud-bred horses from the stables of horses above seventy muhurs, khase horses of forty muhurs, and courier horses. Third migl, one horse from the stables of each of the two princes, the stud-bred, and the seventy-muhur horses. Fourth migl, horses from the stables of sixty, forty, and thirty muhurs.

Horses are also kept in readiness from the stables of twenty and ten

muhurs and the guis.

^{[1} Rdhedr, ambling, a readster.—P.]

s "Prime Murad in the beginning of the fortieth year (1596) of Akbar's reign, was put
in commend of the army of Gujrāt, and ordered to take Ahmadnagar. But when, some
time after, Akbar heard that Murad's army was in a wretched condition, chiefly through
the correlessment and drunken habits of the prince, the emperor resolved to go himself
the correlessment and dispatched Abū "l-Faşi to bring the prince back to court. Abū "l-Faşi
(thrd year), and dispatched Abū "l-Faşi to bring the prince back to court. Abū "l-Faşi
came just in time to see the prince die, who from the preceding year had been suffering
from epileptic fits (surt, delirium tremens !) brought on by habitual drunkenness." Miradt,

Ā^eīn 59.

ON DONATIONS.

Whenever his Majesty mounts a horse belonging to one of the six khāṣa stables, he gives something, according to a fixed rule, with a view of increasing the zeal and desire for improvement among the servants. For some time it was a rule that, whenever he rode out on a khāṣa horse, a rupee should be given, viz., one dām to the Ātbegī, two to the Jilawdār; eighteen and one-half to the grooms, the rest being shared by the Mushrif, the Naqīb, the Akhtachī, and the Zīndār. In the case of horses belonging to the stables of the eldest prince, thirty dāms were given, each of the former recipients getting a quarter of a dām less. For horses belonging to stables of the second prince, twenty dāms were given, the donations decreasing by the same fraction; and for horses belonging to the stables of the youngest prince, as also for courier horses, and stud-breds, ten dāms, according to the same manner of distribution.

Now, the following donations are given:—For a horse of a stable of forty, one rupee as before; for a horse belonging to a stable of the eldest prince, twenty dāms; for a horse belonging to the youngest prince, tendāms; for courier horses, five; for stud-breds, four; for horses of the other stables, two.

Ā*in 60.

REGULATIONS FOR THE JILAWANA.

Whenever a horse is given away as a present, the price of the horse is calculated fifty per cent. higher, and the recipient has to pay ten dāms upon every muhur of the value of the horse. These ten dāms per muhur are divided as follows:—The Ātbegī gets five dāms; the Jilawbegī, two and a half; the Mushrif, one and a quarter; the Naqībs, nine jetals; the grooms, a quarter dām; the Taḥṣīldār, fifteen jetals; the remainder is equally divided among the Zīndār and Akhtachī.

In this country horses commonly live to the age of thirty years. Their price varies from 500 muhurs to 2 rupees.

^[1] Rāhwār, ambing; a roadster.—P.]

2 Jilaw is the string attached to the bridle, by which a horse is led. A led horse is called janiba. The adjective pilawāna, which is not in the dictionaries, means referring to a led horse. We have to write jilawānah, not jilawāna, according to the law of the Persian language, to break up a final diphthong in derivatives; as ne-īn, jawīn, from noi, jaw, not nai-īn, or jawīn. The jilawān, or janibadar, is the servant who leads the horse. The jilawbegi is the superintendent of horses selected for presents. The tajsildār collecte the fee.

Ā*īn 61.

THE CAMEL STABLES.

From the time His Majesty paid regard to the affairs of the state, he has shown a great liking for this curiously shaped animal; and as it is of great use for the three branches of the government, and well known to the emperor for its patience under burdens, and for its contentment with little food, it has received every care at the hands of His Majesty. The quality of the country breed improved very much, and Indian camels soon surpassed those of Irān and Tūrān.

From a regard to the dignity of his court, and the diversion of others. His Majesty orders camel-fights, for which purpose several choice animals are always kept in readiness. The best of these <u>khāsa</u> camels, which is named Shāhpasand (approved of by the Shāh), is a country-bred twelve years old; it overcomes all its antagonists, and exhibits in the manner in which it stoops down and draws itself up every finesse of the art of wrestling.

Camels are numerous near Ajmīr, Jodhpūr, Nāgor, Bīkānīr, Jaisalmīr, Batindā, and Bhaṭnīr; the best are bred in the Ṣūba of Gujrāt, near Cachh. But in Sind is the greatest abundance, many inhabitants own ten thousand camels and upwards. The swiftest camels are those of Ajmīr; the best for burden are bred in Thaṭha.

The success 1 of this department depends on the Arwānas, i.e., female camels. In every country they get hot in winter and couple. The male of two humps goes by the name of Bughur. The young ones of camels are called nar (male) and māya (female), as the case may be; but His Majesty has given to the nar the name of bughd. and to the female that of jammāza. The bughdī is the better for carrying burdens and for fighting; the jummāza excels in swiftness. The Indian camel called lok, and its female, come close to them in swiitness, and even surpass them. The offspring of a bughur and a jammāza goes by the name of ghurd: the female is called māya ghurd. If a bughdī, or a lok, couples with a jammāza, the young one is called bughdī or lok respectively. But if a bughdī or a lok couples with an arwāna, the young male is named after its sire and the young female after its dam. The lok is considered superior to the ghurd and the māya ghurd.

¹ In the text mays, which also means a female camet—a very harmless pun. Fide Dr. fiprenger's Gulistan, preface, p. d. Regarding the word bugher, vide Journal Asiatic Society, Bengal, for 1868, p. 59.

[* Corruption of bubble.—P.]

When camels are loaded and travel, they are generally formed into quatars (strings), each quatar consisting of five camels. The first camel of each quatar is called peshang; the second, peshdara; the third, miyana quatar; the fourth, dumdast; the last camel, dumdar.

A*in 62.

THE FOOD OF CAMELS..

The following is the allowance of such bughdis as are to carry burdens. At the age of two and a half, or three years, when they are taken from the herd of the stud dams, a bughdi gets 2 s. of grain; when three and a half to four years old, 5 s.; up to seven years, 9 s.; at eight years, 10 s. The same rule applies to bughurs. Similarly in the case of jammāzas, ghurds, māyah ghurds, and loks, up to four years of age; but from the fourth to the seventh year, they get 7 s.; and at the age of eight years, 7 s., at the rate of 28 dams per ser. As the ser has now 30 dams, a corresponding deduction is made in the allowance. When bughdis are in heat, they eat less. Hence also concession is made, if they get lean, to the extent of 10 s., according to the provisions of the Pagosht rule (A in 83); and when the rutting season is over, the Daroghas give out a corresponding extra allowance of grain to make up for the former deficiency. If they have made a definite entry into their day-book, and give out more food, they are held indemnified according to the Pagosht rule; and similarly in all other cases, note is taken of the deductions according to that rule.

At Court, camels are found in grass by the government for eight months. Camels on duty inside the town are daily allowed grass at the rate of 2d. per head: and those outside the town, $1\frac{1}{2}d$. During the four rainy months, and on the march, no allowance is given, the drivers taking the camels to meadows * to graze.

Ā^{*}in 63.

THE HARNESS OF CAMELS.

The following articles are allowed for <u>khāşa</u> camels: an *Afsār* (head stall); a *Dum-afsār* (crupper); a *Mahār kāṭhī* (furniture resembling a horse-saddle, but rather longer—an invention of His Majesty); a *kūchī*

¹ So according to the best MSS. The word is evidently a vulgar corruption of peak-akang, the leader of a troop. Peakdara means "in front of the belly, or middle, of the gaster".

[* Chart-oth, grazing-places.—P.]

(which serves as a saddle-cloth); a Qatarchi; a Sarbchi; a Tang (a girth); a Sartany (a head-strap); a Shebband (a loin-strap); a Jalajil (a breast rope adorned with shells or bells); a Gardanband (a neck-strap); three Chadars (or coverings) made of broadcloth, or variegated canvas, or waxcloth. The value of the jewels, inlaid work, trimmings, and silk, used for adorning the above articles, goes beyond description.

Five quiars of camels, properly caparisoned, are always kept ready for riding, together with two for carrying a Milaffa, which is a sort of wooden turret, very comfortable, with two poles, by which it is suspended, at the

time of travelling, between two camels.

A camel's furniture is either coloured or plain. For every ten quart they allow three gatars coloured articles.

For Bughdis, the cost of the [coloured] furniture is 225 d., viz., a head-stall studded with shells. $20\frac{1}{2} d$.; a brass ring, $1\frac{1}{2} d$.; an iron chain, 4 d.; a kallagī (an ornament in shape of a rosette, generally made of peacock's feathers, with a stone in the centre), 5 d.: a pusht pozī (ornaments for the strap which passes along the back), 8 d.; a dum-afsār (a crupper), 11 d.; for a takaltū (saddle-quilt) and a sarbchī, both of which require 5 sers of cotton, 20 d.; a jul (saddle-cloth), 2 68 d.; a jahāz-i qajkārī,3 which serves as a mahārkāthī (vide above), 40 d.; a tang, shebband, gulüband (throat-strap), 24 d.; a (anāh (long rope) for securing the burden—camel-drivers call this rope taga tanāb, or kharwār--38 d.; a bālāposh, or covering, 15 d.4

For Jammazas, two additional articles are allowed, viz., a gardanband,

2 d.; and a sīna-band (chest-strap), 16 d.

The cost of a set of plain furniture for Bughdis and Jammazas amounts to 1681 d., viz., an afsar, studded with shells. 10 d. . a dum-afsar, 1 d.; a jahaz, 161 d.; a jul, 521 d.; a tang, a shebband, and guluband, 24 d.; a tāga tanāb, 371 d.; a bālāposh. 28 d.3

For Loks, the allowance for furniture is 143 d., viz., an afsar, jahaz,

* The meaning is doubtful. The Arab, sare, like July, signifies a troop of camels. From the following it appears that surbchi is a sort of quilt.

[* A jul (== jkil H.) is a heavy horse-covering of blanket and felt. - P.]

* Gajkārī appears to be the correct reading. The Arab, jakāz means whatever is upon a camel, capecially the suddle and its appurtenances, generally made of coarse canvas steaped in lime (gaj). Hence gajkārī, white-wazhed.

* These items added up give 246 d., not 225 j. as stated by Abū !! Fazl. When disputation and which they will be found to result from a rejection of the fractional

¹ The meaning is doubtful. The Arab, sarb, like qi(dr. signifies a troop of camels. From

evenues are slight, they will be found to result from a rejection of the fractional parts of the omet of articles. The difference of 204 d. in this case can only have resulted from an omission on the part of the author, because all MSS, agree in the several items. Perhaps some of the articles were not exchanged friennially, but had to last a longer time. These items added up give 169 d., instead of Abu 'l-Faşl's 1684 d.

kharwār, according to the former rates; a jul, 37½ d.; a tang, shebband, qulūband, 14½ d.; a bālāposh, 28 d.¹

The coloured and plain furniture is renewed once in three years, but not so the iron bands and the woodwork. In consideration of the old coloured furniture of every qaṭār, sixteen dāms, and of plain furniture, fourteen dāms, are deducted by the Government. At the end of every three years they draw out an estimate, from which one-fourth is deducted; then, after taking away one-tenth of the remainder, an assignment is given for the rest.²

**Salafi camels (used for foraging) have their furniture renewed annually, at the cost of $52\frac{1}{3}$ d. for country-bred camels, and loks, viz. [for country bred camels] an afsār, 5 d.; a jul, $36\frac{1}{3}$ d.; a sardoz, $\frac{1}{3}$ d.; a tang and a shebband, $10\frac{3}{4}$ d.; a sardoz, $\frac{3}{4}$ d.; a sardoz, $\frac{3}{4}$ d.; a sardoz, $\frac{3}{4}$ d.

From the annual estimate one-fourth is deducted, and an assignment is given for the remainder.

Shalīta ṭāṭs, or canvas sacks, for giving camels their grain, are allowed one for every qaṭār, at a price of 30¾ d. for bughāīs and jammāzas, and 24¼ d. for loks.

Hitherto the cost of these articles had been uniformly computed and fixed by contract with the camel drivers. But when, in the forty-second year of the divine era [1598 A.D.], it was brought to the notice of His Majesty that these people were, to a certain extent, losers, this regulation was abolished, and the current market price allowed for all articles. The price is therefore no longer fixed.

On every New Year's day, the head camel-drivers receive permission for shearing the camels, anointing them with oil, injecting oil into the noses of the animals, and indenting for the furniture allowed to *calafi* camels.

Ätin 64.

REGULATIONS FOR OILING CAMELS, AND INJECTING OIL INTO THEIR NOSTRILS

The scientific terms for these operations are tailiya and tajri, though we might expect tailiya and tanshiq, because tanshiq means injecting into the nose.

¹ The items added up give 144 d., instead of Abū 'l-Faşl's 143 d.

Hence the Government paid, as a rule, A × 1=15 of the estimates presented.
The addition gives 525 d., instead of 524. The following items, for loke, give added up 624.

For each Bughdi and Jammaza 31 sers of sesame oil are annually allowed, viz., three sers for anointing, and 2 ser for injection into the nose. So also 2 s. of brimstone, and 61 s. of butter-milk. For other kinds of camels the allowance is & s. of brimstone, 61 s. of butter-milk, and 2 s. of grease for injecting into the nose-holes.

Formerly these operations were repeated three times, but now only

once, a year.

Ā*īn 65.

THE RANKS OF THE CAMELS, AND THEIR SERVANTS.

His Majesty has formed the camels into quiars, and given each quiar in charge of a sarban, or driver. Their wages are four-fold. The first class get 400 d.; the second, 340 d.; the third, 280 d.; the fourth, 220 d., per mensem.

The qatārs are of three kinds-1. Every five qatārs are in charge of an experienced man, called Bistopanji, or commander of twenty-five. His salary is 720 d. He marks a $Y \bar{a} b \bar{u}$ horse, and has four drivers under him. 2. Double the preceding, or ten qatars, are committed to the care of a Panjāhī, or commander of fifty. He is allowed a horse, draws 960 d., and has nine drivers under him. 3. Every hundred quaturs are in charge of a Panjsadi, or commander of five hundred. Ten quatars are under his personal superintendence. With the exception of one qatar, Government finds drivers for the others. The Panjahis and Bistopanjis are under his orders. Their salary varies; nowadays many Yūzbāshīs 1 are appointed to this post. One camel is told off for the farrashes. A writer also has been appointed. His Majesty, from his practical knowledge, has placed each Pansadī under a grandee of the court. Several active foot-soldiers have been selected to inquire from time to time into the condition of the camels, so that there may be no neglect. Besides, twice a year some people adorned with the jewel of insight inspect the camels as to their leanness or fatness at the beginning of the rains and at the time of the annual muster.

Should a camel get lost, the Sarban is fined the full value: so also the Panjahi and the Pansadi. If a camel get lame or blind, he is fined the

fourth part of the price.

Raibiri

Raibārī is the name given to a class of Hindus who are acquainted with the habits of the camel. They teach the country-bred lok camel so to step

¹ Corresponding to our Captains of the Army, commanders of 100 soldiers.

as to pass over great distances in a short time. Although from the capital to the frontiers of the empire, in every direction, relay horses are stationed, and swift runners have been posted at the distance of every five kos, a few of these camel riders are kept at the palace in readiness. Each Raibārī is also put in charge of fifty stud arwānas, to which for the purpose of breeding, one bughur and two loks are attached. The latter (the males) get the usual allowance of grain, but nothing for grass. The fifty arwānas get no allowance for grain or grass. For every bughur, bughāt, and jammāza in the stud, the allowance for oiling and injecting into the nostrils is 4 s. of sesame oil, \frac{1}{2} s. of brimstone, 6\frac{1}{2} s. of butter-milk.\frac{1}{2} The first includes \frac{3}{2} s. of sesame oil—the deduction is made for injection—6\frac{1}{2} s. of butter-milk,\frac{1}{2} and \frac{1}{2} s. of brimstone.

Botas and Dumbālas—these names are given to young camels; the former is used for light burdens; they are allowed $2\frac{1}{2}s$. of oil, inclusive of $\frac{1}{2}s$. for injection into the nostrils, $\frac{1}{2}s$. of brimstone, and $4\frac{1}{2}s$. of buttermilk.

Full-grown stud-camels get weekly $\frac{1}{2}$ s. of saltpetre and common salt; botas get $\frac{1}{2}$ s.

The wages of a herdsman is 200 d. per mensem. For grazing every fifty stud-camels, he is allowed five assistants, each of whom gets 2 d. per diem. A herdsman of two herds of fifty is obliged to present to His Majesty three arwānas every year; on failure, their price is deducted from his salary.

Formerly the state used to exact a fourth part of the wool sheared from every bughds and jammāza, each camel being assessed to yield four sers of wool. This His Majesty has remitted, and in lieu thereof, has ordered the drivers to provide their camels with dum-afsārs, wooden pegs, etc.

The following are the prices of camels:—a bughdī, from 5 to 12 muhurs; a jammāza, from 3 to 10 M.; a bughur, from 3 to 7 M.; a mongrel lok, from 8 to 9 M.; a country-bred, or a Balūchī lok, from 3 to 8 M.; an arwāna, from 2 to 4 M.

His Majesty has regulated the burdens to be carried by camels. A first class bughdī, not more than 10 mans; a second class do., 8 m.; superior jammāzas, loks, etc., 8 m.; a second class do., 6 m.

In this country, camels do not live above twenty-four years.

^{[*} Mast, ourds.—P.]
[* In text "from 4 to 7".—P.]
[* The text has also here "a maya bughur from 3 to 5; a ghurd from 3 to 8; a maya shurd and a lok from 3 to 7".—P.]

Atin 66

THE GAW-KHANA OR COW 1-STABLES.

Throughout the happy regions of Hindustan, the cow 1 is considered auspicious, and held in great veneration; for by means of this animal, tillage is carried on, the sustenance of life is rendered possible, and the table of the inhabitant is filled with milk, butter-milk, and butter. It is capable of carrying burdens and drawing wheeled carriages, and thus becomes an excellent assistant for the three branches of the government.

Though every part of the empire produces cattle of various kinds, those of Gujrāt are the best. Sometimes a pair of them are sold at 100 muhurs. They will travel 80 kos [120 miles] in 24 hours, and surpass even swift horses. Nor do they dung whilst running. The usual price is 20 and 10 muhurs. Good cattle are also found in Bengal and the Dakhin. They kneel down at the time of being loaded. The cows give upwards of half a man of milk. In the province of Dihlt again, cows are not worth more than 10 Rupees. His Majesty once bought a pair of cows for two lacs of dams [5,000 Rupees].

In the neighbourhood of Thibet and Kashmir, the Qutas, or Thibetan Yak, occurs, an animal of extraordinary appearance.

A cow will live to the age of twenty-five.

From his knowledge of the wonderful properties of the cow, His Majesty, who notices everything which is of value, pays much attention to the improvement of cattle. He divided them into classes, and committed each to the charge of a merciful keeper. One hundred choice cattle were selected as khāṣa and called kotal. They are kept in readiness for any service, and forty of them are taken unladen 1 on hunting expeditions, as shall be mentioned below (Book II, Asin 27). Fifty-one others nearly as good are called half-kotal, and fifty one more, quarter-kotal. Any deficiency in the first class is made up from the second, and that of the middle from the third. But these three form the cow 1-stables for His Majesty's use.

Besides, sections of cattle have been formed, each varying in number from 50 to 100, and committed to the charge of honest keepers. The rank of each animal is fixed at the time of the public muster, when each gets its proper place among sections of equal rank. A similar proceeding is adopted for each section, when selected for drawing waggons and travelling carriages, or for fetching water (vide A*in 22).

[[] Gae, ox. The bullock only is used for work.-P.] Mast, curds .-- P.

There is also a species of oxen, called gaini, small like gūt horses, but very beautiful.

Milch-cows and buffaloes have also been divided into sections, and handed over to intelligent servants.

A*in 67.

THE DAILY ALLOWANCE OF FOOD.

Every head of the first khāsa class is allowed daily 61 s. of grain, and 11 d. of grass. The whole stable gets daily 1 man 19 s. of molasses,2 which is distributed by the Darogha, who must be a man suitable for such a duty, and office. Cattle of the remaining khāsa classes get daily 6 s. of grain, 1 and grass as before, but no molasses 2 are given.

In other cow-stables the daily allowance is as follows. First kind, 6 s. of grain, 11 d. of grass at court, and otherwise only 1 d. The second kind get 5 s. of grain, and grass as usual. The oxen used for travelling carriages get 6 s. of grain, and grass as usual. First class gain get 3 s. of grain, and 1 d. of grass at court, otherwise only $\frac{3}{2} d$. Second class do., 21 s. of grain, and 2 d. of grass at court, otherwise only 1 d.

A male buffalo (called arna) gets 8 s. of wheat flour boiled, 2 s. of ghī, 1 s. of molasses, 2 11 s. of grain, 1 and 2 d. of grass. This animal, when young, fights astonishingly, and will tear a lion 3 to pieces. When this peculiar strength is gone, it reaches the second stage, and is used for carrying water. It then gets 8 s. of grain, and 2 d. for grass. Female buffaloes used for carrying water get 6 s. of grain, and 2 d. for grass. First class oxen for leopard-waggons 4 get 61 s. of grain: and other classes, 5 s. of grain, but the same quantity of grass. Oxen for heavy waggons got formerly 5 s. of grain, and 11 d. for grass; but now they get a quarter ser less, and grass as before.

The milch-cows, and buffaloes, when at court, have grain given them in proportion to the quantity of milk they give. A herd of cows and buffaloes is called that A cow will give daily from 1 to 15 s. of milk; buffalo from 2 to 30 s The buffaloes of the Panjab are the best in this respect. As soon as the quantity of milk given by each cow has been escertained, there are demanded two dams weight of ghi for every ser of milk.

^{[1} Dêna - gram, see p. 142, note 1.—P.]
[2 Quad-i siyāh, see p. 142, footnote 3.—P.]
[3 Sher in India is the tiger, but shir in Persia is the lion.—P.]
[4 Carriages for the transport of trained hunting leopards. Vide Book II, Å*in 27.

°in 68.

THE SERVANTS EMPLOYED IN THE COW 1-STABLES.

In the khāṣa stables, one man is appointed to look after four head of cattle. Eighteen such keepers in the first stable get 5 d. per diem, and the remaining keepers, 4 d. In other stables, the salary of the keepers is the same, but each has to look after six cows. Of the carriage drivers, some get their salaries on the list of the Aḥadīs; others get 360 d., others 256 d. down to 112 d. Bahals, or carriages, are of two kinds:—1. Chatrīdār or covered carriages, having four or more poles (which support the chatr, or umbrella); 2. without a covering. Carriages suited for horses are called ghur-bahal. For every ten waggons, 20 drivers and 1 carpenter are allowed. The head driver, or Mīrdaha, and the carpenter, get each 5 d. per diem; the others 4 d. For some time 15 drivers had been appointed, and the carpenter was disallowed; the drivers themselves undertook the repairs, and received on this account an annual allowance of 2,200 dāms [55 Rupees].

If a horn of an ox was broken, or the animal got blind, the Dārogha was fined one-fourth of the price, or even more, according to the extent of the injury.

Formerly the Daroghas paid all expenses on account of repairs, and received for every day that the carriages were used, half a dam as ung money-ung is hemp smeared with ghi, and twisted round about the axle-tree which, like a pivot, fits into the central hole of the wheel, and thus prevents it from wearing away or getting broken. When afterwards the Daroghaship was transferred to the drivers, they had to provide for this expense. At first, it was only customary for the carts to carry on marches a part of the baggage belonging to the different workshops; but when the drivers performed the duties of the Daroghas they had also to provide for the carriage of the fuel required at court and for the transport of building materials. But subsequently 200 waggons were set saide for the transport of building materials, whilst 600 others have to bring, in the space of ten months, 1,50,000 mans of fuel to the Imperial kitchen. And if officers of the government on any day use the Imperial waggons for other purposes, that day is to be separately accounted for, as also each service rendered to the court. The drivers are not subject to the Pageoff regulation (vide A.71. 83). If, however, an ox dies, they have to buy another.

But when it came to the ears of His Majesty that the above mode of contract was productive of much cruelty towards these serviceable, but mute animals, he abolished this system, and gave them again in charge of faithful servants. The allowance of grain for every cart-bullock was fixed at 4s., and 11d. were given for grass. For other bullocks, the allowance is one-half of the preceding. But during the four rainy months no money is allowed for grass. There were also appointed for every eighteen carts twelve drivers, one of whom must understand carpenter's work. Now, if a bullock dies, government supplies another in his stead, and likewise pays for the ung, and is at the expense of repairs.

The cattle that are worked are mustered once a year by experienced men who estimate their fatness or leanness; cattle that are unemployed are inspected every six months. Instead of the above mentioned transport of firewood, etc., the carters have now to perform any service which

may be required by the government.

Ā in 69.

THE MULE STABLES.

The mule possesses the strength of a horse and the patience of an ass, and though it has not the intelligence of the former it has not the stupidity of the latter. It never forgets the road which it has once travelled. Hence it is liked by His Majesty, whose practical wisdom extends to everything, and its breeding is encouraged. It is the best animal for carrying burdens and travelling over uneven ground, and it has a very soft step. People generally believe that the male ass couples with a mare, but the opposite connexion also is known to take place, as mentioned in the books of antiquity. The mule resembles its dam. His Majesty had a young ass coupled with a mare, and they produced a very fine mule.

In many countries just princes prefer travelling about on a mule; and people can therefore easily lay their grievances before them,1 without inconveniencing the traveller.

Mules are only bred in Hindustan in Pakhali, and its neighbourhood. The simple inhabitants of the country used to look upon mules as asses, and thought it derogatory to ride upon them; but in consequence of the

* The Sarkar of Pakhali lies between Atak (Attock) and Kashmir, a little north of

Which the subjects could not so easily do, if the princes, on their tours of administration of justice, were to ride on elephants, because the plaintiff would stand too far from

interest which His Majesty takes in this animal, so great a dislike is now nowhere to be found.

Mules are chiefly imported from \$\GammaIr\tilde{a}q-i \Arab and \$\GammaIr\tilde{a}q-i \Gamma Ajam. Very superior mules are often sold at Rs. 1.000 per head.

Like camels, they are formed into quature of five, and have the same names, except the second mule of each quature, which is called bardast, [instead of peshdara, vide A*in 61, end].

Mules reach the age of fifty.

Ā în 70.

THE DAILY ALLOWANCE OF FOOD FOR MULES.

Such mules as are not country-bred, get at court, 6 s. of grain, and 2 d. for grass; otherwise, only $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. Country-bred mules get 4 s. of grain, and $1\frac{\pi}{4}$ d. of grass, when at court; otherwise, 1 d. for grass. Each mule is allowed every week $3\frac{1}{2}$ jetals for salt; but they give the salt in one lot.

A*in 71.

THE FURNITURE OF MULES.

For imported mules, a head stall of leather, $20\frac{1}{4}d$.; an iron chain weighing 2s., 10d.; a ranakī (crupper) of leather, 4d.; a pālān (packsaddle), 102d.; a shāltang (shawl strap), and a palās-tang (blanket strap), $36\frac{1}{4}d$.; a tāqa tanāb (a rope for fastening the burden), 63d.; a qāṭir shalāq (a short whip), 6d.; a bell, one for every qaṭār. 10d.; a horse-hair saddle, 40d.; a kalāwa (vide Ā^aīn 45, No. 9) of leather, 13d.; a set of ropes, 9d.; a saddle cloth, $4\frac{1}{4}d$.: a sardoz (a common head stall), 4d.; a khuryīn (wallet), 15d.; a fodder-bag, 4d.; a magas-rān (to drive away flies) of leather, 1d.; a curry-comb and a hair-glove (for washing), 4d. Total $345\frac{1}{4}d$.

For country-bred mules the allowance is 151½ d., viz., a head stalf of leather, 4 d.; pack-saddle, 51 d. 18½ j.; the two straps, 16½ d.; a tāqa tanāb and sardoz, 40 d.; a bell, 5 d.; a fodder-bag, 3 d.; a crupper, 3 d.; a saddle, 24 d.; a curry-comb and a hair-glove, 4 d.

The furniture is renewed every third year; but for all iron and wood work, half the price is deducted. The annual allowance for the repair of the furniture is 40 d.; but on the march, the time of renewal depends on the wear. Mules are shod every six months at a cost of 8 d. per head.

Rach gaids is in charge of a keeper. Türänis, İranis, and Indians, are appointed to this office; the first two get from 400 to 1,920 d.; and the

third class, from 240 to 256 d. per mensem. Such keepers as have monthly salaries of 10 R. [400 d.] and upwards, have to find the peshang 1 (first mule of their qutar) in grain and grass. Experienced people inspect the mules twice a year as to leanness or fatness. Once a year they are paraded before His Majesty.

If a mule gets blind or lame, the muleteer is fined one-fourth of the

cost price; ond one-half, if it is lost.

Asses also are employed for carrying burdens and fetching water. They get 3 s. of grain, and 1 d. for grass. The furniture for asses is the same as that for country-bred mules, but no saddle is given. The annual allowance for repairs is 23 d. The keepers do not get above 120 d. per measem.

A in 72.

THE MANNER IN WHICH HIS MAJESTY SPENDS HIS TIME.

The success of the three branches of the government, and the fulfilment of the wishes of the subjects, whether great or small, depend upon the manner in which a king spends his time. The care with which His Majesty guards over his motives, and watches over his emotions, bears on its face the sign of the Infinite, and the stamp of immortality; and though thousands of important matters occupy, at one and the same time, his attention, they do not stir up the rubbish of confusion in the temple of his mind, nor do they allow the dust of dismay to settle on the vigour of his mental powers, or the habitual earnestness with which His Majesty contemplates the charms of God's world. His anxiety to do the will of the Creator is ever increasing; and thus his insight and wisdom are ever deepening. From his practical knowledge, and capacity for everything excellent, he can sound men of experience, though rarely casting a glance on his own ever extending excellence. He listens to great and small, expecting that a good thought, or the relation of a noble deed, may kindle in his mind a new lamp of wisdom, though ages have passed without his having found a really great man. Impartial statesmen, on seeing the sagacity of His Majesty, blotted out the book of their own wisdom, and commenced a new leaf. But with the magnanimity which distinguishes kim, and with his wonted zeal, he continues his search for superior men, and finds a reward in the care with which he selects such as are fit for his society.

^{[1} The pestung is selected for being a quick-stepper and for intelligence.-P.]

Although surrounded by every external pomp and display, and by every inducement to lead a life of luxury and ease, he does not allow his desires, or his wrath, to renounce allegiance to Wisdom, his sovereign—how much less would he permit them to lead him to a bad deed! Ever the telling of stories, which ordinary people use as a means of lulling themselves into sleep, serves to keep His Majesty awake.

Ardently feeling after God, and searching for truth, His Majest; exercises upon himself both inward and outward austerities, though hooccasionally joins public worship, in order to hush the slandering tongue of the bigots of the present age. But the great object of his life is the acquisition of that sound morality, the sublime loftiness of which captivates the hearts of thinking sages, and silences the taunts of sealous and sectarians.

Knowing the value of a lifetime, he never wastes his time, nor does he omit any necessary duty, so that in the light of his upright intentions every action of his life may be considered as an adoration of God.

It is beyond my power to describe in adequate terms His Majesty'. devotions. He passes every moment of his life in self-examination or in adoration of God. He especially does so at the time, when mornin spreads her azure silk, and scatters abroad her young, golden beams; and at noon, when the light of the world-illuminating sun embraces the universe, and thus becomes a source of joy for all men; in the evenin when that fountain of light withdraws from the eyes of mortal man, to the hewildering grief of all who are friends of light; and lastly at midnight when that great cause of life turns again to ascend, and to bring the new of renewed cheerfulness to all who, in the melancholy of the night, are stricken with sorrow. All these grand mysteries are in honour of God, and in adoration of the Creator of the world; and if dark-minded, ignoran men cannot comprehend their signification, who is to be blamed, and whose loss is it ! Indeed, every man acknowledges that we owe gratitude and reverence to our benefactors; and hence it is incumbent on us though our strength may fail, to show gratitude for the blessings w receive from the sun, the light of all lights, and to enumerate the benefit which he bestows. This is essentially the duty of kings, upon whom according to the opinion of the wise, this sovereign of the heavens shed an immediate light.1 And this is the very motive which actuates Hi Majasty to venerate fire and reverence lamps.

But why should I speak of the mysterious blessings of the sun, or

¹ Vide Abd 'l-Papl'e Preface, pp. iii and 40.

the transfer of his greater light to lamps? Should I not rather dwell on the perversences of those weak-minded sealots, who, with much concern, talk of His Majesty's religion as of a deification of the Sun, and the introduction of five-worship? But I shall dismiss them with a smile.

The compassionate heart of His Majesty finds no pleasure in cruelties, or in causing sorrow to others; he is ever sparing of the lives of his

subjects, wishing to bestow happiness upon all.

His Majesty abstains much from flesh, so that whole months pass away without his touching any animal food, which, though prized by most, is nothing thought of by the sage. His august nature cares but little for the pleasures of the world. In the course of twenty-four hours he never makes more than one meal. He takes a delight in spending his time in performing whatever is necessary and proper. He takes a little repose in the evening, and again for a short time in the morning; but his sleep looks more like waking.

His Majesty is accustomed to spend the hours of the night profitably; to the private audience hall are then admitted eloquent philosophers and virtuous Süfis, who are seated according to their rank and entertain His Majesty with wise discourses. On such occasions His Majesty fathoms them, and tries them on the touch-stone of knowledge. Or the object of an ancient institution is disclosed, or new thoughts are hailed with delight. Here young men of talent learn to revere and adore His Majesty, and experience the happiness of having their wishes fulfilled, whilst old men of impartial judgment see themselves on the expanse of sorrow, finding that they have to pass through a new course of instruction.

There are also present in these assemblies, unprejudiced historians, who do not mutilate history by adding or suppressing facts, and relate the impressive events of ancient times. His Majesty often makes remarks wonderfully shrewd, or starts a fitting subject for conversation. On other occasions matters referring to the empire and the revenue are brought up, when His Majesty gives orders for whatever is to be done in each case.

About a watch before daybreak, musicians of all nations are introduced, who recreate the assembly with music and songs, and religious strains; and when four ghapis are left till morning His Majesty retires to his private apartments, brings his external appearance in harmony with the simplicity of his heart, and launches forth into the ocean of contemplation. In the meantime, at the close of night, soldiers, merchants, peasants, tradespeople, and other professions gather round the palace, patiently waiting to catch a glimpse of His Majesty. Soon after daybreak, they are allowed to make the kornish (vide Å*in 74). After

this, His Majesty allows the attendants of the Harem to pay their compliments. During this time various matters of worldly and religious import are brought to the notice of His Majesty. As soon as they are settled, he returns to his private apartments and reposes a little.

he returns to his private apartments and reposes a little.

The good habits of His Majesty are so numerous that I cannot adequately describe them. If I were to compile dictionaries on this

subject they would not be exhaustive.

A'in 73.

REGULATIONS FOR ADMISSION TO COURT.

Admittance to Court is a distinction conferred on the nation at large; it is a pledge that the three branches of the government are properly looked after, and enables subjects personally to apply for redress of their grievances. Admittance to the ruler of the land is for the success of his government what irrigation is for a flower-bed; it is the field, on which

the hopes of the nation ripen into fruit.

His Majesty generally receives twice in the course of twenty-four hours, when people of all classes can satisfy their eyes and hearts with the light of his countenance. First, after performing his morning devotions, he is visible from outside the awning, to people of all ranks, whether they be given to worldly pursuits, or to a life of solitary contemplation, without any molestation from the mace-bearers. This mode of showing himself is called, in the language of the country, darsan (view); and it frequently happens that business is transacted at this time. The second time of his being visible is in the State Hall, whither he generally goes after the first watch of the day. But this assembly is sometimes announced towards the close of day, or at night. He also frequently appears at a window, which opens into the State Hall, for the transaction of business; or he dispenses there justice calmly and serenely, or examines into the dispensation of justice, or the merit of officers, without being influenced in his judgment by any predilections or anything impure and contrary to the will of God. Every officer of government then presents various reports, or explains his several wants, and is instructed by His Majesty how to proceed. From his knowledge of the character of the times, though in opposition to the practice of kings of past ages, His Majesty looks upon the smallest details as mirrors capable of reflecting a comprehensive outline; he does not reject that which superficial observers call unimportant, and counting the happiness of his subjects as essential to his own, never suffers his equanimity to be disturbed.

Whenever His Majesty holds court they beat a large drum, the sounds of which are accompanied by Divine praise. In this manner, people of all classes receive notice. His Majesty's sons and grandchildren, the grandees of the Court, and all other men who have admittance, attend to make the kornish, and remain standing in their proper places. Learned men of renown and skilful mechanics pay their respects; the Dăroghas and Bitikchīs (writers) set forth their several wants; and the officers of justice give in their reports. His Majesty, with his usual insight, gives orders, and settles everything in a satisfactory manner. During the whole time, skilful gladiators and wrestlers from all countries hold themselves in readiness, and singers, male and female, are in waiting. Clever jugglers and funny tumblers also are anxious to exhibit their dexterity and agility.

His Majesty, on such occasions, addresses himself to many of those who have been presented, impressing all with the correctness of his intentions, the unbiasedness of his mind, the humility of his disposition, the magnanimity of his heart, the excellence of his nature, the cheerfulness of his countenance, and the frankness of his manners; his intelligence pervades the whole assembly, and multifarious matters are easily and satisfactorily settled by his truly divine power.

This vale of sorrows is changed to a place of rest: the army and the nation are content. May the empire flourish, and these blessings endure?

Ā²in 74.

REGULATIONS REGARDING THE KORNISH AND THE TASLIM.

Superficial observers, correctly enough, look upon a king as the origin of the peace and comfort of the subjects. But men of deeper insight are of opinion that even spiritual progress among a people would be impossible unless emanating from the king, in whom the light of God dwells; for near the throne, men wipe off the stain of conceit and build up the arch of true humility.¹

With the view, then, of promoting this true humility, kings in their wisdom have made regulations for the manner in which people are to show their obedience. Some kings have adopted the bending down of the head. His Majesty has commanded the palm of the right hand to be placed upon the forehead and the head to be bent downwards. This

I Hence the presence of the king promotes humility, which is the foundation of all spiritual life. So especially in the case of Akhar, towards whom, as the head of the New Church, the subjects occupy the position of disciples. Vide As in 77 and the Note after it,

mode of salutation, in the language of the present age, is called kornisk, and signifies that the saluter has placed his head (which is the seat of the senses and the mind) into the hand of humility, giving it to the royal assembly as a present, and has made himself in obedience ready for any service that may be required of him.

The salutation, called *taslim*, consists in placing the back of the right hand on the ground, and then raising it gently till the person stands erect, when he puts the palm of his hand upon the crown of his head, which pleasing manner of saluting signifies that he is ready to give himself as an offering.

His Majesty relates as follows: "One day my royal father bestowed upon me one of his own caps, which I put on. Because the cap of the king was rather large, I had to hold it with my [right] hand, whilst bending my head downwards, and thus performed the manner of selutation (kornish) above described. The king was pleased with this new method, and from his feeling of propriety ordered this to be the mode of the kurnish and taslim.

Upon taking leave, or presentation, or upon receiving a mansab, a jāgir, or a dress of honour, or an elephant, or a horse, the rule is to make three taslīms; but only one on all other occasions, when salaries are paid, or presents are made.

Such a degree of obedience is also shown by servants to their masters, and looked upon by them as a source of blessings. Hence for the disciples of His Majesty, it was necessary to add something, vis., prostration 1 (sigda); and they look upon a prostration before His Majesty as a prostration performed before that; for royalty is an emblem of the power of God, and a light-shedding ray from this Sun of the Absolute.

Viewed in this light, the prostration has become acceptable to many, and proved to them a source of blessings upon blessings.

But as some perverse and dark-minded men look upon prostration as blasphemous man-worship, His Majesty, from his practical wisdom, has

The prostration, or eijds, is one of the positions at prayer, and is therefore looked upon by all Muhammadans as the exclusive right of God. When Akhar, as the head of his new faith, was treated by his flattering friends, perhaps against his calmer judgment, as the representative of God on earth, he had to allow prostration in the assemblies of the Elact. The people at large would never have submitted. The practice evidently pieased the emperor, because he looked with fondness upon every custom of the ancient Person kings, at whose courts the weakureir had been the usual salutation. It was August of Bariaghahān who invented the prostration when the emperor was till at Pathala (before 1596). The success of the innovation made Mullà Atlam of Kābul exchim, "O that I had been the inventor of this little business!" Bed. III, p. 153. Regarding Nigām, or Qhāsi Khān, ride Abū 'l-Fagl's list of Grandess, 2nd Book. No. 146. The eight as an article of Akbar's Divine Religion, will be again referred to in the note to A'In 77.

ordered it to be discontinued by the ignorant, and remitted it to all ranks, forbidding even his private attendants from using it in the Darbar-i Am (general court-days). However, in the private assembly, when any of those are in waiting, upon whom the star of good fortune shines, and they receive the order of seating themselves, they certainly perform the prostration of gratitude by bowing down their foreheads to the earth, and thus participate in the halo of good fortune.

In this manner, by forbidding the people at large to prostrate, but allowing the Elect to do so, His Majesty fulfils the wishes of both, and shows the world a fitting example of practical wisdom.

Å*in 75.

ON ETIQUETTE.

Just as spiritual leadership requires a regulated mind, capable of controlling covetousness and wrath, so does political leadership depend on an external order of things, on the regulation of the difference among men in rank, and the power of liberality. If a king possess a cultivated mind, his position as the spiritual leader of the nation will be in harmony with his temporal office; and the performance of each of his political duties will be equivalent to an adoration of God. Should anyone search for an example, I would point to the practice of His Majesty, which will be found to exhibit that happy harmony of motives, the contemplation of which rewards the searcher with an increase of personal knowledge, and leads him to worship this ideal of a king.¹

When His Majesty seats himself on the throne, all that are present perform the kornish, and then remain standing at their places, according to their rank, with their arms crossed,² partaking, in the light of his imperial countenance, of the clixir of life, and enjoying everlasting happiness in standing ready for any service.

The words of the text are ambiguous. They may also mean, and leads him to praise me as the man who directed him towards this example.

The finger tips of the left hand touch the right elbow, and those of the right hand the left elbow; or, the fingers of each hand rest against the inner upper arm of the opposite side. The lower arms rest on the kamarband. When in this position, a servant is called anida-yi khidmat, or ready for service. Sometimes the right foot also is put over the left, the toes of the furmer merely touching the ground. The shoes are, of course, left outside at the saff-i nical. The emperor sits on the throne (vide Plate VII) with crossed legs, or chahar-ning, a position of comfort which Orientals allow to persons of rank. This nestion, however, is called freami nishast, or Pharach's mode of sitting, if assumed persons of no rank in the presence of strangers. Pharach—Orientals mean the Pharach of the time of Mosse—is proverbial in the Kast for vainglory. The position suitable for society is the duzānā mode of sitting, i.e., the person first kneels down with his body straight; he then lets the body gently sink till he sits on his heels, the arms being kept extended and the hands resting on the knees.

The eldest prince places himself, when standing, at a distance of one to four yards from the throne, or when sitting, at a distance from two to eight. The second prince stands from one and one-half to six yards from the throne, and in sitting from three to twelve. So also the third; but sometimes he is admitted to a nearer position than the second prince, and at other times both stand together at the same distance. But His Majesty generally places the younger princes affectionately nearer.

Then come the Elect of the highest rank, who are worthy of the spiritual guidance of His Majesty, at a distance of three to fifteen yards, and in sitting from five to twenty. After this follow the senior grandees from three and a half yards, and then the other grandees, from ten or twelve and a half vards from the throne.

All others stand in the Yasal. One or two attendants 2 stand nearer than all.

Ā⁴īn 76.

THE MUSTER OF MEN.

The business which His Majesty daily transacts is most multifarious; hence I shall only describe such affairs as continually recur.

A large number of men are introduced on such days, for which an Anjuman-i Dūd o Dihish, or assembly of expenditure, has been announced. Their ments are inquired into, and the coin of knowledge passes current. Some take a burden from their hearts by expressing a wish to be enrolled among the members of the Divine Faith; others want medicines for their diseases. Some pray His Majesty to remove a religious doubt; others again seek his advice for settling a worldly matter. There is no end to such requests, and I must confine myself to the nost necessary cases.

The salaries of a large number of nen 5 tron. Finan and Iran. Turkey and Europe, Hindustan and Kashmir, are fixed by the proper officers in

^{*} Yand ugaines the wing of an army, and here, the two sings into which the assembly is divided. The place before the turone remains free. One wing was generally occupied by the grandees of the Court and the thief functionaries; on the other wing stood the cur (rude p. 116), the Multie, and the Cliama, etc.

The servants who hold the saya-ban, Asin 19, or the fens.

² This is to be taken literally. The water on which Akbar breathed, was a universal remedy. Vide next A*in.

⁴ As settling a family-feud, recommending a matrimonial alliance, giving a new-born child a suitable name, etc.

Abū 'l-Fagi means men who were willing to serve in the several grades of the standing army. The standing army consisted of cavalry, artillery, and rifles. There was no regular infantry. Men who joined the standing army, in the beginning of Akbar's reign, brought their own horse and accourtements with them; but as this was found to be the cause of much inefficiency (wide Second Book, Å*in 1) a horse was given to each recruit on joining, for which he was answerable.

a manner described below, and the men themselves are taken before His Majesty by the paymasters. Formerly it had been the custom for the men to come with a horse and accoutrements; but nowadays only men appointed to the post of an Ahadī bring a horse. The salary as proposed by the officers who bring them is then increased or decreased, though it is generally increased; for the market of His Majesty's liberality is never dull. The number of men brought before His Majesty depends on the number of men available. Every Monday all such horsemen are mustered as were left from the preceding week. With the view of increasing the army and the zeal of the officers, His Majesty gives to each who brings horsemen, a present of two dāms for each horseman.

Special Bitikchīs * [writers] introduce in the same manner such as are fit to be Aḥadīs. In their case, His Majesty always increases the stipulated salary. As it is customary for every Aḥadī to buy * his own horse, His Majesty has ordered to bring to every muster the horses of any Aḥadīs who may have lately died, which he hands over to the newly appointed Aḥadīs either as presents or charging the price to their monthly salaries.

On such occasions. Senior Grandees and other Amīrs introduce also any of their friends, for whom they may solicit appointments. His Majesty then fixes the salaries of such candidates according to circumstances; but appointments under fifty rupees per mensem are rarely ever solicited in this manner.

Appointments to the Imperial workshops also are made in such assemblies, and the salaries are fixed.

Ā*in 77.

HIS MAJESTY 4 AS THE SPIRITUAL GUIDE OF THE PEOPLE.

God, the Giver of intellect and the Creator of matter, forms mankind as He pleases, and gives to some comprehensiveness, and to others narrowness of disposition. Hence the origin of two opposite tendencies

³ A⁵ in 4 of the second book mentions only one officer appointed to recruit the ranks of Ahadis.

As Ahadis drew a higher salary (II, A*in 4) they could buy, and maintain, horses of a superior kind.

So according to two MSS. My text edition, p. 158, l. 10, has As it is not customary for Ahadis to buy a horse, etc. Both readings give a sense, though I should prefer the omission of the negative word. According to A⁵In 4 of the second book, an Ahadi was supplied with a horse when his first horse had died. To such cases the negative phrase would refer. But it was customary for Ahadis to bring their own horse on joining; and thus is the case which Abū 'l-Fasl evidently means; for in the whole A⁵In he speaks of newcomers.

⁴ A note will be found at the end of this Asin.

among men, one class of whom turn to religious $(d\bar{\imath}n)$ and the other class to worldly thoughts $(duny\bar{d})$. Each of these two divisions selects different leaders, and mutual repulsiveness grows to open rupture. It is then that men's blindness and silliness appear in their true light; it is then discovered how rarely mutual regard and charity are to be met with.

But have the religious and the worldly tendencies of men no common ground? Is there not everywhere the same enrapturing beauty 2 which beams forth from so many thousand hidden places? Broad indeed is the carpet 3 which God has spread, and beautiful the colours which He has given it.

The Lover and the Beloved are in reality one; ⁴
Idle talkers speak of the Brahmin as distinct from his idol.
There is but one lamp in this house, in the rays of which,
Wherever I look, a bright assembly meets me.

One man thinks that by keeping his passions in subjection he worships God; and another finds self-discipline in watching over the destinies of a nation. The religion of thousands of others consists in clinging to an idea; they are happy in their sloth and unfitness of judging for themselves. But when the time of reflection comes, and men shake off the prejudices of their education, the threads of the web of religious blindness break, and the eye sees the glory of harmoniousness.

But the ray of such wisdom does not light up every house, nor could every heart bear such knowledge. Again, although some are enlightened, many would observe silence from fear of fanatics, who lust for blood, but look like men. And should anyone muster sufficient courage, and

As prophets, the leaders of the Church; and kings, the leaders of the State.

God. He may be worshipped by the meditative and by the active man. The former speculates on the essence of God, the latter rejoices in the beauty of the world, and does his duty as man. Both represent tendencies apparently antagonistic; but as both strive after God, there is a ground common to both. Hence mankind ought to learn that there is no real antagonism between din and dunyd. Let men rally round Akbar, who joins Safic depth to practical wisdom. By his example, he teaches men how to adore God in doing one's duties; his superhuman knowledge proves that the light of God dwells in him. The surest way of pleasing God is to obey the king. The reader will do well to compare Abū 'l-Farl's preface with this Å*in

The world.

4 These Safic lines illustrate the idea that "the same enrapturing beauty" is everywhere, God is everywhere, in everything; hence everything is God. Thus God the Beloved, dwells in man, the lover, and both are one, Brahmin:=man, the idol=God lamp=thought of God, house=man's heart. The thoughtful man sees everywhere "the bright assembly of God's works".

[&]quot;The text has taglid, which means to put a collar on one's own neck, to follow another blindly, especially in religious matters. "All things which refer to prophetship and revealed religion they [Abū 'l-Fazl, Ḥakīm, Abū 'l-Fath, etc.] called taglidight, i.e., things against reason, because they put the basis of religion upon reason, not testimony. Besides, there came [during A.H. 983, or A.D. 1575] a great number of Portuguess, from whom they likewise picked up doctrines justifiable by reasoning." Badā,oni II, p. 381.

openly proclaim his enlightened thoughts, pious simpletons would call him a mad man, and throw him aside as of no account, whilst ill-starred wretches would at once think of heresy and atheism, and go about with the intention of killing him.

Whenever, from lucky circumstances, the time arrives that a nation learns to understand how to worship truth, the people will naturally look to their king, on account of the high position which he occupies, and expect him to be their spiritual leader as well; for a king possesses, independent of men, the ray of Divine wisdom, which banishes from his heart everything that is conflicting. A king will therefore sometimes observe the element of harmony in a multitude of things, or sometimes reversely, a multitude of things in that which is apparently one; for he sits on the throne of distinction, and is thus equally removed from joy or sorrow.

Now this is the case with the monarch of the present age, and this book is a witness of it.

Men versed in foretelling the future knew this when His Majesty was born,² and together with all others that were cognizant of the secret, they have since been waiting in joyful expectation. His Majesty, however, wisely surrounded himself for a time with a veil, as if he were an outsider, or a stranger to their hopes. But can man counteract the will of God? His Majesty, at first, took all such by surprise as were wedded to the prejudices of the age; but he could not help revealing his intentions; they grew to maturity in spite of him, and are now fully known. He now is the spiritual guide of the nation, and sees in the performance of this duty a means of pleasing God. He has now opened the gate that leads to the right path, and satisfies the thirst of all that wander about panting for truth.

But whether he checks men in their desire of becoming disciples, or admits them at other times, he guides them in each case to the realm of bliss. Many sincere inquirers, from the mere light of his wisdom, or his holy breath, obtain a degree of awakening which other spiritual doctors

¹ Vide Abū 'l-Fazl's preface, p. iii, l. 19.

This is an allusion to the wonderful event which happened at the birth of the emperor. Akbar spoke, "From Mirza Shāh Muhammad, called Ghaznīn Khān, son of Shāh Begkhān, who had the title of Dawrān Khān, and was an Arghūn by birth." The author heard him say at Lāhor, in A.H. 1053, "I saked Nawāb ÇAzīz Kokah, who has the title of Khān a Agam [vide List of Grandees, second Book, Āsīn 30], whether the late emperor, like the Messish, had really spoken with his august mother. He replied, "His mother told me it was true." Davistān vi Mazākib, Calcutta edition, p. 390. Bombay edition, p. 260. The words which Christ spoke in the cradle, are given in the Qursān, Sūr. 19, and in the spurious gospel of the Infancy of Christ, pp. 5, 111.

could not produce by repeated fasting and prayers for forty days. Numbers of those who have renounced the world, as Sannasis, Jogis, Sewas, Qalandars, Hakims, and Sufis, and thousands of such as follow worldly pursuits as soldiers, tradespeople, mechanics, and husbandmen, have daily their eyes opened to insight, or have the light of their knowledge increased. Men of all nations, young and old, friends and strangers, the far and near, look upon offering a vow to His Majesty as the means of solving all their difficulties, and bend down in worship on obtaining their desire. Others again, from the distance of their homes, or to avoid the crowds gathering at Court, offer their vows in secret, and pass their lives in grateful praises. But when His Majesty leaves Court, in order to settle the affairs of a province, to conquer a kingdom, or to enjoy the pleasures of the chase, there is not a hamlet, a town, or a city that does not send forth crowds of men and women with vow-offerings in their hands, and prayers on their lips, touching the ground with their foreheads, praising the efficacy of their vows, or proclaiming the accounts of the spiritual assistance received. Other multitudes ask for lasting bliss, for an upright heart, for advice how best to act, for strength of the body, for enlighten ment, for the birth of a son, the reunion of friends, a long life, increase of wealth, elevation in rank, and many other things. His Majesty, who knows what is really good, gives satisfactory answers to every one, and applies remedies to their religious perplexities. Not a day passes but people bring cups of water to him, beseeching him to breathe upon it. He who reads the letters of the divine orders in the book of fate, on seeing the tidings of hope, takes the water with his blessed hands, places it in the rays of the world-illuminating sun, and fulfils the desire of the suppliant. Many sick people 1 of broken hopes, whose diseases the most eminent physicians pronounced incurable, have been restored to health by this divine means.

A more remarkable case is the following. A simple-minded recluse had cut off his tongue, and throwing it towards the threshold of the naisce, said, " If that certain blissful thought," which I just now have, has been put into my heart by God, my tongue will get well; for the sincerity of my belief must lead to a happy issue." The day was not ended before he obtained his wish.

and out in what condition I am lying here.

^{1 &}quot;He [Akhar] showed himself every morning at a window, in front of which multitudes came and grustrated themselves; while women brought their sick infants for his benediction and effered presents on their recovery." From the account of the Goa Missionaries who came to Akhar in 1896, in Marray's Discoverses in Asia, II, p. 96.

2 His thought was this. If Akhar is a prophet, he must, from his supernatural windom,

Those who are acquainted with the religious knowledge and the piety of His Majesty, will not attach any importance to some of his customs,1 remarkable as they may appear at first; and those who know His Majesty's charity and love of justice, do not even see anything remarkable in them. In the magnanimity of his heart he never thinks of his perfection, though he is the ornament of the world. 'Hence he even keeps back many who declare themselves willing to become his disciples. He often says, "Why should I claim to guide men before I myself am guided?" But when a novice bears on his forehead the sign of earnestness of purpose, and he be daily enquiring more and more, His Majesty accepts him. and admits him on a Sunday, when the world-illuminating sun is in its highest splendour. Notwithstanding every strictness and reluctance shown by His Majesty in admitting novices, there are many thousands, men of all classes, who have cast over their shoulders the mantle of belief, and look upon their conversion to the New Faith as the means of obtaining every blessing.

At the above-mentioned time of everlasting auspiciousness, the novice with his turban in his hands, puts his head on the feet of His Majesty. This is symbolical, and expresses that the novice, guided by good fortune and the assistance of his good star, has cast aside 2 conceit and selfishness, the root of so many evils, offers his heart in worship, and now comes to inquire as to the means of obtaining everlasting life. His Majesty, the chosen one of God, then stretches out the hand of favour, raises up the suppliant, and replaces the turban on his head, meaning by these symbolical actions that he has raised up a man of pure intentions, who from seeming existence has now entered into real life. His Majesty then gives the novice the Shast,4 upon which is engraved "The Great Name",5 and His Majesty's symbolical motto, "Allāh" Akhar." This teaches the novice the truth that

¹ He [Akbar] showed, besides, no partiality to the Muhammadans; and when in straits for money, would even plunder the mosques to equip his cavalry. Yet there remained in the breast of the monarch a stronghold of idolatry, on which they [the Portuguese missionaries] could never make any impression. Not only did he adore the sun, and make long prayers to it four times a day, he also held himself forth as an object of worship; and though exceedingly tolerant as to other modes of faith, never would admit of any encroachments on his own divinity." Murray's Discoveries, II, p. 95.

The text has rabbn-i hal, and a little lower down, zaban-i bezufani. Zaban-i hal, or

symbolical language is opposed to zabān-i mayal, spoken words.

Or rather, from his head, as the text has, because the casting saids of selfishness in symbolically expressed by taking off the turban. To wear a turban is a distinction.

4 Shart means aim; secondly, anything round, either a ring, or a thread, as the Brahminical thread. Here a ring seems to be meant. Or it may be the likeness of the Emperor which, according to Badāonī, the members were on their turbans.

The Great Name is a name of God. "Some say it is the word Allak; others say it

is As-Samad, the eternal; others Al-Hayy, the living; others Al-Qayyam, the everlasting;

" The pure Shast and the pure sight never err."

Seeing the wonderful habits of His Majesty, his sincere attendants are guided, as circumstances require it; and from the wise counsels they receive they soon state their wishes openly. They learn to satisfy their thirst in the spring of divine favour, and gain for their wisdom and motives renewed light. Others, according to their capacities are taught wisdom in excellent advices.

But it is impossible, while speaking of other matters besides, to give a full account of the manner in which His Majesty teaches wisdom, heals dangerous diseases, and applies remedies for the severest sufferings. Should my occupations allow sufficient leisure, and should another term of life be granted me, it is my intention to lay before the world a separate volume on this subject.

Ordinances of the Divine Faith.

The members of the Divine Faith, on seeing each other, observe the following custom. One says, "Allāh" Akbar," and the other responds. "Jall" Jallāluh"." The motive of His Majesty in laying down this mode of salutation, is to remind men to think of the origin of their existence, and to keep the Deity in fresh, lively, and grateful remembrance.

It is also ordered by His Majesty that, instead of the dinner usually given in remembrance of a man after his death, each member should prepare a dinner during his lifetime, and thus gather provisions for his last journey.

Each member is to give a party on the anniversary of his birthday,

others, Ar-Rahman, ar-ruhim, the element and merciful; others Al-Mukaymin, the protector." Chiyda. "Qārī Hamīda 'd-Dīn of Nāgor says, the Great Name is the word Hā, or He (God), because it has a reference to God's nature, as it shows that He has no other at His side. Again, the word hū is a root, not a derivative. All epithets of God are contained in it." Kashfa'l-Lughāt.

1 There formulæ remind us of Akbar's name, Jallāla 'd-Dīn Muḥammad Akbar. The

These formulæ remind us of Akbar's name, Jallāla'd-Dīn Muḥammad Akbar. The words Allāha Akbar are ambiguous; they may mean, God is great, or Akbar is God. There is no doubt that Abhar liked the phrase for its ambiguity; for it was used on coins, the Imperial seals, and the heading of books, farmans, etc. Ha era was called the Durine era; his faith, the Divine faith; and the note at the end of this Å'la shows how Akbar, starting from the idea of the Divine right of kings, gradually came to look upon himself as the Mujinkid of the age, then as the prophet of God and God's Vice-regent on earth, and lastly as a Deity. "It was during these days [A.H. 963, or A.D. 1575-6] that His Majesty once ashed how people would like it if he ordered the words Allāha Akbar to be cut on the Imperial seal and the dies of his coins. Most said, people would like it very much. But Hall Ibrāhīm objected, and said, the phrase had an ambiguous meaning, and the emperor thing), because it involved no ambiguity. But His Majesty got displeased, and said it was surely sufficient that no man who felt his weakness would claim Divinity; he merely lenged to the sound of the words, and he had never thought that a thing could be carried to such an extreme." Buddonf, po 210.

and arrange a sumptuous feast. He is to bestow alms, and thus prepare

provisions for the long journey.

His Majesty has also ordered that members should endeavour to abstain from eating flesh. They may allow others to eat flesh without touching it themselves; but during the month of their birth they are not even to approach meat. Nor shall members go near anything that they have themselves slain; nor eat of it. Neither shall they make use of the same vessels with butchers, fishers, and birdcatchers.

Members should not cohabit with pregnant, old, and barren women; nor with girls under the age of puberty.

Note by the Translator on the Religious Views of the Emperor Akbar.

In connexion with the preceding A*in, it may be of interest for the general reader, and of some value for the future historian of Akbar's reign, to collect, in form of a note, the information which we possess regarding the religious views of the Emperor Akbar. The sources from which this information is derived, are, besides Abū 'l-Fazl's Aein, the Muntakhab" 't-Tavarikh by 'Abdu l-Qadir ibn-i Mulük Shah of Badaonregarding whom I would refer the reader to p. 110, and to a longer article in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for 1869 and the Dabistan" 'l-Mazāhib,1 a work written about sixty years after Akbar's death by an unknown Muhammadan writer of strong Parsi tendencies. Nor must we forget the valuable testimony of some of the Portuguese missionaries whom Akbar called from Gos, as Rodolpho Aquaviva, Antonio de Monserrato. Francisco Enriques, etc., of whom the first is mentioned by Abū 'l-Fazl under the name of Pādrī Radalf.2 There exist also two articles on Akbar's religious views, one by Captain Vans Kennedy, published in the second volume of the Transactions of the Bombay Literary Society, and another by the late Horace Hayman Wilson, which had originally appeared in the Calcutta Quarterly Oriental Magazine, vol. i, 1824, and has been reprinted in the second volume of Wilson's works, London, 1862. Besides, a few extracts from Badāonī, bearing on this subject, will be found in Sir H. Elliott's Bibliographical Index to the Historians of Muhammadan India, p. 243 ff. The proceedings of the Portuguese missionaries at Akhar's Court are described in Murray's

² Not Padre Radif, باعري ردين, as in Elphinstone's history, but ماني, the letter (اطعه) having been mistaken for a (148).

¹ Printed at Calcutta in 1809 with a short dictionary, and reprinted at Bombay A.H. 1272 [A.D. 1856]. This work has also been translated into English at the cost of the Oriental Translation Fund.

Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Asia, Edinburgh, 1820, vol. ii.

I shall commence with extracts from Badaoni. The translation is literal, which is of great importance in a difficult writer like Badaoni.

Abū 'l-Fazi's second introduction to Akbar. His pride.

[Badāoni, edited by Mawlawi Āghā Ahmad Ali, in the Bibliotheca Indica, vol. ii, p. 198.]

It was during these days [end of 982 A.H.] that Abu 'l-Fazl, son of Shavkh Mubarak of Nagor, came the second time to court. He is now styled Allami. He is the man that set the world in flames. He lighted up the lamp of the Sabāhīs, illustrating thereby the story of the man who, because he did not know what to do, took up a lamp in broad daylight, and representing himself as opposed to all sects, tied the girdle of infallibility round his waist, according to the saying, "He who forms an opposition, gains power." He laid before the Emperor a commentary on the Augin 'l-kurei." which contained all subtleties of the Ouran: and though people said that it had been written by his father, Abū'l-Fazl was much praised. The numerical value of the letters in the words Tofsir-i Akbari (Akbar's commentary) gives the date of composition [963]. But the emperor praised it, chiefly because he expected to find in Abū 'l-Fazi a man capable of teaching the Mullas a lesson, whose pride certainly resembles that of Pharaoh, though this expectation was opposed to the confidence which His Majesty had placed in me.

The reason of Abū 'l-Fazl's opinionativeness and pretensions to infallibility was this. At the time when it was customary to get hold of, and kill such as tried to introduce innovations in religious matters (as had been the case with Mir Ḥabshī and others) Shavkh 'Abd' 'n-Nabī and Makhdām' 'l-Mulk, and other learned men at court, unanimously

he year 1990 A.H. comme 981—3rd May, 1573 982—23rd April, 1574 983—12th April, 1575 984—31st March, 1576 985—21st March, 1577 986—10th March, 1578 987—28th February, 1579 988—17th February, 1591 999—3th February, 1581 990—26th January, 1582 991—15th January, 1583

992 -- 4th January, 1584

^a Qur., Sår. II, 256.

y, 1572 (730 Style).
993--24th December, 1584
994--13th December, 1585
995--2nd December, 1586
996--22nd November, 1587
997--10th November, 1588
996--31st October, 1599
1999--20th October, 1591
1001--28th September, 1592
1902--17th September, 1593
1003--8th September, 1594
1004--27th August, 1596

As in the following extracts the years of the Hijrah are given, the reader may convert them according to this table:—
The year 1990 A.H. commenced 14th May, 1572 [Old Style].

represented to the emperor that Shaykh Mubarak also, in as far as he pretended to be Makdi, belonged to the class of innovators, and was not only himself damned, but led others into damnation. Having obtained a sort of permission to remove him, they dispatched police officers to bring him before the emperor. But when they found that the Shaykh, with his two sons, had concealed himself, they demolished the pulpit in his prayer-room. The Shaykh, at first, took refuge with Salim-i Chishti at Fathpur, who then was in the height of his glory, and requested him to intercede for him. Shaykh Salīm, however, sent him money by some of his disciples, and told him it would be better for him to go away to Gujrāt. Seeing that Salīm took no interest in him, Shaykh Muhārak applied to Mirzā Aziz Koka [Akbar's foster-brother], who took occasion to praise to the emperor the Shaykh's learning and voluntary poverty, and the superior talents of his two sons, adding that Mubarak was a most trustworthy man, that he had never received lands as a present, and that he [cAziz] could really not see why the Shavkh was so much persecuted. The emperor at last gave up all thoughts of killing the Shaykh. In a short time matters took a more favourable turn; and Abu 'l-Fazl when once in favour with the emperor (officious as he was, and time-serving, openly faithless, continually studying His Majesty's whims, a flatterer beyond all bounds) took every opportunity of reviling in the most shameful way that sect whose labours and motives have been so little appreciated,2 and became the cause not only of the extirpation of these experienced people, but also of the ruin of all servants of God, especially of Shaykhs, pious mon, of the helpless, and the orphans, whose livings and grants he cut down.

He used to say, openly and implicitly:-

O Lord, send down a proof 2 for the people of the world! Send these Nimrods 4 a gnat as big as an elephant! These Pharaoh-like fellows have lifted up their heads; Send them a Moses with a staff, and a Nile!

¹ Vide p. 113, note 2.

^{*} Badaoni belonged to the believers in the approach of the Millennium. A few years later, Akbar used Mahdawi rumours for his own purposes; ride below. The extract shows that there existed before 982, heretical innovators, whom the emperor allowed to be persecuted. Matters soon took a different turn.

That is, a man capable of teaching the GUlamis a lesson. Abû 'l-Farl means himself. A Nimrod, or Namrêd, and Pharach, are proverbial in the East for their pride. Nimrod was killed by a gnat which had crept through the nose to his brain. He could only relieve his pains by striking the crown of his head; but at last he died from the effects of his own blows.

And when in consequence of his harsh proceedings, miseries and misfortunes broke in upon the 'Ulamas (who had persecuted him and his father), he applied the following Rubā's to them:—

I have set fire to my barn with my own hands, As I am the incendiary, how can I complain of my enemy? No one is my enemy but myself, Woe is me! I have torn my garment with my own hands.

And when during disputations people quoted against him the edict of any Mujtahid, he used to say, "Oh don't bring me the arguments of this sweetmeat-seller and that cobbler, or that tanner!" He thought himself capable of giving the lie to all Shaykhs and 'Ulamas.

Commencement of the Disputations. [Badaoni II, p. 200.]

"During the year 983 A.H., many places of worship were built at the command of His Majesty. The cause was this. For many years previous to 983 the emperor had gained in succession remarkable and decisive victories. The empire had grown in extent from day to day; everything turned out well, and no opponent was left in the whole world. His Majesty had thus leisure to come into nearer contact with ascetics and the disciples of the Musinivyah sect, and passed much of his time in discussing the word of God (Qursan), and the word of the prophet (the Hadis, or Tradition). Questions of Süfism, scientific discussions, inquiries into philosophy and law, were the order of the day. His Majesty passed whole nights in thoughts of God; he continually occupied himself with pronouncing the names Yā Hū and Yā Hādī, which had been mentioned to him. and his heart was full of reverence for Him who is the true Giver. From a feeling of thankfulness for his past successes, he would sit many a morning alone in prayer and melancholy, on a targe flat stone of an old building which lay near the palace in a lonely epot, with his head bent over his chest, and gathering the bliss of early hours."

In his religious habits the emperor was confirmed by a story which be had heard of Sulayman, ruler of Bengal, who, in company with 150

* By some ascetic. I'd Ha means O He (Go4), and Ya Hodi, OG ide. The frequent repetition of such names is a means of knowledge. Some fagirs repeat them several thousand times during a night.

¹ A man of infallible authority in his explanations of the Muhammaden law. There are few Mujtahula. Among the oldest there were several who piled a trade at the same time. The preceding Rulati is translated by Sir H. Elbot in the Muhammaden Historians of India, p. 244.

The edition of Badaoni calls him كراني Karardni. He is sometimes called Kardni, sometimes Karaani. He reigned in Bengal from 971 to 980, or A.D. 1563 to 1573.

Shavkhs and Ulamas, held every morning a devotional meeting, after which he used to transact state business; as also by the news that Mirzā Šulaymān, a prince of Süfī tendencies, and a Sāķib-i hāl 1 was coming to him from Badakhshan.

Among the religious buildings was a meeting place near a tank called Anüptaläo, where Akbar, accompanied by a few courtiers, met the CUlamas and lawyers of the realm. The pride of the CUlamas, and the heretical (Shīcitic) subjects discussed in this building, caused Mulla Sherī, a poet of Akbar's reign, to compose a poem in which the place was called a temple of Pharaoh and a building of Shaddad (vide Qur., Sür. 89). The result to which the discussions led will be seen from the following extract.

[Bad. II, p. 202.]

"For these discussions, which were held every Thursday 2 night, His Majesty invited the Sayvids, Shaykhs, SUlamas, and grandees, by turn. But as the guests generally commenced to quarrel about their places, and the order of precedence, His Majesty ordered that the grandees should sit on the east side; the Sayyids on the west side; the Sulamas to the south; and the Shaykhs to the north. The emperor then used to go from one side to the other and make his inquiries . . . when all at once, one night, 'the vein of the neck of the 'Ulamas of the age swelled up,' and a horrid noise and confusion ensued. His Majesty got very angry at their rude behaviour, and said to me [Badāonī], 'In future report any of the 'Ulamas that cannot behave and that talks nonsense, and I shall make him leave the hall.' I gently said to Asaf Khan, 'If I were to carry out this order, most of the 'Ulamas would have to leave,' when His Majesty suddenly asked what I had said. On hearing my answer, he was highly pleased, and mentioned my remark to those sitting near him."

Soon after, another row occurred in the presence of the Emperor.

[Bad. II, p. 210.]

"Some people mentioned that Haji Ibrahim of Sarhind had given a decree, by which he made it legal to wear red and yellow clothes, quoting at the same time a Tradition as his proof. On hearing this, the Chief Justice, in the meeting hall, called him an accursed wretch, abused him, and lifted up his stick in order to strike him, when the Hājī by some subterfuges managed to get rid of him."

she day at sumest, it is our Thursday night.

As women may use.

¹ Hell is the state of costusy and slose union with God into which Salis bring themselves by silent thought, or by pronouncing the name of God.

2 The text has sleet Junes, the night of Friday; but se Muhammadans commence

Akbar was now fairly disgusted with the 'Ulamas and lawyers; he never pardoned pride and conceit in a man, and of all kinds of conceit, the conceit of learning was most hateful to him. From now he resolved to vex the principal Ulamas; and no sooner had his courtiers discovered this, than they brought all sorts of charges against them.

[Bad. II, p. 203.]

"His Majesty therefore ordered Mawlana Abda 'llah of Sultanpur, who had received the title of Makhdum" 'l-Mulk, to come to a meeting, as he wished to annoy him, and appointed Hājī Ibrāhīm Shaykh Abū 'I-Fazi (who had lately come to court, and is at present the infallible authority in all religious matters, and also for the New Religion of His Majesty, and the guide of men to truth, and their leader in general), and several other newcomers, to oppose him. During the discussion, His Majesty took every occasion to interrupt the Mawlana when he explained anything. When the quibbling and wrangling had reached the highest point, some courtiers, according to an order previously given by His Majesty, commenced to tell rather queer stories of the Mawlana, to whose position one might apply the verse of the Qursan (Sur. XVI, 72), 'And some one of you shall have his life prolonged to a miserable age, etc.' Among other stories, Khan Jahan said that he had heard that Makhdum" 'l-Mulk 1 had given a fatwo, that the ordinance of pilgrimage was no longer binding, but even hurtful. When people had asked him the reason of his extraordinary fature, he had said, that the two roads to Makkah, through Persia and over Gujrat, were impracticable, because people, in going by land (Persia) had to suffer injuries at the hand of the Qizilbashes (i.e., the Shifah inhabitants of Persia), and in going by sea, they had to put up with indignities from the Portuguese, whose ship-tickets had pictures of Mary and Jesus stamped on them. To make use, therefore, of the latter alternative would mean to countenance idolatry; hence both roads were closed up.

"Khān Jahān also related that the Mawlānā had invented a clever trick by which he escaped paying the legal alms upon the wealth which he amassed every year. Towards the end of each year, he used to make over all his stores to his wife, but he took them back before the year had actually run out.2

¹ This extract as given by Sir H. Elliott on p. 244, conveys a wrong impression. Akker did not prohibit pilgrimages before A. H. 900,

² Alms are due on every surplus of stock or stores which a Sunni possesses at the end of a year, provided that surplus have been in his possesson for a whole year. If the wife, therefore, had the surplus for a part of the year, and the husband took it afterwards back, he escaped the paying of alms.

"Other tricks also, in comparison with which the tricks of the children of Moses are nothing, and rumours of his meanness and shabbiness, his open cheating and worldliness, and his cruelties said to have been practised on the Shaykhs and the poor of the whole country, but especially on the Aimadārs and other deserving people of the Panjāb—all came up, one story after the other. His motives, 'which shall be revealed on the day of resurrection' (Qur. LXXXVI, 9), were disclosed; all sorts of stories, calculated to ruin his character and to vilify him, were got up, till it was resolved to force him to go to Makkah.

"But when people asked him whether pilgrimage was a duty for a man in his circumstances, he said No; 1 for Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabī had risen to power, whilst the star of the Mawlānā was fast sinking."

But a heavier blow was to fall on the 'Ulamas. [Bad. II, p. 207.]

"At one of the above-mentioned meetings, His Majesty asked how many freeborn women a man was legally allowed to marry (by nikāh). The lawvers answered that four was the limit fixed by the prophet. The emperor thereupon remarked that from the time he had come of age, he had not restricted himself to that number, and in justice to his wives, of whom he had a large number, both freeborn and slaves, he now wanted to know what remedy the law provided for his case. Most expressed their opinions, when the emperor remarked that Shavkh Abdu 'n-Nabī had once told him that one of the Multahids had had as many as nine wives. Some of the 'Ulamas present replied that the Mujtahid alluded to was Ibn Abi Lava; and that some had even allowed eighteen from a too literal translation of the Qursan verse (Qur., Sür. IV, 3), 'Marry whatever women ye like, two and two,2 and three and three, and four and four,' but this was improper. His Majesty then sent a message to Shaykh SAbda 'n-Nabi, who replied that he had merely wished to point out to Akbar that a difference of opinion existed on this point among lawyers, but that he had not given a fature in order to legalize irregular marriage proceedings. This annoved His Majesty very much. 'The Shaykh,' he said, 'told me at that time a very different thing from what he now tells me.' He never forgot this.

"After much discussion on this point the Vlamas, having collected

I.e., he meant to say he was poor, and thus refuted the charges brought against him.

Thus they got 2-2, 3+3, 4+4=18. But the passage is usually translated, "Marry whatever women ye like, two, or three, or four." The Mujtahid, who took nine unto himself, translated "two-three-four"=9. The question of the emperor was most ticklish, because, if the lawyers adhered to the number four, which they could not well avoid, the hardmandage of Akbar's freeborn princesses was acknowledged.

every tradition on the subject, decreed, first, that by muteah [not by nikāh] a man might marry any number of wives he pleased; and, secondly, that muteah marriages were allowed by Imām Mālik. The Shīsahs, as was well known, loved children born in muteah wedlock more than those born by nikāh wives, contrary to the Sunnis and the Ahl-i Jamāsat.

"On the latter point also the discussion got rather lively, and I would refer the reader to my work entitled Najāt" 'r-rashīd [vide note 2, p. 104], in which the subject is briefly discussed. But to make things worse, Naqīb Khān fetched a copy of the Muwatta of Imām Mālik, and pointed to a Tradition in the book, which the Imām had cited as a proof against the legality of mutah marriages.

"Another night, Qāzī Yasqūb, Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl, Ḥājī Ibrāhīm, and a few others were invited to meet His Majesty in the house near the Anūptalā,o tank. Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl had been selected as the opponent, and laid before the emperor several traditions regarding mutsh marriages, which his father (Shaykh Mubārak) had collected, and the discussion commenced. His Majesty then asked me, what my opinion was on this subject. I said, 'The conclusion which must be drawn from so many contradictory traditions and sectarians customs, is this:—Imām Mālik and the Shīsahs are unanimous in looking upon mutsh marriages as legal; Imām Shāfisī and the Great Imām (Ḥanīfah) look upon mutsah marriages as illegal. But, should at any time a Qāzī of the Mālikī sect decide that mutsah is legal, it is legal, according to the common belief, even for Shāfisī's and Ḥanafīs. Every other opinion on this subject is idle talk.' This pleased His Majesty very much."

The unfortunate Shavkh Yacqub, however went on talking about the extent of the authority of a Qazī. He tried to shift the ground; but when he saw that he was discomfitted, he said, "Very well, I have

nothing else to say--just as His Majesty pleases "

"The Emperor then said, 'I herewith appoint the Maliki Qāzī Hasan 'Arab as the Qāzī before whom I lay this case concerning my wives, and you, Ya'qūb, are from to-day suspended.' This was immediately obeyed, and Qāzī Ḥasan on the spot gave a decree which made mut'ah marriages legal.

"The veteran lawyers, as Makhdum" 'l-Mulk. Qārī Yacqub, and others,

made very long faces at these proceedings.

"This was the commencement of 'their sere and yellow leaf'.

"The result was that, a few days later, Mawlana Jalala 'd-Din of Multan, a profound and learned man, whose grant had been transferred.

was ordered from Āgra (to Fathpūr Sīkrī) and appointed Qāzī of the realm. Qāzī Yaçqūb was sent to Gaur as District Qāzī.

"From this day henceforth, 'the road of opposition and difference in opinion' lay open, and remained so till His Majesty was appointed Mujtahid of the empire." [Here follows the extract regarding the formula Allāh" Akbar, given on p. 175, note 1.]

[Badāonī II, p. 211.]

"During this year [983], there arrived Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fatḥ, Hakīm Humāyūn (who subsequently changed his name to Humāyūn Qulī, and lastly to Ḥakīm Humām), and Nūrū 'd-Dīn, who as poet is known under the name of Qarārī. They were brothers, and came from Gīlān, near the Caspian Sea. The eldest brother, whose manners and address were exceedingly winning, obtained in a short time great ascendency over the Emperor; he flattered him openly, adapted himself to every change in the religious ideas of His Majesty, or even went in advance of them, and thus became in a short time a most intimate friend of Akbar.

"Soon after there came from Persia, Mullä Muḥammad of Yazd, who got the nickname of Yazīdī, and attaching himself to the emperor, commenced openly to revile the Ṣahābah (persons who knew Muhammad, except the twelve Imāms), told queer stories about them, and tried hard to make the emperor a Shīsah. But he was soon left behind by Bir Bar—that bastard!—and by Shaykh Abū'l-Fazl and Ḥakīm Abū'l-Fath, who successfully turned the emperor from the Islām, and led him to reject inspiration, prophetship, the miracles of the prophet and of the saints, and even the whole law, so that I could no longer bear their company.

"At the same time, His Majesty ordered Qāzī Jalāla 'd-Dīn and several 'Ulamās to write a commentary on the Quran; but this led to great rows among them.

"Deb Chand Rāja Manjhola—that fool—once set the whole court in laughter by saying that Allah after all had great respect for cows, else the cow would not have been mentioned in the first chapter (Sūrat" 'l-baqarah) of the Quran.

"His Majerty had also the early history of the Islām read out to him, and soon commenced to think less of the Saḥābah. Soon after, the observance of the five prayers and the fasts, and the belief in everything connected with the prophet, were put down as taqlīdī, or religious blindness, and man's reason was acknowledged to be the basis of all religion. Portuguese priests also came frequently; and His Majesty inquired into the articles of their belief which are based upon reason."

[Badaoni II, p. 245.]

"In the beginning of the next year [984], when His Majesty was at Dipālpūr in Mālwah, Sharīf of Āmul arrived. This apostate had run from country to country, like a dog that has burnt its foot, and turning from one sect to the other, he went on wrangling till be became a perfect heretic. For some time he had studied Sūfic nonsense in the school of Mawlānā Muḥammad Zāhid of Balkh, nephew of the great Shaykh Ḥusayn of Khwārazm, and had lived with derwishes. But as he had little of a derwish in himself, he talked slander, and was so full of conceit that they hunted him away. The Mawlāns also wrote a poem against him, in which the following verse occurs:—

"There was a heretic, Sharif by name, Who talked very big, though of doubtful fame.

"In his wanderings he had come to the Dakhin, where he made himself so notorious, that the king of the Dakhin wanted to kill him. he was only put on a donkey, and shown about in the city. Hindustan, however, is a nice large place, where anything is allowed, and no one cares for another, and people go on as they may. He therefore made for Malwah, and settled at a place five kos distant from the Imperial camp. Every frivolous and absurd word he spoke was full of venom, and became the general talk. Many fools, especially Persian heretics (whom the Islam casts out as people cast out hairs which they find in dough—such heretics are called Nugtawis, and are destined to be the foremost worshippers of Antichrist) gathered round him, and spread, at his order, the rumour that he was the restorer of the Millennium. The sensation was immense. As soon as His Majestv heard of him, he invited him one night to a private audience in a long prayer room, which had been made of cloth, and in which the emperor with his suite used to say the five daily prayers. Ridiculous in his exterior, ugly in shape, with his neck stooping forward. he performed his obeisance, and stood still with his arms crossed, and you could scarcely see how his blue eye (which colour 2 is a sign of hostility to our prophet) shed lies, falsehood, and hypocrisy There he stood for a long time, and when he got the order to sit down, he prostrated himself in worship, and sat down duzded (vide p. 188, note 2), like an Indian camel. He talked privately to His Majesty; no one dared to draw near them, but I cornetimes heard from a distance the word film (knowledge), because he spoke presty loud. He called his silly views 'the truth of truths ', or 'the groundwork of things '.

¹ Chasha-i array. Europeans have blue eyes. The expression is as old as Hark's and the Crusades.

"A fellow ignorant of things external and internal, From silliness indulging idle talk.

He is immersed in heresies infernal,
And prattles—God forbid!—of truth eternal.

"The whole talk of the man was a mere repetition of the ideas of Mahmud of Basakhwan (a village in Gilan), who lived at the time of Timur. Mahmud who had written thirteen treatises of dirty filth, full of such hypocrisy as no religion or sect would suffer, and containing nothing but fital, which name he had given to the 'science of expressed and implied language'. The chief work of this miserable wretch is entitled Bahr o Kūza (the Ocean and the Jug), and contains such loathsome nonsense, that on listening to it one's ear vomits. How the devil would have laughed in his face, if he had heard it, and how he would have jumper for joy! And this Sharif—the dirty thief—had also written a collection of nonsense, which he styled Tarashshuh-i Zuhūr, in which he blindly follows Mir SAbdu 'l-Awwal. This book is written in loose, deceptive aphorisms, each commencing with the words mifarmudand (the master said), a queer thing to look at, and a mass of ridiculous, silly nonsense. But notwithstanding his ignorance, according to the proverb, 'Worthies will meet,' he has exerted such an influence on the spirit of the age, and on the people, that he is now [in 1004], a commander of One Thousand and His Majesty's apostle for Bengal, possessing the four degrees of faith, and calling, as the Lieutenant of the emperor, the faithful to these degrees."

The discussions on Thursday evenings were continued for the next year. In 986, they became violent, in as far as the elementary principles of the Islām were chosen as subject, whilst formerly the disputations had turned on single points. The Ulamas, even in the presence of the emperor, often lost their temper, and called each other Kāfirs, or accursed.

[Bad. II, p. 255.]

"Makhdum also wrote a pamphlet against Shaykh Shod" 'n-Nabi, in which he accused him of the murder of Khizr Khān of Shirwan, who was suspected to have reviled the prophet, and of Mir Habshi, whom he had ordered to be killed for heresy. But he also said in the pamphlet that it was wrong to say prayers with Shod" 'n-Nabi, because he had been undutiful towards his father, and was, besides, afflicted with piles. Upon this, Shaykh Shod" 'n-Nabi called Makhdum a fool, and cursed him. The Shaykh Shod" 'n-Nabi called Makhdum a fool, and cursed him. The Shaykh Show broke up into two parties, like the Sibtis and Qibtis, gathering either round the Shaykh, or round Makhdum" l-Mulk; and the heretic innovators used this opportunity, to mislead the emperor

by their wicked opinions and aspersions, and turned truth into falsehood. and represented lies as truth.

"His Majesty till now [986] had shown every sincerity, and was diligently searching for truth. But his education had been much neglected; and surrounded as he was by men of low and heretic principles, he had been forced to doubt the truth of the Islam. Falling from one perplexity into the other, he lost sight of his real object, the search of truth; and when the strong embankment of our clear law and our excellent faith had once been broken through, His Majesty grew colder and colder, till after the short space of five or six years not a trace of Muhammadan feeling was left in his heart. Matters then became very different."

[Bad. II, p. 239.]

" In 984 the news arrived that Shah Tahmasp of Persia had died, and Shah lama's il II had succeeded him. The Tarikh of his accession is given in the first letters of the three words فتم ، دولت, and فالم على على على المارة (على المارة على المارة على المارة على المارة على المارة الم Shah Ismasil gave the order that any one who wished to go to Makkah could have his travelling expenses paid from the royal exchequer. Thus thousands of people partook of the spiritual blessing of pilgrimage, whilst here you daze not now [1004] mention that word, and you would expose yourself to capital punishment if you were to ask leave from court for this purpose."

[Bad. II, p 241.]

"In 985, the news arrived that Shah Isma'il, son of Shah Tahmasp had been murdered, with the consent of the grandees, by his sister Pari Jan Khanum. Mir Haydar, the riddle writer, found the Tarikh of his accession in the words Shahinshāh i rūi zamīn [984] 'a king of the face of the earth '. and the Tarikh of his death in Shahinshah-i zer-i zamin [985] 'a king below the face of the earth '.1 At that time also there appeared in Persia the great comet which had been visible in India (p. 240), and the consternation was awful, especially as at the same time the Turka conquered Tabriz, Shirwan, and Mazandaran. Sultan Muhammad Khudabanda, son of Shah Tahmasp, but by another mother, succeeded; and with him ended the time of reviling and cursing the Sahābah.

" But the heretical ideas had certainly entered Hindustan from Persia."

Printep's Tables (IInd edition, p. 308) give :—Takmasp, 922 to 963; Ismacii II, from 963 to 985.

As Tahmšep in his short Memoire (Pers. Ms. 782, As. Soc. Bengal) gives the word _D ail [830] as the Ttrikh of his accession, we have ;shmasp from 930 to 984; Ismacii II. 984 to 985.

BADA, ONI'S SUMMARY OF THE REASONS WHICH LED ARBAR TO RENOUNCE THE ISLAM.

[Bad. II, p. 256.]

The following are the principal reasons which led His Majesty from the right path. I shall not give all, but only some, according to the proverb, "That which is small, guides that which is great, and a sign of fear in a man points him out as the culprit."

The principal reason is the large number of learned men of all denominations and sects that came from various countries to court, and received personal interviews. Night and day people did nothing but inquire and investigate; profound points of science, the subtleties of revelation, the curiosities of history, the wonders of nature, of which large volumes could only give a summary abstract, were ever spoken of. His Majesty collected the opinions of every one, especially of such as were not Muhammadans, retaining whatever he approved of, and rejecting everything which was against his disposition and ran counter to his wishes. From his earliest childhood to his manhood, and from his manhood to old age, His Majesty has passed through the most various phases, and through all sorts of religious practices and sectarian beliefs, and has collected everything which people can find in books, with a talent of selection peculiar to him, and a spirit of inquiry opposed to every [Islamitic] principle. Thus a faith based on some elementary principles traced itself on the mirror of his heart, and as the result of all the influences which were brought to bear on His Majesty, they grew, gradually as the outline of a stone, the conviction in his heart that there were sensible men in all religions, and abstemious thinkers and men endowed with miraculous powers, among all nations. If some true knowledge was thus everywhere to be found, why should truth be confined to one religion, or to a creed like the Islam, which was comparatively new, and scarcely a thousand years old; why should one sect assert what another denies, and why should one claim a preference without having superiority conferred on itaelf.

Moreover, Sumanis 1 and Brahmins managed to get frequent private interviews with His Majesty. As they surpass other learned men in their treatises on morals, and on physical and religious sciences, and reach a high degree in their knowledge of the future, in spiritual power and human perfection, they brought preofs based on reason and testimony,

¹ Explained in Arab, dictionaries as a sect in Sind who believe in the transmigration of scale (sendough). Althor, as will be seen from the following, was convinced of the transmigration of scale, and therefore rejected the doctrine of resurrection.

for the truth of their own and the fallacies of other religions, and. inculcated their doctrines so firmly and so skilfully represented things as quite self-evident which require consideration, that no man, by expressing his doubts, could now raise a doubt in His Majesty, even if mountains were to crumble to dust, or the heavens were to tear asunder.

Hence His Majesty cast aside the Islamitic revelations regarding resurrection, the day of judgment, and the details connected with it, as also all ordinances based on the tradition of our prophet. He listened to every abuse which the courtiers heaped on our glorious and pure faith, which can be so easily followed; and eagerly seizing such opportunities, he showed in words and gestures, his satisfaction at the treatment which his original religion received at their hands.

How wise was the advice which the guardian gave a lovely being,

"Do not smile at every face, as the rose does at every zephyr." 1

When it was too late to profit by the lesson, "

She could but frown, and hang down the head.

For some time His Majesty called a Brahmin, whose name was Purukhotam, author of a commentary on the . . ., whom he asked to invent particular Sanscrit names for all things in existence. At other times, a Brahmin of the name of Debi was pulled up the wall of the castle, sitting on a cherpee, till he arrived near a balcony where the emperor used to aleep. Whilst thus suspended, he instructed His Majesty in the secrets and legends of Hinduism, in the manner of worshipping idols, the fire, the sun, and stars, and of revering the chief gods of these unbelievers. as Brahms, Mahādev, Bishn, Kishn, Ram, and Mahāmāī, who are supposed to have been men, but very likely never existed, though some, in their idle belief, look upon them as gods, and others as angels. His Majesty, on bearing further how much the people of the country prized their institutions; commenced to look upon them with affection. The doctrine of the transmigration of souls especially took a deep root in his heart, and he approved of the saying-" There is no religion in which the doctrine of transmigration has not taken firm root." Insincere flatterers composed treatises in order to fix the evidence for this doctrine; and as His Majesty reliahed inquiries into the sects of these infidels (who cannot be counted, so numerous they are, and who have no end of

<sup>Just as Althor Mad the sephyr of inquiry into other religious systems. But sophyre use also destructive; they scatter the petals of the ross.
The test has a few unintelligible words.
Perhapt in order not to get polluted, or because the baleony belonged to the Marces.</sup>

revealed books, but nevertheless, do not belong to the Ahl-i Kitāb, Jews. Christians, and Muhammadans), not a day passed but a new fruit of this loathsome tree ripened into existence.

Sometimes again, it was Shaykh Tāju 'd-Dīn of Dihli, who had to attend the emperor. This Shaykh is the son of Shaykh Zakariyā of Ajodhan. The principal Sulamas of the age call him Taju 'l-SArifin, or crown of the Sufis. He had learned under Shaykh Zaman of Panipat, author of a commentary on the Liwasih, and of other very excellent works, was in Süfism and pantheism second only to Shaykh Ibn Arabi. and had written a comprehensive commentary on the Nuzhat" 'l-Arwāh. Like the preceding, he was drawn up the wall of the castle. His Majesty listened whole nights to his Sufic trifles. As the Shaykh was not over strict 1 in acting according to our religious law, he spoke a great deal of the pantheistic presence, which idle Sūfīs will talk about, and which generally leads them to denial of the law and open heresy. He also introduced polemic matters, as the ultimate salvation by faith of Pharaoh - God's curse be upon him!--which is mentioned in the Fusus "'l-Hikam." or the excellence of hope over fear,3 and many other things to which men incline from weakness of disposition, unmindful of cogent reasons, or distinct religious commands, to the contrary. The Shaykh is therefore one of the principal culprits who weakened His Majesty's faith in the orders of our religion. He also said that infidels would, of course, be kept for ever in hell, but it was not likely, nor could it be proved, that the punishment in hell was eternal. His explanations of some verses of the Qurain or of the Tradition of our prophet, were often far-fetched. Besides, he mentioned that the phrase Insan-i Kāmil (perfect man) referred to the ruler of the age, from which he inferred that the nature of a king was holy. In this way, he said many agreeable things to the emperor, rarely expressing the proper meaning, but rather the opposite of what he knew to be correct. Even the sijdsh (prostration), which people mildly call zaminbos (kissing the ground), he allowed to be due to the Insan-i Kāmil; he looked upon the respect due to the king as a religious command, and called the face of the king Kasba-yi Murādāt, the sanctum of desires.

vulgue, he is and, free, and becomes a heretic.

Pharaob claimed divinity, and is therefore malfin, accurated by God. But according to some books, and among them the Fusic, Pharach repented in the moment of death,

¹ As long as a Safi conforms to the Qur² in he is sharff; but when he feels that be has drawn nearer to God, and does no longer require the ordinances of the professum

and acknowledged Mosca to be a true prophet.

The Islam mays, Al-Imon bayne 'l-khawf' we 'r-rijds, " Faith stands between fear and hope." Hence it is sin to fear God's wrath more than to hope for God's mercy; and so reversely.

and Qibla-vi hājāt, the cynosure of necessities. Such blasphemies 1 other people supported by quoting stories of no credit, and by referring to the practice followed by disciples of some heads of Indian sects. And

Other great philosophical writers of the age also expressed opinions, for which there is no authority. Thus Shaykh Yacqub of Kashmir, a wellknown writer, and at present the greatest authority in religious matters. mentioned some opinions held by Aynu 'l-Quzāt of Hamadān, that our prophet Muhammad was a personification of the divine name of Al-hadī (the guide), and the devil was the personification of God's name of Al-muzill (the tempter), that both names, thus personified, had appeared in this world, and that both personifications were therefore necessary.

Mulla Muhammad of Yazd, too, was drawn up the wall of the castle, and uttered unworthy, loathsome abuse against the first three Khalifahs, called the whole Sahābah, their followers and next followers, and the saints of past ages, infidels and adulterers, slandered the Sunnis and the Ahl-i Jamā at, and represented every sect, except the Shi ah, as damned and leading men into damnation.

The differences among the Ulamas, of whom one called lawful what the other called unlawful, furnished His Majesty with another reason for apostacy. The emperor also believed that the Ulamas of his time were superior in dignity and rank to Imam-i Ghazzālī and Imam-i Rāzī, and knowing from experience the flimsiness of his 'Ulamas, he judged those great men of the past by his contemporaries, and threw them aside.

Learned monks also came from Europe, who go by the name of Padre. They have an infallible head, called Pāpā. He can change any religious ordinances as he may think advisable, and kings have to submit to his authority. These monks brought the gospel, and mentioned to the emperor their proofs for the Trinity. His Majesty firmly believed in the truth of the Christian religion, and wishing to spread the doctrines of

As the zeminhos, or the use of holy names as Katbak (the temple of Makkah) or Qibbah (Makkah, in as far as people turn to it their face when praying).

¹ The text has an unintelligible sentence.

According to the Islam, God leads (Mddi) men to salvation, but also to ain and dammateem. God created also wickedness.

⁴ All-i jameCation term which is often joined with the word Sunnie. All religious ordinances are either based upon the Quran, or upon the Tradition; or upon the opinion crumanous are enter need upon the Qur'an, or upon the Tradition; or upon the opinion (sight) of famous Subbis; or lastly, upon times agreement, or the custom generally fellowed during the first century of the Hijrah. Hence Ahl-s james at comprises all such as believe times binding.

Two famous authorities in religious matters. The most popular books of Imam Channell are the Ibah 'i-Cullam and the Kimiya-3: assadat which, according to p. 103, was one of the few books which Akbar liked.

The text has apaly.

Jesus, ordered Prince Murād ¹ to take a few lessons in Christianity by way of auspiciousness, and charged Abū 'l-Farl to translate the Gospel. Instead of the usual Bism' 'llāh' 'r-raḥmān' 'r-raḥīm', ² the following lines were used—

Ay nām-i tu Jesus o Kiristū

(O thou those names are Jesus and Christ)

which means, "O thou whose name is gracious and blessed"; and Shaykh Faysi added another half, in order to complete the verse

Subhāna-ka lā siwā-ka Yā hū.

(We praise Thee, there is no one besides Thee, O God!)

These accursed monks applied the description of cursed Satan, and of his qualities; to Muhammad, the best of all prophets—God's blessings rest on him and his whole house!—a thing which even devils would not do.

Bir Bar also impressed upon the emperor that the sun was the primary origin of everything. The ripening of the grain in the fields, of fruits and vegetables, the illumination of the universe, and the lives of men, depended upon the Sun. Hence it was but proper to worship and reverence this luminary; and people in praying should face towards the place where he rises, instead of turning to the quarter where he sets. For similar reasons, said Bir Bar, should men pay regard to fire and water, stones, trees, and other forms of existence, even to cows and their dung, to the mark on the forehead and the Brahminical thread.

Philosophers and learned men who had been at Court, but were in diagrace, made themselves busy in bringing proofs. They said the sun was "the greatest light", the source of benefit for the whole world, the nourisher of kings, and the origin of royal power.

This was also the cause why the Nawrūz-i Jalālī was observed, on which day, since His Majesty's accession, a great feast was given. His Majesty also adopted different suits of clothes of seven different colours,

¹ Prince Murad was then about eight years old. Jahangir (Salim) was horn on Wednesday, the 17 Rabics 'I several 977. Three months after him, his sister Shahadda Khanum was born; and after her in the year 978 on 3rd Muharram (Bad. II, 132) Shah Murad, who got the nickname of Puhard, as he was born in the hills of Fathpür Sikri. Dänysi was born in Ajmir during the night between Tuesday and Wednesday, the 10th, the Jumada 'l-awwal 979.

¹⁰th, the Jumade, 'l-awwel 979.

The formula "Bisms' Wals", etc." is said by every schoolboy before he commences to read from his text book.

The words Ay nom-i to Jesus e Kiristo are taken from the Dabistan; the edition of Beda, onl has Ay nom-i to Jesus e Kiristo, which, though correct in metre (vide my "Presedy of the Persians", p. 33, No. 32), is improbable. The formula as given in the Dabistan has a common Magmawi metre (vide my "Presedy", p. 38, No. 31), and spells Jesus 3 to desux. The verse as given by H. Wilson (Works II, p. 387) has no metre.

2 Vide the Thrigh-i Multi, in the beginning of Book III.

each of which was worn on a particular day of the week in honour of the seven colours of the seven planets.

The emperor also learned from some Hindus, formulæ to reduce the influence of the sun to his subjection, and commenced to read them mornings and evenings as a religious exercise. He also believed that it was wrong to kill cows, which the Hindus worship; he looked upon cow-dung as pure, interdicted the use of beef, and killed beautiful men (?) instead of cows. The doctors confirmed the emperor in his opinion, and told him it was written in their books that beef was productive of all sorts of diseases and was very indigestible.

Fire-worshippers also had come from Nausārī in Gujrāt, and proved to His Majesty the truth of Zoroaster's doctrines. They called fire-worship "the great worship", and impressed the emperor so favourably that he learned from them the religious terms and rites of the old Pārsīs, and ordered Abū 'l-Fazl to make arrangements that sacred fire should be kept burning at court by day and by night, according to the custom of the ancient Persian kings, in whose fire-temples it had been continually burning; for fire was one of the manifestations of God, and "a ray of His rays".

His Majesty, from his youth, had also been accustomed to celebrate the Hom (a kind of fire-worship) from his affection towards the Hindu

princesses of his Harem.

From the New Year's day of the twenty-fifth year of his reign [988], His Majesty openly worshipped the sun and the fire by prostrations; and the courtiers were ordered to rise when the candles and lamps were lighted in the palace. On the festival of the eighth day of Virgo, he put on the mark on the forehead, like a Hindu, and appeared in the Audience Hall, when several Brahmins tied, by way of auspiciousness, a string with jewels on it round his hands, whilst the grandees countenanced these proceedings by bringing, according to their circumstances, pearls and jewels as presents. The custom of Rākhī (or tying pieces of clothes round the wrists as amulets) became quite common.

When orders in opposition to the Islām were quoted by people of other religions, they were looked upon by His Majesty as convincing, whilst Hinduism is in reality a religion in which every order is nonsense. The originator of our belief, the Arabian Saints, all were said to be adulterers and highway robbers, and all the Muhammadans were declared worthy of reproof, till at length His Majesty belonged to those of whom the Quran says (Sür 61, 8): "They seek to extinguish God's light with their mouths: But God will perfect his light though the infidels be averse

thereto." In fact, matters went so far that proofs were no longer required when anything connected with the Islâm was to be abolished.

Akbar publicly assumes the spiritual leadership of the nation.

[Bad. II, p. 268.]

"In this year [987], His Majesty was anxious to unite in his person the powers of the State and those of the Church; for he could not bear to be subordinate to any one. As he had heard that the prophet, his lawful successors, and some of the most powerful kings, as Amīc Tīmūr Ṣāḥib-qirān, and Mīrzā Ulugh Beg-i Gurgān, and several others, had themselves read the Khutha (the Friday prayer), he resolved to do the same, apparently in order to imitate their example, but in reality to appear in public as the Mujtahid of the age. Accordingly, on Friday, the first Jumāda 'l-awwal 987, in the Jāmīs Masjid of Fatḥpūr, which he had built near the palace, His Majesty commenced to read the Khutha. But all at once he stammered and trembled, and though assisted by others, he could scarcely read three verses of a poemi, which Shaykh Fayzī had composed, came quickly down from the pulpit, and handed over the duties of the Imām (leader of the prayer) to Ḥāfiz Muḥammad Amīn, the Court Khafīb. These are the verses:—

The Lord has given me the empire,
And a wise heart, and a strong arm,
He has guided me in righteousness and justice,
And has removed from my thoughts everything but justice.
His praise surpasses man's understanding,
Great is Ills power, Allaha Akhar!"

р. 269.]

As it was a nite customary in those days to speak ill of the doctrine and order and a Qurtan, and as Hindu wretches and Hinduizing Muhammadans apenly reviled our prophet, irreligious writers left out in the preference of the books the customary praise of the prophet, and after saying something to the praise of God, wrote eulogies of the emperor instead. It was it a ossible even to mention the name of the prophet, because these hors (as Abū I-Fagl, Fayzī, etc.) did not like it. This wicked innovation gave general offence, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and sowed the seed of evil throughout the content of the prophet, and also the prophet of the pro

Maxi for done in the Asin. "But Favri added the usual praise of the will, while Nail Liman, a short time before his death, at the pressing request of the man, it is but it is b

^{*} because books were sure to be copied; hence many would see the innovation and initiate it. As the formula "Biens Mah, etc.", had been changed to Allahs Akbar, we also not Allahs arbar in the I adding of books, as in the Asin.

put piously on their necks the collar of the Divine Faith, and called themselves disciples, either from fear or hope of promotion, though they thought it impossible to say our creed."

[pp. 270 to 272.]

"In the same year [987] a document made its appearance, which bore the signatures and seals of Makhduma 'l-Mulk, of Shavkh SAbda 'n-Nabi. sadru ş-sudur, of Qazī Jalalu 'd-Dīn of Multan, Qaziyu 'l-quzat of Şadr Jahan, the mufti of the empire, of Shaykh Mubarak, the deepest writer of the age, and of Ghazi Khan of Badakhshan, who stood unrivalled in the various sciences. The objects of the document was to settle the superiority of the Imam-isadil (just leader) over the Mujtahid, which was proved by a reference to an ill-supported authority. matter is a question, regarding which people differ in opinion; but the document was to do away with the possibility of disagreeing about laws, whether political or religious, and was to bind the lawyers in spite of themselves. But before the instrument was signed, a long discussion took place as to the meaning of ijtihad, and as to whom the term Mujtahid was applicable, and whether it really was the duty of a just Imam who, from his acquaintance with politics, holds a higher rank than the Mujtakid, to decide, according to the requirements of the times, and the wants of the age, all such legal questions on which there existed a difference of opinion. At last, however, all signed the document, some willingly, others against their convictions.

I shall copy the document verbatim.

The Document.

"Whereas Hindustan has now become the centre of security and peace—and the land of justice and beneficence, a large number of people, especially learned men and lawyers, have unnigrated and chosen this country for their home. Now we, the principal SUlamas, who are not only well versed in the several departments of the law and in the principles of jurisprudence, and well acquainted with the edicts which rest on reason or testimony, but are also known for our piety and honest intentions, have duly considered the deep meaning, first, of the verse of the Qurtan (Nar. IV, 62), "Obey God, and obey the prophet, and those who have authority among you," and secondly, of the genuine tradition. "Surely, the man who is dearest to God on the day of judgment, is the Imam-i SAdul: whosever obeys the Amīr, obeys Me; and Whosever rebels against him, rebels against Me," and thirdly, of several other proofs based on reasoning or testimony; and we have agreed that the rank of a Sultān-i Sādīl (a just ruler) is higher

in the eyes of God than the rank of a Mujthahid. Further we declare that the king of Islām, Amīr of the Faithful, shadow of God in the world, 'Abd'' 'l-Fath Jalāl' 'd-Dīn Muhammad Akbar Pādishāh-i ghāzī, whose kingdom God perpetuate, is a most just, a most wise, and a most Godfearing king. Should therefore, in future, a religious question come up, regarding which the opinions of the Mujtahids are at variance, and His Majesty, in his penetrating understanding and clear wisdom, be inclined to adopt, for the benefit of the nation and as a political expedient, any of the conflicting opinions which exist on that point, and issue a decree to that effect, we do hereby agree that such a decree shall be binding on us and on the whole nation.

"'Further, we declare that, should His Majesty think fit to issue a new order, we and the nation shall likewise be bound by it, provided always that such an order be not only in accordance with some verse of the Quran, but also of real benefit for the nation; and further, that any opposition on the part of the subjects to such an order as passed by His Majesty, shall involve damnation in the world to come, and loss of religion and property in this life.

"'This document has been written with honest intentions, for the glory of God, and the propagation of the Islām, and is signed by us, the principal 'Ulamas and lawyers in the month of Rajab of the year 987 of

the Hijrah.'

"The draft of this document when presented to the emperor, was in the handwriting of Shaykh Mubārak. The others had signed it against their will, but the Shaykh had added at the bottom that he had most willingly signed his name; for this was a matter which, for several years, he had been anxiously looking forward to.

"No sooner had His Majesty obtained this legal instrument, than the road of deciding any religious question was open; the superiority of intellect of the Imām was established, and opposition was rendered impossible. All orders regarding things which our law allows or disallows, were abolished, and the superiority of intellect of the Imām became law.

"But the state of Shaykh Abū 'l-Farl resembled that of the poet Hoyrasi of Samarqand, who after having been annoyed by the cool and sober people of Mā-wara 'n-nahr (Turkistān), joined the old foxes of Shistic Persia, and chose 'the readless road'. You might apply the proverb to him—' He prefers hell to shame on earth.'

The birthplace of the post Hoyrest is not exactly known, though he belongs to Twikistia. It is said that he was a great wine-hibber, and travelled about in search of places where wine-drinking was committed at. At last he settled at Käshän, and became a Birta. He was murdered there by a robber in 961.

"On the 16th Rajab of this year, His Majesty made a pilgrimage to Ajmir. It is now fourteen years that His Majesty has not returned to that place. On the 5th Shasban, at the distance of five kee from the town, the emperor alighted, and went on foot to the tomb of the saint (Musina 'd-Din). But sensible people smiled, and said, it was strange that His Majesty should have such a faith in the Khwaja of Ajmir, whilst he rejected the foundation of everything, our prophet, from whose 'akirt' hundreds of thousands of saints of the highest degree had sprung."

[p. 273.]

"After Makhdum" 'l-Mulk and Shaykh 'Abd" 'n-Nabī had left for Makkah (987), the emperor examined people about the creation of the Quran, elicited their belief, or otherwise, in revelation, and raised doubts in them regarding all things connected with the prophet and the imams. He distinctly denied the existence of Jinns, of angels, and of all other beings of the invisible world, as well as the miracles of the prophet and the saints; he rejected the successive testimony of the witnesses of our faith, the proofs for the truths of the Quran as far as they agree with man's reason, the existence of the soul after the dissolution of the body, and future rewards and punishments in as far as they differed from metempsychosis.

Some copies of the Qurain, and a few old graves

Are left as witnesses for these blind men.

The graves, unfortunately, are all silent,

And no one searches for truth in the Qurain.

An Id has come again, and bright days will come-like the face of the

And the cupbearer will again put wine into the jar-red like blood.

The reins of prayer and the muzzle of fasting-once more

Will fall from these asses—alas, alas ! 1

"His Majesty had now determined publicly to use the formula, 'There is no God, but God, and Akbar is God's representative.' But as this led to commotions, he thought better of it, and restricted the use of the formula to a few people in the Harem. People expressed the date of this event by the words fitnakā-yi ummat, the ruin of the Church (987). The emperor tried hard to convert Qutb" 'd-Din Muhammad Khān and Shāhbās Khān (wide List of grandees, 2nd book, Nos. 28 and 80), and several others. But they staunchly objected. Qutb" 'd-Din said, 'What would the kings of the West, as the Sultān of Constantinople, say, if he

^{3.} Badd, onl bewells the blindness of Akbar, Abd 'l-Fapi, etc., who threw away the testes of grace of the laids. (prayers, fasts).

heard all this. Our faith is the same, whether a man hold high or broad views.' His Majesty then asked him, if he was in India on a secret mission from Constantinople, as he showed so much opposition; or if he wished to keep a small place warm for himself, should he once go away from India, and be a respectable man there; he might go at once. Shāhbāz got excited, and took a part in the conversation; and when Bīr Bar—that hellish dog—made a sneering remark at our religion, Shāhbāz abused him roundly, and said, 'You cursed infidel, do you talk in this manner? It would not take me long to settle you.' It got quite uncomfortable when His Majesty said to Shāhbāz in particular, and to the others in general, 'Would that a shoeful of excrements were thrown into your faces.'"

[p. 276.]

"In this year the Tamghā (inland tolls) and the Jazya (tax on infidels), which brought in several krors of dāms, were abolished, and edicts to this effect were sent over the whole empire."

"In the same year a rebellion broke out at Jaunpūr, headed by Muḥammad Masaūm of Kābul, Muḥammad Masaūm Khān, Musizzu 'l-Mulk, Arab Bahādur, and other grandees. They objected to Akbar's innovations in religious matters, in as far as these innovations led to a withdrawal of grants of rent-free land. The rebels had consulted Mullā Muḥammad of Yazd (vide above, pp. 184, 191), who was Qāziyu 'l-quzāt at Jaunpūr; and on obtaining his opinion that, under the circumstances, rebellion against the king of the land was lawful, they seized some tracts of land, and collected a large army. The course which this rebellion took is known from general histories; vide Elphinstone, p. 511. Mullā Muḥammad of Yazd and Musizzu 'l-Mulk, in the beginning of the rebellion, were called by the emperor to Āgra, and drowned, on the road, at the command of the emperor, in the Jamnā.

"In the same year the principal Culamās, as Makhdū" 'l-Mulk, Shaykh Munawwar, Mullā SAbd" 'sh-Shukūr, etc., were sent as exiles to distant provinces."

[p. 278.]

"Hāji Ibrāhīm of Sarhind (vide above, p. 111) brought to court an old. worm-eaten MS. in queer characters, which, as he pretended, was written by Shaykh Ibn Arabi. In this book, it was said that the Sāḥib-i Zamān was to have many wives, and that he would shave his beard. Some of the characteristics mentioned in the book as belonging to him

¹ Sahib-i Zeman, or "Man of the Period", is a title frequently given to Imam Mahdi.

were found to agree with the usages of His Wajesty. He also brought a fabricated tradition that the son of a Sahābī tone who knew Muḥammad) had once come before the prophet with his beard cut off, when the prophet had said that the inhabitants of Paradise looked like that young man. But as the Haji during discussions, behaved imprudently towards Abū 'l-Fazl, Hakim Abū 'l-Fath and Shāh Fatha 'llah, he was sent to Rantanbhür, where he died in 994.

"Farmans were also sent to the leading Shaykhs and Ulamas of the various districts to come to Court, as His Majestv wished personally to inquire into their grants (vide 2nd book, Asin 19) and their manner of living. When they came, the emperor examined them singly, giving them private interviews, and assigned to them some lands, as he thought fit. But when he got hold of those who had disciples, or held spiritual soirées, or practised similar tricks, he confined them in forts, or expled them to Bengal or Bhakkar. This practice become quite common The poor Shavkhs, who were, moreover, left to the mercies of Hindu Financial Secretaries, forgot in exile their spiritual soirées, and had no other place where to live, except mouseholes."

[p. 288.]

"In this year [988] low and mean fellows, who pretended to be learned, but were in reality fools, collected evidences that His Majesty was the Sāhib-i Zamān, who would remove all differences of opinion among the seventy-two sects of the Islam. Sharif of Amul brought proofs from the writings of Mahmud of Basakhwan (cide above, p. 186), who had said that, in 990, a man would rise up who would do away with all that was wrong . . . 1 And Khwaja Mawlana of Shīraz, the heretic of Jafrdan, came with a pamphlet by some of the Sharifs of Makkah, in which a tradition was quoted that the earth would exist for 7,000 years, and as that time was now over, the promised appearance of Imam Mahdi would immediately take place. The Mawlana also brought a pamphlet written by himself on the subject. The Shisahs mentioned similar nonsense connected with Alī, and some quoted the following Rubati, which is said to have been composed by Nasir-i Khusraw, sor, according to some, by another poet :---

In 989, according to the decree of fate,

The stars from all sides shall meet together.

In the year of Leo, the month of Leo, and on the day of Leo. The Lion of God will stand forth from behind the veil.

¹ The text here does not give a clear meaning.
2 A Persian poet of the fifth century of the Hyrak. As he was a free-thinker and Shifah, his poems were much read at the time of Akbar. The Forkens: Jakangiri in full of verses from the works of this ancient post.

"All this made His Majesty the more inclined to claim the dignity of a prophet, perhaps I should say, the dignity of something else." 1

[p. 291.]

"At one of the meetings, the emperor asked those who were present to mention each the name of a man who could be considered the wisest man of the age; but they should not mention kings, as they formed an exception. Each then mentioned that man in whom he had confidence. Thus Hakim Humam (vide above, p. 184) mentioned himself, and Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl his own father.

"During this time, the four degrees of faith in His Majesty were defined. The four degrees consisted in readiness to sacrifice to the Emperor property, life, honour, and religion. Whoever had sacrificed these four things possessed four degrees; and whoever had sacrificed one of these four possessed one degree.

"All the courtiers now put their names down as faithful disciples

of the throne."

[p. 299.]

"At this time (end of 989), His Majesty sent Shaykh Jamāl Bakhtyār to bring Shaykh Qutbu 'd-Dīn of Jalesar who, though a wicked man, pretended to be 'attracted by God'. When Qutbu 'd-Dīn came, the emperor brought him to a conference with some Christian priests, and rationalists, and some other great authorities of the age. After a discussion the Shaykh exclaimed, 'Let us make a great fire, and in the presence of His Majesty I shall pass through it. And if any one else gets safely through, he proves by it the truth of his religion.' The fire was made. the Shaykh pulled one of the Christian priests by the coat, and said to him, 'Come on, in the name of God!' But none of the priests had the courage to go.

"Soon after the Shaykh was sent into exile to Bhakkar, together with

other faqirs, as His Majosty was jealous of his triumph.

"A large number of Shaviths and Faqirs were also sent to other places, mostly to Qandahār, where they were exchanged for horses. About the same time, the emperor captured a sect consisting of Shaviths and disciples, and known under the name of Ilākīs. They professed all sorts of nonsense, and practised deceits. His Majesty asked them whether they repented of their vanities. They replied, 'Repentance is our Maid.' And so they had invented similar names for the laws and religious commands of the Islām, and for the fast. At the command of His Majesty,

they were sent to Bhakkar and Qandahār, and were given to merchants in exchange for Turkish colts."

[p. 301.]

"His Majesty was now [990] convinced that the Millenium of the Islamitic dispensation was drawing near. No obstacle, therefore, remained to promulgating the designs which he had planned in secret. The Shavkhs and Ulamas who, on account of their obstinacy and pride, had to be entirely discarded, were gone, and His Majesty was free to disprove the orders and principles of the Islam, and to ruin the faith of the nation by making new and absurd regulations. The first order which was passed was that the coinage should show the era of the Millenium, and that a history of the one thousand years should be written, but commencing from the death of the Prophet. Other extraordinary innovations were devised as political expedients, and such orders were given that one's senses got quite perplexed. Thus the sijda, or prostration, was ordered to be performed as being proper for kings; but instead of sijda, the word zaminbos was used. Wine also was allowed, if used for strengthening the body, as recommended by doctors: but no mischief or impropriety was to result from the use of it, and strict punishments were laid down for drunkenness, or gatherings and uproars. For the sake of keeping everything within proper limits, His Majesty established a wine-shop near the palace, and put the wife of the porter in charge of it, as she belonged to the caste of wine-sellers. The price of wine was fixed by regulations, and any sick persons could obtain wine on sending his own name and the names of his father and grandfather to the clerk of the shop. Of course, people sent in fictitious names, and got supplies of wine; for who could strictly inquire into such a matter? It was in fact nothing else but licensing a shop for drunkards. Some people even said that pork formed a component part of this wine! Notwithstanding all restrictions, much mischief was done, and though a large number of people were daily punished, there was no sufficient check.

"Similarly, according to the proverb," 'Upset, but don't spill,' the prestitutes of the realm (who had collected at the capital, and could scarcely be counted, so large was their number), had a separate quarter of the town assigned to them, which was called Shaifanpura, or Devilouille.

A Dārogha and a clerk also were appointed for it, who registered the names of such as went to prostitutes, or wanted to take some of them to their houses. People might indulge in such connexions, provided the toll collectors knew of it. But without permission, no one was allowed to take dancing girls to his house. If any well-known courtiers wanted to have a virgin, they should first apply to His Majesty and get his permission. In the same way, boys prostituted themselves, and drunkenness and ignorance soon led to bloodshed. Though in some cases capital punishment was inflicted, certain privileged courtiers walked about proudly and insolently doing what they liked.

"His Majesty himself called some of the principal prostitutes and asked them who had deprived them of their virginity. After hearing their replies, some of the principal and most renowned grandees were punished or censured, or confined for a long time in fortresses. Among them His Majesty came across one whose name was Rāja Bīr Bar, a member of the Divine Faith, who had gone beyond the four degrees and acquired the four cardinal virtues.\(^1\) At that time he happened to live in his jāgīr in the Pargana of Karah; and when he heard of the affair, he applied for permission to turn Jogī; but His Majesty ordered him to come to Court, assuring him that he need not be afraid.

"Beef was interdicted, and to touch beef was considered defiling. The reason of this was that, from his youth, His Majesty had been in company with Hindu libertines, and had thus learnt to look upon a cow-which in their opinion is one of the reasons why the world still exists—as something holy. Besides, the Emperor was subject to the influence of the numerous Hindu princesses of the Harem, who had gained so great an ascendancy over him as to make him forswear beef, garlic, onions, and the wearing of a heard,2 which things His Majesty still avoids. He had also introduced, though modified by his peculiar views, Hindu customs and heresies into the court assemblies, and introduces them still, in order to please and win the Hindus and their castes; he abstained from everything which they think repugnant to their nature, and looked upon shaving the beard as the highest sign of friendship and affection for him. Hence this custom has become very general. Pandering pimps also expressed the opinion that the beard takes its nourishment from the testicles; for no eunuch had a beard; and one could not exactly see of what merit or

¹ Past²-il-i arbaça, or the four virtues, viz., hikmet wisdom; ahujdçat courage; Çiffat chastity; Çêdâlat justice. Books on Akhlâq divide each into several kinds. Compare the above with the cardinal virtues of the ancient justice, prudence, temperance, and fortitude.

^{2 &}quot;The last three things are inconvenient in kissing."

importance it was to cultivate a beard. Moreover, former ascetics had looked upon carelessness in letting the beard grow as one way of mortifying ane's flesh, because such carelessness exposed them to the reproach of the world; and as, at present, the silly lawyers of the Islam looked upon cutting down the beard as reproachful, it was clear that shaving was now a way of mortifying the flesh, and therefore praiseworthy, but not letting the beard grow. (But if any one considers this argument calmly, he will soon detect the fallacy.) Lying, cheating Muftis also quoted an unknown tradition, in which it was stated that 'some Qāzīs' of Peraia had shaved their beards. But the words ka-mā yaf alū ba a law 'l-quzāt' (as some Qāzīs have done), which occur in this tradition, are based upon a corrupt reading, and should be ku-mā yaf alū ba a law 'l-quzāt' (as some wicked men have done). . .

"The ringing of bells as in use with the Christians, and the showing of the figure of the cross, and 1 . . . and other children playthings of theirs, were daily in practice. The words Kufr shays shud, or 'heresy became common', express the Tārīkh (985). Ten or twelve years after the commencement of these doings, matters had gone so far that wretches like Mīrzā Jānī, chief of Tattah, and other apostates, wrote their confessions on paper as follows: -1, such a one, son of such a one, have willingly and cheerfully renounced and rejected the Islam in all its phases, whether low or high as I have witnessed it in my ancestors, and have joined the Divine Faith of Shah Akbar, and declare myself willing to sacrifice to him my property and life, my honour and religion.' And these papers there could be an more effective letters of damnationwere handed over to the Mujtakida Mail-Rad) of the new Creed, and were considered a source of confet new or promotion. The Heavens might have parted asunder, and earth might have opened her abyss, and the mountains have crumbled to dust!

"In opposition to the Islâm, pigs and dogs were no longer looked upon as unclean. Alarge number of these animals was kept in the Harem, and in the vaults of the castle, and to inspect them daily was considered a religious exercise. The Hindus, who believe in incurnations, said that the boar belonged to the ten forms which God Almighty had once assumed.

" God is indeed Almighty-but not what they say."

"The saying of some wise men that a dog had ten virtues, and that a man, if he possesses one of them, was a saint, was also quoted as a proof. Certain courtiers and friends of His Majesty, who were known for their

I The text has a balbalan (!) [while cumubula B.] his thushpik-i ishinast, which I do not understand,

excellence in every department, and proverbial as court poets,1 used to put dogs on a tablecloth and feed them, whilst other heretical poets, Persians and Hindustanis, followed this example, even taking the tongues of dogs into their own mouths, and then boasting of it.

"Tell the Mir that thou hast, within thy skin, a dog and a carcass.2

"A dog runs about in front of the house; don't make him a messmate.

"The ceremonial ablution after emission of semen " was no longer considered binding, and people quoted as proof that the essence of man was the sperma genitale, which was the origin of good and bad men. It was absurd that voiding urine and excrements should not require ceremonial ablutions, whilst the emission of so tender a fluid should necessitate ablution; it would be far better, if people would first bathe. and then have connexion.

"Further, it was absurd to prepare a feast in honour of a dead person; for the corpse was mere matter, and could derive no pleasure from the feast. People should therefore make a grand feast on their birthdays. Such feasts were called Ash-i hayat, food of life.5

"The flesh of a wild boar and the tiger was also permitted, because the courage which these two animals possess would be transferred to any one who fed on such meat.

"It was also forbidden to marry one's cousins or near relations, because such marriages are destructive of mutual love. Boys were not to marry before the age of 16, nor girls before 14, because the offspring of early marriages was weakly. The wearing of ornaments and silk dresses at the time of prayer was made obligatory. . . .

"The prayers of the Islam, the fast, nay even the pilgrimage, were henceforth forbidden. Some bastards, as the son of Mulla Mubarak, a worthy disciple of Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl wrote treatises, in order to revile and ridicule our religious practices, of course with proofs. His Majesty liked such productions, and promoted the authors.

"The era of the Hijrah was nowabolished, and a new cra was introduced, of which the first year was the year of the emperor's accession (963). The months had the same names as at the time of the old Persian kings, and as given in the Nisāb" 's-sibiyān." Fourteen festivals also were

¹ Pavel.

¹ I.e., that you are a dog.

According to the law, bathing is required after fimes and thillim.

For the poor.

Provisions for the life to come.

The Hubermandan law enjoins Muslims to go to the Mosques simply dressed. Silk sforbidden. Muhammedans disapprove of our "Sunday dresses" and pewage.

introduced, corresponding to the feasts of the Zoroastrians; but the feasts of the Musalmans, and their glory were trodden down, the Friday prayer alone being retained, because some old, decrepit, silly people 1 used to go to it. The new era was called Tārīkh-i Ilāhī, or 'Divine Era'. On copper coins and gold muhrs, the era of the Millennium 2 was used, as indicating that the end of the religion of Muhammad, which was to last one thousand years, was drawing near. Reading and learning Arabic was looked upon as a crime; and Muhammadan law, the exegesis of the Qurain, and the Tradition, as also those who studied them, were considered bad and deserving of disapproval. Astronomy, philosophy, medicine, mathematics, poetry, history, and novels, were cultivated and thought necessary. Even the letters which are peculiar to the Arabic language, as the ض, ع, ع, ض, and ف, were svoided. Thus for احدى Abdullah; and for ابدالله Abdullah; and for عبدالله اهدى Ahadi, etc. All this pleased His Majesty. Two verses from the Shahnama, which Firdawsi gives as part of a story, were frequently quoted at court-

> From eating the flesh of camels and lizards The Arabs have made such progress. That they now wish to get hold of the kingdom of Persia. Fie upon Fate! Fie upon Fate!

"Similarly other verses were eagerly seized, if they conveyed a calumny, as the verses from the . . ., in which the falling out of the teeth of our prophet is alluded to.

"In the same manner, every doctrine and command of the Islam, whether special or general, as the prophetship, the harmony of the Islam with reason, the doctrines of Rusyat, Takiff, and Takwin, the details of the day of resurrection and judgment-all were doubted and ridiculed.

¹ The text has an unintelligible sentence.

That is, the word olf (one thousand) was put on the coins. From this passage it would appear that coins with alf on it (vide Marsden, p. 599) were struck about 991.

The word in the text is Sajarak (?). In an engagement Muhammad lost two of

his tooth.

A Rayes, or stider-i [lab! der jennel, the actual seeing of God in Paradice, is a doctrine in high favour with the Sunnie. The ShiGahs may there will be no actual seeing.

Takity. A man is called mubulist bi-sh-shere, bound by the law, first, if he belong to the Islam; secondly, if he have eagl or a sound wind; thirdly, if he have reached builds. i.e., If he he of age.

Taketh means existence between two non-existences (Sedameya). Thus a present event stands between a past and a future non-existence. This, the lelks: saye, is the case with the world, which will come to an end. But Akhar denied it, as he did not believe in a day of judgment.

ed if anyone did object to this mode of arguing, his answer was not repred. But it is well known box little chance a man has who cites oofs against one who will reject their especially when his opponent has power of life and death in his hands; for equality in condition is in qua non in argaing.

A man who will not listen it you bring the Que an and the Tradition,

Can only be replied to by not replying to him.

"Many a family was ruined by these discussions. But perhaps iscussions' is not the correct name; we should call them meetings arrogance and defamation. People who sold their religion were busy collect all kinds of exploded errors and brought them to His Majesty, it they were so many presents. Thus Layif Khwaja, who came from a de tamily in Turkistan, made a frivolous remark on a passage in mixi's Sharia it, and asked how in all the world the neck of the Prophet dd be compared to the neck of an idol. Other remarks were passed on straving comel 2 Some again expressed their astonishment, that the whe', in the beginning of his career, plundered the carvans of Quraysh; the had fourteen wives: that any married woman was no longer to ong to her husband if the Prophet thought her agreeable, etc. . . . night, when there were social assemblies, His Majesty told forty ertiers to sit down as 'The Forty', and every one might say or ask at he liked. If then any one brought up a question connected with or religion, they said, 'You had better ask the Mullas about that, we only settle things which appeal to man's reason.' But it is possible for me to relate the blasphemous remarks which they made out the Salabah, when historical books happened to be read out, echelly such as contained the reigns of the first three Khalifahs, and quarrel about Fadak, the war of Siffin,4 etc. --would that I were

² This refers to the charge of adultery brought against SAyisha Muhammad's favourite

Bakr would not let her have it. Siffin is a place near the Euphrates, where a battle : place between SAli and MuSawiyah.

loth affairs form, even now-a-days, subjects of quarrel between Sunnis and Shicahs. red the author of the Dabistan has also made use of them in his Dialogues. The reader find more particulars in the notes to the English translation of the Dabistan.

The book of the famous I abadius Collector of Traditions) Tirmizi, which contains fraditions regarding the figure and looks of the prophet. The word ided is expressive great beauty: but the courtiers laughed at the phrase as unsuited to Muhammad, had ab dist.ed idols.

The whole story will be found in Sale's Quran, Sur. 24, p. 288.

The Chihil tanan, or 49 Abdils. After the death of Muhammad, the last of the series of properts, the earth complained to God, that henceforth she would no longer nonoured by prophets walking on her surface. (fod promised her that there should aye be on earth forly succording to some seventy-two) holy men, Abdala, for whose He would let the earth remain. The chief of the Forty is called thang.

* Fadak is a village not far from Makkah, which Fatiroah claimed as her own; but

deaf! The Shisahs, of course, gained the day, and the Sunnis were defeated; the good were in fear, and the wicked were secure. Every day a new order was given, and a new aspersion or a new doubt came up; and His Majesty saw in the discomfiture of one party a proof for his own infallibility, entirely forgetful of the proverb, 'Who slanders others, slanders himself.'... The ignorant vulgar had nothing on their tongues but 'Allāhu Akbar', and they looked upon repeating this phase, which created so much commotion, as a daily religious exercise. Multa Sheri, at this time, composed a gifa of ten verses, in which the following occur:

It is madness to believe with the fool that leve towards our prophet Will ever vanish from the earth-

I smile, if I think that the following verse, in all its silliness, Will be repeated at the feast of the rich, and as a prayer by the poor:

'This year the emperor has claimed prophetship, Next year, if God will, he will be god.'

"At the new year's day feasts, His Majesty forced many of the SUlamas and the pious, nay even the Qāzīs and the Multī of the realm, to drink wine. . . . And afterwards the Multāhids of the Divine Faith, especially Fayzī, called out, 'Here is a bumper to the confusion of the lawyers' On the last day of this feast, when the sumenters the nineteenth degree of Aries (a day called Sharaf "sh-sharaf, and considered particularly holy by His Majesty), the grandees were promoted, or received new jāgīrs, or horses, or diesse to hollour, according to the rules of hespitality, or in proportion of the college that they had brought."

Begin returned from a pilgeimage to Makkah. Soon after Shah Aba Turab also, and Primid Khan of Gujrat, a turned from the pilgrimage, and brought an immense stone with them, which had to be transported on an elephant. The stone contained, according to Aba Turab, an impression of the feet of the Prophet. Akkar, though it is difficult to guess the motive swent that less to meet it, and the grandees were ordered to carry the stone themselves by turns, and thus it was brought to town."

o. 312.]

"In this year, Shaykh Mabarak of Nagor said in the presence of the emperor to Bir Bar, 'Just as there are interpolations in your holy books so there are many in ours (Quran); hence it is impossible to trust either.'

" Some shameless and ill-starred wretches also asked His Majesty, why

at the approaching close of the Millenium, he did not make use of the sword, 'the most convincing proof,' as Shāh Ismā'īl of Persia had done. But His Majesty, at last, was convinced that confidence in him as a leader was a matter of time and good counsel, and did not require the sword. And indeed, if His Majesty, in setting up his claims, and making his innovations, had spent a little money, he would have easily got most of the courtiers, and much more the vulgar, into his devilish nets.

"The following Rubā's of Nāṣir-i Khusraw was often quoted at court-

I see in 992 two conjunctions,
I see the sign of Mahdī and that of Antichrist:
Either politics must change or religion.
I clearly see the hidden secret.

"At a council meeting for renovating the religion of the empire, Rāja Bhagawān said, 'I would willingly believe that Hindūs and Musalmāns have each a bad religion; but only tell us where the new sect is, and what opinion they hold, so that I may believe.' His Majesty reflected a little, and ceased to urge the Rāja. But the alteration of the orders of our glorious faith was continued. The $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}\underline{k}h$ was found in the words Iḥdās-i bidsat, the innovation of heresy (990).

"During those days also the public prayers and the azān, which was chanted five times a day for assembly to prayer in the state hall, were abolished. Names like Aḥnad, Muḥammad, Muṣṭafa, etc., became offensive to His Majesty, who thereby wished to please the infidels outside, and the princesses inside the Harem, till, after some time, those courtiers who had such names, changed them; and names as Yār Muḥammad, Muḥammad Khān, were altered to Raḥmat. To call such ill-starred wretches by the name of our blessed prophet would indeed be wrong, and there was not only room for improvement by altering their names, but it was even necessary to change them, according to the proverb, 'It is wrong to put fine jewels on the neck of a pig.'

"And this destructive fire all broke out in Agra, burnt down great and small families, and did not even spare their family tombs—May God

forsake these wretches!"

[p. 315.]

"In Rabis" 's-sass 990, Mir Fathu 'lläh came from the Dakhin (vide above, p. 34). . . . As he had been an immediate pupil of Mir Ghiyāṣu 'd-Din Manṣūr of Shīrāz, who had not been overstrict in religious matters, His Majesty thought that Fathu 'llāh would only be too glad to enter into his religious scheme. But Fathu 'llāh was such a staunch Shīsah, and at

the same time such a worldly office-hunter, and such a worshipper of mammon and of the nobility that he would not give up a jot of the tittles of bigoted Shīsm. Even in the state hall he said, with the greatest composure, his Shifah prayers—a thing which no one else would have dared to do. His Majesty, therefore, put him among the class of the bigots; but he connived at his practices, because he thought it desirable to encourage a man of such attainments and practical knowledge. Once the emperor in Fathu 'llah's presence, said to Bir Bar, 'I really wonder how any one in his senses can believe that a man, whose body has a certain weight, could, in the space of a moment, leave his bed, go up to heaven, there have 90,000 conversations with God, and yet on his return find his bed still warm?' So also was the splitting of the moon ridiculed. 'Why,' said His Majesty, lifting up one foot, 'it is really impossible for me to lift up the other foot! What silly stories men will believe.' And that wretch (Bir Bar) and some other wretches—whose names be forgotten said, 'Yea. we believe! Yea. we trust!' This great foot-experiment was repeated over and over again. But Fathu'llah-His Majesty had been every moment looking at him, because he wanted him to say something, for he was a new-comer-looked straight before himself, and did not utter a syllable, though he was all ear."

Here Bada, on i mentions the translations from Sanscrit into Persian, which have been alluded to above, p. 110. It is not quite certain whether the translations were made from Sanscrit or from Hindi translations, or from both. Bada, on clearly states that for some translations, as at the Atharban, Hindus were used as interpreters. For other works as the Mahabharat, there may have been Hindi translations or extracts, because Akbar himself (vide p. 111, note 2) translated passages to Naqib Khan. Abū 'l-Fazl also states that he was assisted by Pandits when writing the fourth book of the Asin. Compare Sir H. Elliott's Index to the Historians of India, p. 259.

fp. 321.]

"In these days (991) new orders were given. The killing of animals on certain days was forbidden, as on Sundays, because this day is sacred to the Sun; during the first eighteen days of the month of Farwardin; the whole month of Aban (the month in which His Majesty was born); and on several other days, to please the Hindus. This order was extended over the whole realm, and capital punishment was inflicted on every one

As Faths 'like was a good mechanic, Akbar thought that by referring to the weight of a man, and the following experiment with his foot, he would induce Faths 'like to make a remark on the Prophet's ascension (msCrif).

who acted against the command. Many a family was ruined. During the time of these fasts, His Majesty abstained altogether from meat, as a religious penance, gradually extending the several fasts during a year over six months and even more, with the view of eventually discontinuing the use of meat altogether.

"A second order was given that the Sun should be worshipped four times a day, in the morning and evening, and at noon and midnight. His Majesty had also one thousand and one Sanscrit names of the Sun collected, and read them daily, devoutly turning towards the sun; he then used to get hold of both ears, and turning himself quickly round about, used to strike the lower ends-of the ears with his fists. He also adopted several other practices connected with sun-worship. He used to wear the Hindu mark on his forehead, and ordered the band to play at midnight and at break of day. Mosques and prayer-rooms were changed into store rooms, or given to Hindu Chaukidārs. For the word jamāsat (public prayer), His Majesty used the term jimās (copulation), and for hayya als, he said yalalā talalā.

"The cemetery within the town was ordered to be sequestered."

[p. 324.]

"In the same year (991) His Majesty built outside the town two places for feeding poor Hindus and Muhammadans, one of them being called Khayr-pūra and the other Dharmpūra. Some of Abū'l-Fazl's people were put in charge of them. They spent His Majesty's money in feeding the poor. As an immense number of Jogis also flocked to this establishment, a third place was built, which got the name of Jogipura. Majesty also called some of the Jogis, and gave them at night private interviews, inquiring into abstruse truths; their articles of faith; their occupations; the influence of pensiveness: their several practices and usages; the power of being absent from the body; or into alchemy, physiognomy, and the power of omnipresence of the soul. His Majesty even learned alchemy, and showed in public some of the gold made by him. Once a year also during a night called Sīvrāt, a great meeting was held of all Jogis of the empire, when the emperor ate and drank with the principal Jogis, who promised him that he should live three and four times as long as ordinary men. His Majesty fully believed it, and connecting their promises with other inferences he had drawn, he got quite convinced of it. Fawning court doctors, wisely enough, found proofs

¹ Hayya Cala, for "kayya Cala 's-salāk'' [the waqf form of salāt], "Come quick to the prayer," is a phrase which occurs in the Azān. Yalalā talalā is a phrase used by drunkards in the height of mirth.

for the longevity of the emperor, and said that the cycle of the moon. during which the lives of men are short, was drawing to its close, and that the cycle of Saturn 1 was at hand, with which a new cycle of ages, and consequently the original longevity of mankind would again commence. Thus they said, it was mentioned in some holy books that men used to live up to the age of one thousand years, whilst in Sanscrit books the ages of some men were put down as ten thousand years; and in Thibet there were even now a class of Lāmās, or Mongolian devotees, and recluses, and hermits, that live two hundred years, and more. For this reason, His Majesty, in imitation of the usages of these Lamas, limited the time he spent in the harem, curtailed his food and drink, but especially abstained from meat. He also shaved the hair of the crown of his head, and let the hairs at the sides grow, because he believed that the soul of perfect beings, at the time of death, passes out by the crown (which is the tenth opening a of the human body) under a noise resembling thunder, which the dying man may look upon as a proof of his happiness and salvation from sin, and as a sign that his soul, by metempsychosis, will pass into the body of some grand and mighty king.

"His Majesty gave his religious system the name of Tawhīd-i Ilāhī, or Divine Monotheism'.

"He also called, according to the manner of the Jogis, a number of special disciples Chelās (slaves). A lot of vile, swindling, wicked birds, who were not admitted to the palace, stood every morning opposite to the window, near which His Majesty used to pray to the sun, and declared they had made vows nor to rinse their mouths, nor to eat and drink, before they had seen the blessed countenance of the emperor; and every evening there was a regular court assembly of needy Hindus and Muhammadans, all sorts of people, men and women, healthy and sick, a queer gathering, and a most terrible crowd. No sooner had His Majesty finished saying the 1,001 names of the 'Greater Luminary', and stepped out into the balcony, than the whole crowd prostrated themselves. Cheating, thieving Brahmins collected another set of 1,001

¹ Zuhal, in Persian Kayson, Saturn. This planet is looked upon as the fountain of wisdom. Nighmi says sassed-i safina ba-layson support, "He (Muhammad) gave Saturn the power of writing," Ansar Suhayli, in praise of some physician, Zuhal shagird-i & dar nuqta-dāni, "Saturn in wisdom is his pupil." Hence the famous astronomer Ah&!-Qāsim has the lagab (title) of Ghuldm-i Zuhal. Besides, there are several cycles of years, over which each of the seven planets reigns. The first cycle was that of Saturn, during which the ages of men were long. The last cycle is that of the moon, during which people do not attain a very old age. It existed already at the time of Hāfig, who says, In chi shories hi der dawr-s gamer mibinim. "What misfortune is this which we writness in the cycle of the moon?"

names of 'His Majesty the Sun', and told the emperor that he was an incarnation, like Rām Kishn and other infidel kings; and though Lord of the world, he had assumed his shape, in order to play with the people of our planet. In order to flatter him, they also brought Sanscrit verses, said to have been taken from the sayings of ancient sages, in which it was predicted that a great conqueror would rise up in India, who would honour Brahmins and cows, and govern the earth with justice. They also wrote this nonsense on old looking paper, and showed it to the emperor, who believed every word of it.

"In this year also, in the state hall of Fathpur, the ten cubit square of the Hanafis and the Qullatayn 1 of the Shāfi s and Shī ahs were compared. The fluid quantum of the Hanafis was greater than that of the others.

"His Majesty once ordered that the Sunnis should stand separately from the Shisahs, when the Hindustānis, without exception, went to the Sunni side, and the Persians to the Shisah side."

[p. 336.]

During this year [992], Mullā Ilāhdād of Amrohah and Mullā Sherī attended at Court, in order to flatter the emperor; for they had been appointed to sadrships in the Duāb of the Panjāb. Mullā Sherī presented to His Majesty a poem made by him, entitled Hazār Shuās or 'The Thousand Rays', which contained 1,000 qitas in praise of the Sun. His Majesty was much pleased.".

At the feast of the emperor's accession in 992, numerous conversions took place. [Bad. II, p. 338.]

"They were admitted as disciples in sets of twelve, one set at a time, and declared their willingness to adopt the new principles, and to follow the new religion. Instead of the usual tree,² His Majesty gave his likeness, upon which the disciples looked as a symbol of faith and the advancement of virtue and prosperity. They used to wrap it up in cloth studded with jewels, and wore it on the top of their turbans. The phrase 'Allāh' Akbar' was ordered to be used as the heading in all writings. Playing with dice, and taking interest, were allowed, and so in fact was everything else admitted which is forbidden in the Islām. A play-house was even

² Heads of sects give their pupils trees, not of genealogy, but of discipleship as, Abmad, disciple of SAli, disciple of MuSin, disciple of Bayazid, etc., ending with their

own name and the name of that disciple to whom the tree (shajara) is given.

¹ Quilatayn, two large jars containing 1,200 rail·i 'rūqī (Sirāqī pounds) of water. According to the Shisahs and the Shāfīsī sect, water does not become najis, or soiled, from its being used, provided the quantity of water weigh not less than 1,200 rail, or the cube of 3½ spans. Hanīfah fixed (10 إنراع), ² just deep enough that the hand, in passing over it, do not touch the bottom. The experiment which Akbar made had for its object to threw blame on the Hanafī Sunnīs.

built at Court, and money from the exchequer was lent to the players on interest (vide Second book, A In 15). Interest and shatal (money given at the end of the play to the bystanders) were looked upon as very

satisfactory things.

"Girls before the age of fourteen, and boys before sixteen, were not to marry, and the story of the marriage night of the Prophet with Siddiga 1 was totally disapproved of. But why should I mention other blasphemies?-May the attention which any one pays to them run away like quicksilver-really I do not know what human ears cannot bear to hear!

"The sins which all prophets are known to have committed, were cited as a reason why people should not believe the words of the prophets. So especially in the case of David and the story of Uriah. And if any one dared to differ from the belief of these men, he was looked upon as fit to be killed, or as an apostate and everlastingly damned, or he was called a lawyer and enemy of the emperor. But according to the proverb, 'What people sow, that they shall reap,' they themselves became notorious in the whole world as the greatest heretics by their damnable innovations, and 'the infallible' authority got the nickname of Abū-jahl.3 Yes, 'If the king is bad, the Vizier is worse.' Looking after worldly matters was placed before religious concerns; but of all things, these innovations were the most important, and everything else was accessory.

"In order to direct another blow at the honour of our religion, His Majesty ordered that the stalls of the fancy bazars, which are held on New Year's day, should, for a stated time, be given up for the enjoyment of the Begums and the women of the Harem, and also for any other married ladies. On such occasions, His Majesty spent much money; and the important affairs of harem people, marriage-contracts, and betrothals of boys and girls, were arranged at such meetings.

"The real object of those who became disciples was to get into office;

¹ Siddies is the title of SAyishs, the daughter of Abu Bakr. "She was six years old, when she was engaged to Muhammad, who was then fifty years old. The actual marriage took place when she was nine years old. 'I sat,' she relates, 'with other girls in a swing, when my mother called me. I went to her, not knowing what she wanted. She took my hand and led me to the door of the house. I now guessed what she wished to do with me; my heart throbbed, but I soon got again composed. I washed my face and my hand, and was taken inside, where several women were assembled, who congratulated me, and dressed me up. When they had done, they handed me over to the Prophet.' As she was so young, she took her toys to the house of the Prophet. The Prophet loved her so much, so young, one took her toys to the house of the Prophet. The Prophet loved her so much, that even in the mosque, at the time of the service, he put his head under her veil and caresand her, and played with her hair (ThaClabi Tafsir 2, 180); and he told the faithful that she would be his wife in Paradise." From Springer's Life of Muhammad, III, p. 62.

2 David counts as a prophet. The book revealed to him is the sabir, or the Pushus.

3 Preperly father of ignorance. Badh, onl means Abu 'l-Faşl, which name signification of wisdom. Besides, Abu 'l-Faşl had the title (isthallus) Callant, the most learned.

and though His Majesty did everything to get this out of their heads, he acted very differently in the case of Hindus, of whom he could not get enough; for the Hindus, of course, are indispensable; to them belongs half the army and half the land. Neither the Hindustanis nor the Moghula can point to such grand lords as the Hindus have among themselves. But if others than Hindus came, and wished to become disciples at any sacrifice, His Majesty reproved or punished them. For their honour and zeal he did not care, nor did he notice whether they fell in with his views or not."

[p. 340.]

"In this year Sultan Khwaja died. He also belonged to the elect disciples of His Majesty. After burying him, they laid down a new rule. They put a grate over his grave in such a manner that the light of the rising sun, which cleanses from all sins, could shine on the face of the corpse. People said, they had seen fiery tongues resting over his mouth, but God knows best."

During the month of Safar (the second month of the year) 994, Akbar's troops were defeated by the Yūsuf-zā,īs. Badā,onī says (p. 350):

"Nearly 8,000 men, perhaps even more, were killed. Bir Bar also, who had fled from fear of his life, was slain, and entered the row of the dogs in hell, and thus got something for the abominable deeds he had done during his lifetime. During the last night attack, many grandees and persons of renown were killed, as Hasan Khān,¹ and Khwāja ʿArab, paymaster (colonel) of Khān Jahān and Mullā Sherī, the poet, and many others whose names I cannot specify. The words az Khwāja ʿArab hayf² express the Tārīkh of the defeat, by one less. Hakīm Abū 'l-Fazl and Zayn Khān on the 5th Rabīʿal-awwal, reached with their defeated troops the fort of Āṭak. . . . But His Majesty cared for the death of no grandee more than for that of Bīr Bar. He said, 'Alas! they could not even get his body out of the pass. that it might have been burned'; but at last, he consoled himself with the thought that Bīr Bar was now free and independent of all earthly fetters, and as the rays of the sun were sufficient for him, there was no necessity that he should be cleansed by fire."

New orders were given in the beginning of 995. [Page 356.]

"No one was to marry more than one wife, except in cases of barrenness; but in all other cases the rule was, One God, and one wife." Women,

¹ Vide List of grandees, Text edition of the Å²in, p. 227, No. 220, where for Husayn read Hasan. In the MSS. of the Å²in he is called مني or بعني. My MS. of the Tabaqāt reads بعني انتاني Patanī Afghān, and calls him a Hazērī. The edition of Badā, onf has wrong. His biography is not given in the Ma²āgira 'l-amarā.

The letters give 993; hence one more=994.

on reaching the limit of their period of fertility, when their courses stop, should no longer wish for the husband. If widows liked to re-marry. they might do so, though this was 1 against the ideas of the Hindus. Hindu girl, whose husband had died before the marriage was consummated, should not be burnt. If, however, the Hindus thought this a hardship, they should not be prevented (from burning the girl); then a Hindu widow should take the girl 3

"Again, if disciples meet each other, one should sav 'Allāh" Akbar', and the other should respond 'Jalla Jallalu-ha'. These formulas were to take the place of our salam, and the answer to the salam. The beginning of counting Hindu months should be the 28th day, and not the 16th, because the latter was the invention and innovation of Bikramajit. The Hindu feasts, likewise, were to take place in accordance with this rule. But the order was not obeyed, though farmans to that effect, as early as 990, had been sent to Gujrāt and Rengal.

"Common people should no longer learn Arabic, because such people were generally the cause of much mischief. Cases between Hindus should be decided by learned Brahmins, and not by Musalman Qazīs. If it were necessary to have recourse to oaths they should put heated irons into the hands of the accused, who was guilty if his hands were burnt, but innocent if not; or they should put the bands of the accused into hot, liquid butter; or the accused should jump into water, and if he came to the surface before an arrow had returned to the ground, which had been shor off when the man jumped into the water, he was guilty.

"People should be buried with their heads towards the east and their feet towards the west.3 His Majesty even commenced to sleep in this position."

[p. 363.]

"In the same year the prohibition of the study of Arabic was extended to all. People should learn astronomy, mathematics, medicine, and philosophy. The Tārīkh of this order is Fasād-i fazl (995) . . .

"On the 10th day of Muharram 996, His Majesty had invited the Khan Khanan, and Man Singh (who had just been appointed governor of Bahar, Hajipur and Patna); and whilst they were drinking, His Majesty commenced to talk about the Divine Faith, in order to test Man Singh. He said without reserve, 'If Your Majesty mean by the

The text has were not against the ideas of the Hindus (?).
The text of the whole passage is doubtful. The readings of the three MSS, which Mawlawi Aghā Abmad Cali had in editing Badā, onl, give no sense.

This was an insult, because the Muhammadans in India face the west during prayer. Vide Journal Aziatic Society, Bengal, for 1868, p. 56.

term of membership, willingness to sacrifice one's life, I have given pretty clear proofs, and Your Majesty might dispense with examining me; but if the term has another meaning, and refers to religion, surely I am a Hindu. And if I am to become a Muhammadan, Your Majesty ought to say so—but besides Hinduism and Islām, I know of no other religion.' The emperor then gave up urging him.

"During the month of Safar 996, Mîrzā Fülād Beg Barlās managed to get one night Mulla Ahmad of Thathah, on some pretext, out of his house, and stabbed at him, because the Mulla openly reviled [as Shīfahs dol the companions of the prophet. The Tārīkh of this event is expressed by the words Zihe khanjar-i Fūlād, 'Hail, steel of Fūlād,' or by Khūk-i sagarī, 'hellish hog!' And really, when this dog of the age was in his agony, I saw that his face looked just like the head of a pig, and others too witnessed it-O God! we take refuge with Thee against the evil which may befall us! His Majesty had Mīrzā Fūlād tied to the foot of an elephant and dragged through the streets of Lahor; for when Hakim Abū-Fath, at the request of the emperor, had asked the Mīrzā, whether he had stabbed at the Mulla from religious hatred, he had said, 'If religious hatred had been my motive, it would have been better to kill a greater one 2 than the Mullā.' The Hakim reported these words to His Majesty, who said, 'This fellow is a scoundrel; he must not be allowed to remain alive,' and ordered his execution, though the people of the harem asked the emperor to spare him for his general bravery and courage. The Mulla outlived the Mirza three or four days. The Shisahs, at the time of washing his corpse, say that, in conformity with their religion, they put a long nail into the anus, and plunged him several times into the river.3 After his burial, Shavkh Fayzī and Shaykh Abū'l-Fazl put guards over his grave; but notwithstanding all precaution, during the year His Majesty went to Kashnur, the people of Lahor one night took the hideous corpse of the Mulla from the grave, and burned it."

[pp. 375, 376, 380.]

"In 999, the fiesh of oxen, buffaloes, goats, horses, and camels, was forbidden. If a Hindu woman wished to be burnt with her husband, they should not prevent her; but she should not be forced. Circumcision was

¹ Sunnis assert that this transfiguration into an animal (maskh) happens very often to ShiSahs, because they revile the Salabah. Fayel, according to Bada, onl, looked and barked like a dog, when dying. Another thing which the Sunnis all over India quote as a great proof of the correctness of their mazkab, is that no ShiSah can ever become a kāfiz. i.e., no ShiSah can commit the Qorān to memory.

Fither Akbar or Abu 'I-Fazl.

This was done to clean the intestines of facces, which were thrown into the river from which the Sunnis got their water.

forbidden before the age of twelve, and was then to be left to the will of the boys. If any one was seen eating together with a butcher, he was to lose his hand, or if he belonged to the butcher's relations, the fingers which he used in eating.

"In 1000, the custom of shaving off the beard was introduced."

"In 1002, special orders were given to the kotwāls to carry out Akbar's commands. They will be found in the Third book of the A*in, A*in 5.

The following are new:-

"If any of the darsaniyya 1 disciples died, whether man or woman, they should hang some uncooked grains and a burnt brick round the neck of the corpse, and throw it into the river, and then they should take out the corpse, and burn it at a place where no water was. But this order is based upon a fundamental rule, which His Majesty indicated, but which I cannot here mention.

"If a woman was older than her husband by twelve years, he should not lie with her, and if a young girl was found running about town, whether veiled or not, or if a woman was bad, or quarrelled with her husband, she should be sent to the quarter of the prostitutes, to do there what she liked."

[p. 391.]

"At the time of famines and distress, parents were allowed to sell their children, but they might again buy them, if they acquired means to pay their price. Hindus who, when young, had from pressure become Musalmans, were allowed to go back to the faith of their fathers. No man should be interfered with on account of his religion, and every one should be allowed to change his religion, if he liked. If a Hindu woman fall in love with a Muhammadan, and change her religion, she should be taken from him by force, and be given back to her family. People should not be molested if they wished to build chambes and prayer rooms, or idol temples, or fire temples."

[p. 398.]

"In this year Aszam Khan returned from Makkah, where he had suffered much harm at the hands of the Sharifs, and throwing away the blessing which he had derived from the pilgrimage, joined, immediately on his return, the Divine Faith, performing the sijda and following all other rules of discipleship; he cut off his beard, and was very forward at social meetings and in conversation. He learnt the rules of the new faith

From darsan, for which ride p. 163.
 This is the title of the rulers of Makkah.

from the Reverend Master Abū 'l-Fazl, and got Chāzīpūr and Ḥājīpūr as jāgīr.''

[p. 404.]

"During the Muharram of 1004, Sadr Jahan, muftl of the empire, who had been promoted to a commandership of One Thousand, joined the Divine Faith, as also his two over-ambitious sons; and having taken the Shast 1 of the new religion, he ran into the net like a fish. and got his Hazārīship. He even asked His Majesty what he was to do with his beard, when he was told to let it be. On the same day, Mulla Taqi of Shushtar 2 joined, who looks upon himself as the learned of all learned, and is just now engaged in rendering the Shahnama into prose, according to the wishes of the emperor, using the phrase jalla Sazmatu-ha wa Sazza shānu-h",3 wherever the word Sun occurs. Among others that joined were Shaykhzāda Gosāla Khān of Banāras; Mullā Shāh Muhammad of Shāhābād4; and Sūfī Ahmad, who claimed to belong to the progeny of the famous Muhammad Ghaws. They all accepted the four degrees of faith, and received appointments as Commanders from One Hundred to Five Hundred, gave up their beards agreeably to the rules, and thus looked like the youths in Paradise. The words mu-tarash-i chand, or 'several shavers', express the tārīkh of this event (1004). The new candidates behaved like Hindus that turn Muhammadan,5 or like those who are dressed in red clothes, and look in their joy towards their relations, who say to them 'My dear little man, these rags will be old to-morrow, but the Islam will still remain on your neck'. This Ahmad, 'the little Sufi,' is the same who claimed to be the pupil, or rather the perfect successor, of Shaykh Ahmad of Egypt. He said that at the express desire of that religious leader of the age, he had come to India and the Shaykh had frequently told him to assist the Sultan of India, should he commit an error, and lead him back from everlasting damnation. But the opposite was the case."

So far, Badā,onī. We have, therefore, the following list of members of the Divine Faith. With the exception of Bīr Bar, they are all Muḥammadans; but to judge from Badā,onī's remarks, the number of those that took the Shapt must have been much larger.

- 1. Abū 'l-Fazl
- 2. Fayzī, his brother. Akhar's court-poet.

¹ Shapt, which has been explained on p. 174. also means a fish hook.
² Vide List of Grandees, Second Book, No. 352.

Because Muhammadans use such phrases after the name of God.

⁴ Vide p. 112, note 3.
5 That is, over-zealous.

3. Shaykh Mubārak, of Nāgor, their father.

4. Jassar Beg Aşaf Khān, of Qazwīn, a historian and poet.

5. Qāsim-i Kāhī, a poet.

- 6. SAbdu 's-Samad, Akhar's court-painter; also a poet.
- 7. Aszam Khan Koka, after his return from Makkah.
- 8. Mulla Shah Muḥammad of Shahabad, a historian.
- 9. Sūfī Ahmad.
- 10 to 12. Sadr Jahan, the crown-lawyer, and his two sons.
- 13. Mir Sharif of Amul, Akbar's apostle for Bengal.
- 14. Pultān Khwāja, a şadr.
- 15. Mirzā Jānī, chief of Thathah.
- 16. Taqi of Shustar, a poet and commander of two hundred.
- 17. Shaykhzāda Gosāla of Banāras.
- 18. Bir Bar.

Nos. 4 to 6 are taken from the \tilde{A}^*in ; the others are mentioned in the above extracts from Badāonī. The literary element is well represented in the list.

The above extracts from Badāonī possess a peculiar value, because they show the rise and progress of Akbar's views, from the first doubt of the correctness of the Islām to its total rejection, and the gradual establishment of a new Faith combining the principal features of Hinduism and the Fireworship of the Pārsīs. This value does not attach to the scattered remarks in the $\hat{A}^{\bullet}\bar{n}n$, nor to the longer article in the Dabistān.

As the author of the latter work has used Badaoni, it will only be necessary to collect the few remarks which are new.

The following two miracles are connected with Akbar's birth.

[Dabistān, p. 396.1]

"Khwāja Massud, son of Khwāja Mahmūd, son of Khwāja Murshid" "l-Haqq, who was a gifted Ṣāḥib-i ḥāl," said to the writer of this book, "My father related, he had heard from great saints, that the Lord of the faith and the world 'reveals himself'. I did not know, whether that august personage had appeared, or would appear, till, at last, one night I saw that event, and when I awoke, I suddenly arrived at that place, where the blessed 2 Lord was born, namely on a Sunday of the month of Rajab of the year 949, the lord Jalāla 'd-Dīn Akbar, the august son of Humāyūn Pādishāh and Ḥamīda Bānū Begum."

The second miracle has been related above, on p. 172, note 2. These two miracles make up the first of the four chapters, into which the author

* Vide p. 171, note 2.

¹ Vide also Shes and Troyer's English translation of the Dabistan, III, p. 49.

of the Dabistān has divided his article on the "Divine Faith". The second chapter contains religious dialogues, and extracts from Badā,onī, which are rather conjecturally rendered in Shea's Translation. The third chapter contains remarks on the worship of the sun and stars, chiefly with reference to the sun-worship of the Tātārs. The last chapter contains extracts from the third and fifth books of the Asia.

- p. 410. "His Majesty also sent money to Īrān, to bring to India a wise Zoroastrian of the name of Ardsher." *
- p. 412. Abū 'l-Fazl wrote, as a counterpart to his commentary on the Ayat" 'l-kursī (p. 177), a preface to the translation of the Mahābhārat (vide p. 111) of two juz.
- p. 413. "When Sultan Khwaja," who belonged to the members of the Divine Faith, was near his death, he said that he hoped His Majesty would not have him buried like a mad man. He was therefore buried in a grave with a peculiar lamp, and a grate was laid over it, so that the greater luminary, whose light cleanses from all sins, might shine upon him. . . .

"Should a Hindu woman fall in love with a Muhammadan, and be converted to the Islām, she would be taken away by force and handed over to her family; but so should also a Musalmān woman, who had fallen in love with a Hindu, be prevented from joining Hinduism." 4

- p. 414. "I heard from Mulla Tarson of Badakhshan, who was a Hanafi by sect, that once during the year 1058 he had gone on a pilgrimage to Sikandrah, the burial place of Akbar. 'One of my companions,' he said, 'declined to enter the pure mausoleum, and even abused the Representative of God [Akbar]. My other companions said, 'If Akbar possesses hidden knowledge, that man will certainly come to grief.' Soon after a piece of a broken stone fell down, and crushed his toe.'
- p. 431. "In Multan, I saw Shah Salam" 'llah, who has renounced the world, and is a muwahhid (Unitarian). He is very rigid in discipline and avoids the society of men. He said, he had often been in company with Jalal" 'd-Dīn Akbar, and had heard him frequently say, 'Had I

Regarding this Ardsher, vide Journal Asiatic Society, Bengal, for 1868, p. 14. Akbar's

fire temple was in the Harem.

* Vide above, p. 214.

¹ The author of the Dabistan gives much prominence to the idea that the power and success of the Tatars was in some way mysteriously connected with their sun and star worship, and that their conversion to the Islam was looked upon as the beginning of their decline. It looks as if the writer wished to connect this idea with Akbar's successes and sun worship.

⁴ The words in italics are not in Bedā,oni. The object of the order was evidently to prevent a woman from doing what she liked; for, according to the Muhammadans, women are looked upon as magis "I-Gagi.

formerly possessed the knowledge which I now have, I would never have chosen a wife for myself; for upon old women I look as mothers, on women of my age as sisters, and on girls as daughters.' A friend of mine said, he had heard Nawāb 'Abdu'l-Ḥasan called Lashkar Khān of Mash,had, report the same as having been said by Akbar.

"Salām" 'llāh also said that God's Representative (Akbar) had often wept and said, 'O that my body were larger than all bodies together, so that the people of the world could feed on it without hurtime other

living animals.'

"A sign of the sagacity of this king is this, that he employed in his service people of all classes, I Jews, Persians, Tūrānīs, etc., because one class of people, if employed to the exclusion of others, would cause rebellions, as in the case of the Uzbaks and Qizilbāshes (Persians), who used to dethrone their kings. Hence Shāh 'Abbās, son of Sultān Khudābanda-yi Ṣafawī, imitated the practice of Akbar, and favoured the Gurjīs (Georgians). Akbar paid likewise no regard to hereditary power, or genealogy and fame, but favoured those whom he thought to excel in knowledge and manners."

The passages in the Ā*īn which refer to Akbar's religious views are the following:—p. III; 11; 50; 51; 56; 59; 60; 61, ll. 20 to 24; Ā*īn 26, p. 64; p. 96, notes 3 and 4, the Sanscrit names being very likely those which were alluded to by Badā,onī, vide above p. 189, l. 19; p. 103, note 3; p. 110, note 1; 111–113; p. 115, l. 4, because the "making of likenesses" is as much forbidden by the Islām as it was interdicted by the Mosaic law; Ā*īn 72, p. 162; 168; Ā*īn 77, p. 162; Ā*īn 81, p. 226. In the Second Book, Ā*īns 18, 19, 22–5; in the Third Book, end of Ā*īn 1 (Tārīkh Ilāhī); Ā*īns 2, 5, 9, 10; and lastly, the greater part of the Fifth Book.

It will be observed that the remarks on Akbar's religious views do not extend beyond the year 1596, when the greater part of the A'in had been completed. Badá, oni's history ends with A.H. 1004, or A.D. 1595; but his remarks on Akbar's religion become more and more sparing towards the end, and as subsequent historians, even Jahangir

"Memoirs". are almost entirely silent on the religious ideas of the emperor, we have no means of following them up after 1596. Akbar, in all probability, continued worshipping the sun, and retained all other peculiarities of his monotheastic Pärsī-Hinduism, dying as he had lived. The story related in that edition of Jahāngir's Memoirs, which has been translated by Major Price, that Akbar died as a good Musalmān, and

¹ Vide the notes of Atin 30 of the Second Rook.

"repented" on his death-bed, is most untrustworthy, as every other

particular of that narrative.1

With Akbar's death,² the Divine Faith died out. Akbar, solely relying on his influence and example, had established no priesthood, and had appointed no proper person for propagating his faith. If we except the influence which his spirit of toleration exerted, the masses had remained passive. Most of the members, mentioned on p. 219, had died before Akbar; such as were still alive, as Sharīf of Āmul took again to sophistry, and tried to create sensations under Jahāngīr.³ As Jahāngīr did not trouble himself about any religion, Akbar's spirit of toleration soon changed to indifference, and gradually died out, when a reaction in favour of bigotry set in under Awrangzeb. But people still talked of the Divine

according to note 3 of p. 180, is our Tuesday night [not Wednesday, as in Price, and all European Historians], the 15th October, 1605, old style. Hence Akbar would have died in the night which followed the day on which he celebrated his sixty-third birthday if

we adopt our mode of reckoning; vide p. 64, note 1.

There is some confusion in the histories regarding the exact day of Akbar's death. The Pādishāhnāma (vol I. p. 66) says that Akbar died at the age of sixty-three (solar) years and one day, in the night of the Chahārshambih (the night between Tuesday and Wednesday) of the 12th Jumāda 'l-ukhrā, corresponding to the 2nd Abān of Akbar's Era. The Miraāt and Khāfi Khān (I. p. 235) give the same; the latter adds that Akbar died at midnight.

Pādishāhnāma (p. 69) and Khāfi Khān (p. 246) fix the julus or accession, of Jahāngīr for Thursday, the 20th Jumāda 'l-ukhrā, or the 10th Abān, i.e. 8 days after

Akbar's death

Muhammad Hādī, in his preface to the Tuzuk-i Jahāngirī, says that Akbar died on the Shab-i Chahārshambih, 13th Jumada 'l-ukhrā; and Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk refers the Julie to Thursday, the eighth Jumada 'l-ukhrā; but the word and is often confounded in MSS, with and

confounded in MSS. with part.

Again the MirÇāt, and Sharif-i Irānī in his Iqbālnāma, mention the Julüs as having taken place on Thursday, the deventh Jumada 'l-ukhrā. Lastly, the prefaces of the Farhang-i Jahāngīrī refer the julüs to the third Thursday [the twentieth day] of Jumāda 'l-awal [a mistake for al-ukhrā], corresponding to the roz-i khur, or the eleventh of Abān.

Vide Tuzuk, p. 22.

The story of Akbar's "conversion" is also repeated in Elphinstone's History, second edition, p. 531. The Muliā whom Akbar, according to Price's Memoirs, is said to have called is Sadr Jahān, who, as remarked above on p. 219 was a member of the Divine Faith. This in itself is improbable. Besides, the Tuzuk-i Jahāngīri, as published by Sayyid Ahmad, says nothing about it. Nor does the Iqbālnāma, a poor production (though written in beautiful Irānī Persian), or Khāfī Khān, allude to the conversion which, if it had taken place, would certainly have been mentioned. Khāfī Khān especially would have mentioned it, because he says of Badā, onī, that he said and wrote about the religious views of the Emperor things which he should not have related (vide Khāfī Khān, I, p. 196). The silence of the author of the Dabistān is still more convincing, whilst the story of Muliā Tarson, and the abuse uttered by his companion against Akbar (p. 220), are proofs that Akbar did not "repent". To this we have to add that Jahāni īr, in his Memoirs, adopts a respectful phraseology when mentioning the sun, which he calls Harrat Nayyir-i Aczam; he also continued the sijda, though offensive to pious Muhammadans, and Akbar's Solar Era, though it involved a loss to the revenue because for every 33 lunar years, the state only received taxes for 32 solar years; he allowed some Hindu customs at Court, as the Rākhī (vide above p. 193), and passed an order not to force Hindus to join the Islām (Tuzuk, p. 100).

Akbar died on the Shab-i Chahūrshambih, 12th Jumāda 'l-ukhrā 1014 A.s., which,

Faith in 1643 or 1648, when the author of the Dabistan collected his notes on Akbar's religion.¹

Ā⁴in 78.

THE MUSTER OF ELEPHANTS.

The beginning of the musters is made with this animal. The Khāşa elephants with their furniture and ornaments are the first which are daily brought before His Majesty, namely, ten on the first day of every solar month. After this, the Halga elephants are mustered, according to their number. On Tuesdays from ten to-twenty are mustered. The Bitikchi, during the muster, must be ready to answer any questions as to the name of each animal (there are more than five thousand elephants, each having a different name. His Majesty knows to which section most of the elephants belong—ten elephants form a section of ten (dahā,ī), and are in charge of an experienced officer); as to how each elephant came into the possession of His Majesty; the price; the quantity of food; the age of the animal; where it was born; the period of heat, and the duration of that state each time; the date when an elephant was made khāsa; its promotion in the halpas; the time when the tusks are cut; how many times His Majesty has mounted it; how many times it was brought for riding out; the time of the last muster; the condition of the keepers; the name of the Amir in charge. For all other elephants eight things are to be reported, viz., the change of its name (?); the repetition of it; its price; how it came into the possession of His Majesty; whether it is fit for riding, or for carrying burdens; its rank: whether it has plain furniture or not; which rank the Fawidar has assigned to it. The rule is, that every Fawjdar divides his elephants into four classes, separating those that are best from those that are worst, whether they are to remain with him or whether he has to give some to other Fawjdars.

Each day five tahwili (transferable) elephants are inspected by an

^{&#}x27;Only one of Akbar's innovations, the Sijds was formally abolished by Shahjahan.' During the reigns of CArsh-dehydni [Akbar], and Janual-makini [Jahangir], it was customary for courtiers on meeting their Majesties, or on receiving a present, to prostrate themselves, placing the forehead on the ground. . . This custom had also obtained in antiquity, but had been abolished by the Islam. . When His Majesty [Shahjahan's mounted the throne, he directed his imperial care to the reintroduction of the customs of the Islam, the strict observance of which had do down, and turned his august zend to rebuilding the edifice of the law of the Prophet. which had all but decayed. Hence on the very day of his accession, His Majesty ordered that putting the ferchead on the ground should be restricted to God. Mahābat Khān, the Commander in Chief, objected at first, etc. His Majesty would not even allow the Zaminbos, or kissing the ground, and unbesquently introduced a fourth Taslim [Akbar had fixed three, cide p. 166, L 5]." Padishāhāma, 1, p. 110.

experienced man. The following custom is observed: When new elephants arrive for the government, they are handed over in fifties or hundreds to experienced officers, who fix their ranks. Such elephants are called Tahwili elephants. When His Majesty inspects them, their rank is finally settled, and the elephants are transferred to the proper sections. Every Sunday one elephant is brought before His Majesty, to be given away as a present to some deserving servant. Several haloas are set apart for this purpose. The rank of the khāsa elephants formerly depended on the number of times they had been inspected by His Majesty; but now their precedence is fixed by the number of times His Majesty has mounted them. In the halqas, the precedence of elephants is determined by the price. When all elephants have been mustered, the khāsa elephants are again examined, ten every day. Then come the elephants of the princes, who mostly march them past themselves. After them come the halqas. As they are arranged in sections according to the price, some elephants have, at every muster, their value either enhanced or lowered, and are then put among their equals. For this reason, many Fawidars are anxious to complete their sets, and place themselves for this purpose in a row at the time of the musters. His Majesty then gives the elephants to whomsoever he likes. If the number of the elephants of any Fawjdar is found correct, some more are put in his charge; for such officers are thought of first. Fawidars, whose elephants are found to be lean, are preferred, in making up the complements, to such as bring less than their original number. Each Fawidar receives some, provided he musters all his elephants. The Mushrif (accountant) receives orders where to keep the elephants.

The elephants of the grandees also, though not belonging to the fixed establishment, are almost daily brought before His Majesty, who settles their rank, and orders them to be branded with a peculiar mark. Elephants of dealers also are brought before His Majesty, who fixes their rank and value.

Ā* in 79.

THE MUSTER OF HORSES.

They begin with the stables of forty; then come the stables of the princes; then the <u>khāṣa</u> courier horses; then the country-bred, and all other stables. When the ten-muhr horses have been inspected, they bring the Gūṭs, Qierāạs, the horses on which the hunting leopards ride, and the Bārgīr horses (vide p. 146, l. 25; p. 143, l. 10 from below, and Ārīn 54, p. 147). The place of the horses at the musters, is determined

by their value, and in the case of horses of the same value, the precedence is determined by the time of service. Before the musters, the horses are inspected by clever officers, who again fix their value, and divide them into three classes. When the rank of a horse has been put higher or lower, it is placed among his proper class-fellows. Those horses which belong to the third class, form separate stables, and are given away as presents. If horses have their value raised, they are given over to such keepers as bring to the musters either the full complement of their horses, or at least a complement not more deficient than by two. Incomplete stables are daily filled up during the musters; or if not filled up, they are put in charge of separate keepers. Twenty horses are daily mustered. On Sundays, horses are the first that are mustered. Double the usual number are then inspected. Several horses are also kept in waiting at Court. viz., one from each of the sixty to the forty-muhr stables, and one more from each of the thirty to the ten-muhr stables. They are given away as presents or as parts of salaries. The precedence at musters of bazarhorses is fixed according to the price. According to the number of horses available, from twenty to a hundred are daily mustered. Before the musters, experienced officers fix the prices, which are generally enhanced at the time of the parades. Horses above thirty muhrs, have their value fixed in the presence of His Majesty. A cash-keeper attached to the State-hall is entrusted with money, so that horse-dealers have not to wait long for payment of their claims. When horses have been bought they are marked with a peculiar brand, so that there may be no fraudulent exchange.

From foresight, and on account of the large profits of the horse-dealers. His Majesty enforces a tax of three rupees for every \$\frac{1}{2}\text{rap}\tilde{p}\$, Mujaanus (vide p. 147, note 3), and Arab, imported from Kābul and Persia (intwo and a half rupees for every Turkish and Arabian horse imported from Qandahār; and two from Kābul horses, and Indian Arab bred.

A* in 80.

THE MUSTER OF CAMEIS.

The beginning is made with country-bred camels, of which five quiters are daily inspected. Those paneodis (officers in charge of five hundred camels) come first who are oldest. The Head Dârogha has the permission to parade before His Majesty a quiter of excellent Bughdis and Jammazas. Then come the Bughdis, and after them the Jammazas, the Ghurds, the Loka, and all other camels. The commencement of the muster takes place

on Fridays, on which day double the usual number marches past. The precedence of camels is determined by their value.

A*in 81.

THE MUSTER OF CATTLE.

Cattle are mustered according to their value, ten yokes daily. The muster commences on Wednesdays, on which day double the usual number is inspected.

On the day of the Diwāli—an old festival of this country, on which the Hindus pray to the cow, as they look upon reverence shown to cows as worship—several cows are adorned and brought before His Majesty. People are very fond of this custom.

A in 82.

THE MUSTER OF MULES.

The muster of this beast of burden commence on Thursdays, when six gatārs are inspected in order of their value. Mules are mustered once a year.

Formerly all musters took place as above described. But now horses are inspected on Sundays; camels, cows, and mules, on Mondays; the soldiers, on Tuesdays; on Wednesdays, His Majesty transacts matters of finance; on Thursdays, all judicial matters are settled; Fridays His Majesty spends in the Harem; on Saturdays the elephants are mustered.

A*in 83.

THE PAGOSHT REGULATION.1

His Majesty has taught men something new and practical, and has made an excellent rule, which protects the animal, guards the stores,

¹ The object of this carious regulation was to determine the amount of the fines which Akbar could instly indict on the officers in charge of the animals belonging to the Court, if the condition of the animals did not correspond to his expectations. The daily extra quanta of food supplied to the animals, had been fixed by minute rules (Å*ins 43, 51, 62, 67, 70), and the several Dāroghas (store-keepers) entered into their roznámchas, or daybooks, the quantum daily given to each animal. These day-books were produced at the musters, and special efficure measured the fatness of each animal, and compared it with the food it had been receiving since the last muster, as shown in the day-book. Akbar determined a maximum fatness (Å), which corresponded to a maximum quantity of daily food. (a) Similarly, he determined a fatness (B), resulting from a daily quantity of food (b), though Abū 'l-Faşl does not specify how this was done. The quantities Å, B, etc.,

teaches equity, reveals the excellent and stimulates the lazy man. Experienced people saw their wisdom increased, and such as inquired into this secret obtained their desires

His Majesty first determined the quantity of daily food for each domestic animal, and secondly determined the results, which different quanta of food produce in the strength of an animal. In his practical wisdom and from his desire of teaching people, His Majesty classifies the dishonest practices of men. This is done by the Pagosht regulation. From time to time an experienced man is sent to the stables of these dumb creatures. He inspects them, and measures their fatness and leanness. At the time of the musters also the degrees of fatness or leanness are first examined into, and reports are made accordingly. His Majesty then inspects the animals himself, and decreases or increases the degrees of their fatness or leanness as reported, fixing at the same time the fine for leanness. If, for some reason, the allowance of grain or grass of an animal had been lessened, proper account is taken of such a decrease. The leanness of an elephant has been divided into thirteen classes. . . . 1

For all other animals beside the elephant, six degrees have been laid down, viz., the second, third, fifth, seventh, ninth, and tenth [degrees of the thirteen for the elephant]. And as it is the custom of the Fawidars. to mark, at the time of the musters of the halgas, one halga which is the best in their opinion, and to put separate that which is the worst, the officers who inquire into the leanness and fatness, deduct fifty per cent. from the degree of the former, and count one half for the latter halps. If the Fawjdar works in concert with the Darogha, and both sign the entries in the day-book, the Fawjadr is responsible for one-fourth, and the Darogha for the remaining part of the food. The leanness of old elephants is fixed by the condition of the whole hulga. In the horse stables the grooms, water-carriers, and sweepers are fined one-fourth of the wages. In the case of camels, the Darcgha is fined the amount

The text (p. 163, l. 19) enumerates several fractions, or degrees of leanness, but they give no sense. The confusion of the MSS, is due to the want of interpunctuation,

were then divided into several fractions or degrees, as $\frac{8A}{8}$, $\frac{7A}{8}$, $\frac{6A}{8}$, etc. Thus in the care of elephants the maximum fatness (A) was divided into 13 degrees.

Proposition means a quarter of flesh, and evidently expresses that the food a only produced \$\frac{1}{2}A\$, instead of \$\frac{1}{2}A\$. The name was then transferred to the regulation.

We do not know how the mustering officers applied Akbar's rule, whether by measuring the circumference of an animal or by weighing it. The rule may appear fanciful and suppractical; but it shows how determined 4kbar was to fathom the dishonesty of his Dâroghas. Hence the carefulness which he showed in ascessing fines (Å²ins 48, 57), in ordering frequent musters of animals and men, in reviving the regulations of branching animals as given by CAla² 'd-Din Khilji and Sher Shah, in fixing the perquisites, in paying cash for all supplies, in allowing veterinary surgeons certain powers, etc.

of the grain, and the driver for the share of the grass. In the case of oxen used for carriages, the Dārogha is fined for the part of the grass and the grain; but the driver is not liable. In case of heavy carriages, half the fine is remitted.

A*in 84.

ON ANIMAL FIGHTS. REGULATIONS FOR BETTING.

His Majesty is desirous of establishing harmony among people of different classes. He wishes to arrange feasts of friendship and union, so that everything may be done with propriety and order. But as all men do not possess a mind capable of selecting that which is true, and as every ear is not fit to listen to wisdom, His Majesty holds social meetings for amusement, to which he invites a large number of people. Through the careful arrangements of His Majesty, the court has been changed from a field of ambitious strife to a temple of a higher world, and the egotism and conceit of men have been directed to the worship of God. Even superficial, worldly people thus learn zeal and attachment, and are induced by these gatherings to inquire after the road of salvation.

Deer 2-fights.

The manner of fighting of this animal is very interesting, and its method of stooping down and rising up again is a source of great amusement. Hence His Majesty pays much attention to this animal, and has succeeded in training this stubborn and timid creature. One hundred and one deer are khāsa; each has a name, and some peculiar qualities. A keeper is placed over every ten. There are three kinds of fighting deer, first, those which fight with such as are born in captivity and with wild ones; secondly, such as fight best with tame ones; and thirdly, such as fiercely attack wild deer. The fights are conducted in three different ways. First, according to number, the first fighting with the second, the third with the fourth, and so on, for the whole. At the second go, the first fights with the third, the second with the fourth, and so on. If a deer runs away, it is placed last; and if it is known to have run away three times, it ceases to be khaşa. Betting on these fights is allowed; the stake does not exceed 5 dams. Secondly, with those belonging to the princes. Five khāşa pair fight with each other, and afterwards, two khāşa pair from His Majesty's hunting-ground; then five other khāsa pair. At the

¹ To join Akbar's Divine Faith.

1² The text has \$\frac{2}{2} \text{S}\$ which is the Persian name of the \$c\text{kikira}\$ (H.), the "ravine-deer" of Auglo-Indian sportsmen.—P.1

same time two pair from the deer park of His Majesty's hunting-ground fight, and afterwards five khāsa deer engage with five deer of the eldest Then fourteen khāsa pair engage with each other, and fight afterwards with the deer of the prince, till the fight with the deer of the prince is finished. Upon this, the deer of princes fight with each other, and then khāşa deer. The betting on such fights must not exceed one muhr. Thirdly, with the deer of other people.

His Majesty selects forty-two from his nearer friends, and appoints every two of them as opponents, forming thus one and twenty sets. The first winners receive each thirty deer, and all others get one less, so that the last get each eleven. To every set a Mal, a water-buffalo, a cow, a quehqār (fighting ram), a goat, and a cock, are given. Fights between cows and goats are rarely mentioned to have been held in ancient times. Before the fighting commences, two khāşa deer are brought in trimmed up, and are set against two deer belonging to people of various sets. First, with a deer belonging to a powerful grandee, and then the fight takes place before His Majesty. If a general assembly is announced, the fight may also take place, if the deer belongs to a commander of One Thousand. The betting on khāsa deer is eight muhrs, and on deer belonging to one of a set, five muhrs, if it be an Atkal; and four, if an Anin. As deer have not equal strength and impetuosity of attack, the rule among deer-keepers is, once to select each of their deer in turn and take it to the arena. Such deer are called Anin. Another then estimates its strength, and brings a deer as opponent. The latter is called Atkal. In case of Mals, the betting is five muhrs; for water buffaloes and cocks, four; for cows 2 and fighting rams, and gouts two. A commander of One Thousand is allowed to bet six muhrs on a khāşa deer; and with one of his own rank,3 32 muhrs, if the bet is on an Atkal; and three on an Anin; and so also in the same proportion on Mals, water-buffaloes, and cocks; but on cows,4 fighting rams, and goats, two. A commander of Nine Hundred may bet on a khāşa deer 50 rupees; and with one of his own rank, 301 R on an Atkal, and 25 R. on an Anin; on a Mal 31 muhrs; on a water-buffalo and a cock 31 M.; and on all other animals, 11 M. A commander of Eight Hundred is allowed to bet 48 R. on a khasa deer; with one of his own rank, 30 R. on an Atkal; and 24 R. on an Anin;

¹ Mal, according to A² in 6 of the second book, is the name for a Gujrāt wrestler.

[² In text gāv, which in Persian is applied to the bull, cow, and bullock. It is improbable that come were used for fighting.—P.]

² Or perhaps with his opponent in the set (migl).

[⁴ See note 2 on previous page.]

on a $Mal 3\frac{1}{8} M$.; on a water buffalo and ccck, $2\frac{1}{2} M$., and on other animals as before. A commander of Seven Hundred is allowed to bet 44 R. on a khāsa deer; with one of his own rank on an Atkal 274 R.; on an Anin 22 R.; on a Mal 3 M.; on other animals as before. A commander of Six Hundred may bet 40 R. on a khāsa deer; with one of his own rank. 25 R. on an Atkal; 20 R. on an Anin; on other animals as before. commander of Five Hundred may bet 4 M. [36 R.] on a khāsa deer; with one of his own rank 21 M. on an Atkal, and 2 M. on an Anin; on other animals, as the preceding. A commander of Four Hundred may bet 34 R. on a khāsa deer; with one of his own rank 214 R. on an Atkal; 17 R. on an Anin; on a Mal 2 M.; on a water-buffalo and cock, 2 M.; on a cow, a fighting ram, and goat, 1 M. A commander of Three Hundred may bet 30 R. on a khāṣa deer; with one of his own rank, 183 R. on an Atkal; 15 R. on an Anin; 21 M. on a Mal; on other animals as the preceding. A commander of Two Hundred may bet 24 R. on a khāsa deer; with one of his own rank 15 R. on an Atkal, 12 R. on an Anin, and on other animals as before. A commander of One Hundred may bet 2 M. on a khāşa deer; with one of his own rank 14 M. on an Atkal; 1 M. ou an Anin; and on other animals as before. A commander of Eighty may bet 16 R. on a khāsa deer; with one of his own rank 10 R. on an Atkal; 8 R. on an Anin; 17 R. on a Mal; 1; M. on a water-buffalo and a cock; on other animals as before. A commander of Forty may bet 12 R. on a khāşa deer; with one of his own rank 71 R. on an Atkal; 6 R. on a Anin; on other animals as before. A commander of Twenty may bet 10 R. on a khāşa deer; 6½ R. with one of his own rank on an Atkal; 5 R. on an Anin; on other animals as before. A commander of Ten may bet 8 R. on a khāşa deer, and 5 R. on an Atkal, with one of his own rank; 4 R. on an Anin; on other animals as before. People who hold no mansabs, bet 4 R. on a khāsa deer; with one of their own rank, 21 R. on an Atkal; 2 R. on an Anin; 15 R. on a Mal; on other animals as before.

But if the opponent hold a less rank, the amount of the bet is determined according to the amount which the opponent is allowed to bet on an Anin. When the last pair comes, the betting is everywhere on the deer. A fourth part of what people take from each other in Mal fights, is given to the victorious wrestler. The presents which His Majesty makes on such occasions have no limits.

The rule is that every one of such as keep animals brings on the fourteenth night of the moon one deer to the fight. The Bitikchī of this department appoints half the number of deer as Anīns, and the other half as Atkals. He then writes the names of the Atkals on paper slips,

folds them up, and takes them to His Majesty, who takes up one. The animal chosen has to fight with an $An\bar{\imath}n$. As such nights are clear, fights are generally announced for that time.

Besides, there are two other classes of deer, kotal and half kotal. The number of each is fixed. As often the number of $\underline{kh\bar{a}sa}$ deer decreases, the deficiency is made up from the kotal deer; and the deficiency in the number of kotals is made up from half kotals. One pair of kotals also is brought to the fight, so that they may be tried. Hunters supply continually wild deer, and bring them to His Majesty, who fixes the price. A fat superior deer costs 2M.; a thin superior one, 1M. to 15R.; a fat middling one, 12R.; Do. lean, 8R.; a third class fat one, 7R.; Do. thin, 5R.; a fourth class fat one, 4R.; Do. lean, 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}R$.

Deer are kept and fed as follows; <u>Khāşa</u> deer selected for fighting before His Majesty, get 2s. grain, $\frac{1}{2}s$. boiled flour, $\frac{1}{3}s$. butter, and 1d. for grass. Such as are kept on His Majesty's hunting-grounds, kotals, and fighting deer of the sets, get $1\frac{3}{4}s$. of grain, and flour and butter as before. The grass is supplied by each amateur himself. All <u>khāşa</u>, home-bred, kotal deer, and those of His Majesty's hunting-ground, have each one keeper. The fighting deer of the sets have one keeper for every two; the single last one has a keeper for itself. Nothing is given for grass. Deer which are given to people to have them fattened get $1\frac{1}{4}s$. grain, and $\frac{1}{2}d$. for grass 'They have one keeper for every four; but one for every two, if they are fit to become <u>khāşa</u>. Some deer are also sent to other towns; they get $1\frac{1}{3}s$. grain, and have each one keeper. If deer are newly caught, they get no regular food for seven days, after which they get $\frac{1}{3}s$. of grain for a fortnight. They then get 1s. and when one month is over, $1\frac{1}{2}s$.

In the deer park, Mansabdars, Ahadis, and other soldiers are on staff employ. The pay of foot-soldiers varies from 80 to 400 d.

His Majesty has 12,000 deer; they are divided into different classes, and proper regulations are made for each of them. There is also a stud for deer, in which new results are obtained. A large female gets 1½ s. grain, and ½ d. for grass. A new-born deer druks the milk of the dam for two months, which is reckoned as equivalent to ½ s. of grain. Afterwards, every second month, the allowance is increased by a quarter ser of grain, so that after a period of two years, it gets the same as its dam. For grass, ¼ d. is given from the seventh to the tenth month. Young males also get weaned after two months, when they get ¾s. of grain, which is increased by that quantity every second month, so that, after two years, they get ½ s. From the fifth to the eighth month, they get ¼ d. for grass, after which period they get ¼ d. for grass.

I have given a short description of animal fights as announced for general assemblies. His Majesty announces them also for day time; but as often a more important act of worship is to be performed, he announces them for the night. Or else His Majesty thinks of God, and seeks for wisdom in self-examination; he cares neither for cold nor heat; he spends the time which others idle away in sleep, for the welfare of the people, and prefers labour to comfort.

Ā*īn 85.

ON BUILDINGS.

Regulations for house-building in general are necessary; they are required for the comfort of the army, and are a source of splendour for the government. People that are attached to the world will collect in towns, without which there would be no progress. Hence His Majesty plans splendid edifices, and dresses the work of his mind and heart in the garment of stone and clay. Thus mighty fortresses have been raised, which protect the timid, frighten the rebellious, and please the obedient. Delightful villas, and imposing towers have also been built. They afford excellent protection against cold and rain, provide for the comforts of the princesses of the Harem, and are conducive to that dignity which is so necessary for worldly power.

Everywhere also Sarā, is have been built, which are the comfort of travellers and the asylum of poor strangers. Many tanks and wells are being dug for the benefit of men and the improvement of the soil. Schools and places of worship are being founded, and the triumphal arch of knowledge is newly adorned.

His Majesty has inquired into every detail connected with this department, which is so difficult to be managed and requires such large sums. He has passed new regulations, kindled the lamp of honesty, and put a stock of practical knowledge into the hands of simple and inexperienced men.

Ä*in 86.

THE PRICES OF BUILDING MATERIAL, ETC.

Many people are desirous of building houses; but honesty and conscientiousness are rare, especially among traders. His Majesty has carefully inquired into their profits and losses, and has fixed the prices of articles in such a manner, that both parties are satisfied.

Red sandstone costs 3 d. per man. It is obtainable in the hills of Fathpür Sikri, His Majesty's residence, and may be broken from the rocks at any length or breadth. Clever workmen chisel it so skilfully, as no turner could do with wood; and their works vie with the picture book of Mānī [the great painter of the Sassanides]. Pieces of red sandstone (sang-i gulūla), broken from the rocks in any shape, are sold by the pharī, which means a heap of such stones, without admixture of earth, 3 gaz long, $2\frac{1}{2}g$, broad, and 1g, high. Such a heap contains 172 mans, and has a value of 250 d., i.e. at the rate of $1 \text{ d. } 11\frac{1}{2}j$, per man.

Bricks 1 are of three kinds; burnt, half burnt, unburnt. Though the first kind are generally made very heavy, they weigh in the average three sers, and cost 30 d. per thousand. The second class cost 24 d., and the

third 10 d. per thousand.

Wood. Eight kinds of wood are in general use. 1. Sīsaū,² unrivalled for its beauty and durability. A block 1 Ilāhī gaz long, and 8 Tāssūj broad and high, costs 15 d. 6 j. But if the height be only 5 or 6 T., 11 d. 10½ j. Other sizes according to the same proportion. 2. Nāzhū, called in Hindī Jīdh.³ A beam, 10 T. broad and high, costs per gaz 5 d. 13½ j.; and a half size beam, from 7 to 9 T. broad and high, costs per gaz 5 d. 3½ j. 3. Dasang (?), called in Hindī Karī⁴; a beam 3 T. broad, and 4 gaz long, costs 5 d. 17½ j. 4. Ber, 1 T. broad and high, 4 gaz long, 5 d. 17½ j.; so also Tūt, or Mulberry. 5. Mughīlān (Babūl), of the same cubic contents as No. 4, 5 d. 2 j. 6. Sirs, size as before, 10 d. 4 j. 7. Dayāl, same size, first quality 8 d. 22½ j.; second quality, 8 d. 6½ j. 8. Bakāyin, same size, 5 d. 2 j.

Gaj-i shīrīn, or sweet limestone. There is a quarry near Bahīrah. When a merchant brings it, it costs 1 R. per three mans; but if any one sends his own carriers, only 1 d. Qalī-i-yi sangīn, per man 5 d. 5 j. Ṣadafī 5 d. Chūna, or quicklime, 2 d. per man; it is mostly boiled out of kangur, a kind of solid earth resembling stone in hardness.

Iron cramps, if tinned, 13 for 18 d.; plain ones, for 6 d.

Iron door-knockers, from Persis and Türän. tinned; large ones, 8 d. per pair; small ones, 4 d. Indian do., tinned, 5 \(\frac{1}{2} \) d.; plain ones, 4 d. 12 j.

Gul-mekh (large nails with broad heads), 12 d. per ser. Dinarin nails,

^{[1} Khesht in text. In modern Persian this word means a sun-dried brick as opposed to him, a kiln-burnt brick.—P.]

[[]In Platt's sied,—P.]
This word is spelt Chiek in Asin 90, No. 59.

^{[4} Kerd.—P.]

4 "The Ber was in great request in Akbar's time as a building timber, but is now little used, except for kingposts and tiebeams, as the direct cohesion of its fibres is equal to that of Salwood." Balfour's Timber Trees of India.

5 d. per ser. Goga, or small nails, tinned, first quality 7 d. for one hundred; second quality, 5 d.; smallest, 4 d.

Screws and nuts, chiefly used for doors and boxes. Tinned, 12 d. per ser; plain, 4 d.

Rings, tinned, 6 d. per ser; plain, 4 d.

Khaprel, or tiles. They are one hand long and ten fingers broad, are burnt, and are used for the roofs of houses, as a protection against heat and cold. Plain ones, 86 d. per thousand; enamelled, 30 d. for ten.

Qulba, or spouts, to lead off water. Three for 2 d.

Bås, or bamboo. It is used for spears. First quality, 15 d. for twenty pieces; second quality, 12 d. for do.; third quality, 10 d. for do. The price of some kinds of bamboo is much higher. Thus a peculiar kind is sold at 8 Ashrafis [muhrs] per piece. They are used for making thrones. Bamboo, at a rupee per piece, is common. Patal, is made of the reed which is used for qalams (pens). It is used for covering ceilings. First quality, cleaned, 1½ d. per square gaz; second quality, 1 d. Sometimes they sell patal at 2 d. for pieces 2 gaz long, and 1½ g. broad. Sirkī is made of very fine qalam reeds, looks well, and is very smooth; it is sold at the rate of 1½ d. per pair, 1½ g. long, and 16 girihs broad. The ceilings and walls of houses are adorned with it.

Khas 2 is the sweet-smelling root of a kind of grass which grows along the banks of rivers. During summer, they make screens of it, which are placed before the door and sprinkled with water. This renders the air cool and perfumed. Price $1\frac{1}{2}R$, per man,

Kāh-i chappar * (reeds for thatching) is sold in bundles, which are called in Hindī pūla, per ser from 100 to 10 d.

Bhus, or wheat straw, used for mixing with mortar, 3 d. per man.

 $K\bar{a}h$ -i $d\bar{a}bh$, straw, etc., which is put on roofs, 4 d. for a load of 2 mans.

Mūnj, the bark of qalam reeds, used for making ropes to fasten the thatching, 20 d. per man.

San 4 is a plant. Peasants mix it with quicklime. People also make ropes of it for well-buckets, etc., 3 d. per man.

Gum, of an inferior quantity, is mixed with quicklime, 70 d. per man. Sirish-i kāhī, or reed glue, is mixed with sweet limestone, 4 d. per ser.

Luk is the flower-bunch of the reed which is used for matting. People burn it and use it as a candle. It is also mixed with quicklime and gal. Price, 1 R. per man.

^{[1} grows ?-P.]
[2 Or Hindi thas blue. R.]
[3 For chhappar, H.—P.]
[4 San, H., homp, flax ?—F.]

Simgil (silver clay) is a white and greasy clay, 1 d. per man. It is used for white-washing houses. It keeps a house cool and looks well. Gil-i surkh, or red clay, called in Hindī, gerū, 40 d. per man. There is a quarry of it in the hills of Gwāli,ār.

Glass is used for windows; price, 1 R. for 11 s. or one pane for 4 d.

Ā²īn 87.

ON THE WAGE OF LABOURERS.

Gilkārs (workers in lime), first class workmen, 7 d.; second class, 6 d.; third class, 5 d.

Sang-tarāsh (stone-masons). The tracer gets 6 e. for each gaz; one who does plain work, 5 d. A labourer employed in quarries gets for every man he breaks, 22j.

Carpenters, first class, 7 d.; second do., 6 d.; third do., 4 d.; fourth do., 3 d.; fifth do., 2 d. For plain job-work, a first class carpenter gets 1 d. 17 j. for one gaz; second class do., 1 d. 6 j.; third class do., 21 j.

Pinjara-sāz (lattice worker and wicker worker). First, when the pieces are joined (fastened with strings), and the interstices be dodecagonal, 24 d. for every square gaz; when the interstices form twelve circles, 22 d.; when hexagonal, 18 d.; when jasfarī [or rhombus-like, one diagonal being vertical, the other horizontal], 16 d.; when shaṭranyī [or square tields, as on a chess board], 12 d. for every square gaz.

Secondly, when the work is <u>ghayr-wast</u> (the sticks not being fastened with strings, but skilfully and tightly interwoven), for first class work, 48 d. per square qaz; for second class do., 40 d.

Arra-kash (one who saws beams). For job-work, per square gaz 2½ d., if sīsaū wood; if nāzhū wood, 2 d. A labourer employed for the day, 2 d. There are three men for every saw, one above, two below.

Bildars (bricklayers), first class, daily $3\frac{1}{2}d$.; second class do., 3d. If employed by the job, for building fortress walls with battlements, 4d. per gaz; for laying foundations, $2\frac{1}{2}d$.; for all other walls, 2d. For digging ditches, $\frac{1}{2}d$. per gaz.

The gaz of a labourer contains 32 tassuj.

Chāh-kan, or well-diggers, first class workmen, 2 d. per gaz; second class do., $1\frac{1}{4}$ d.; third class, $1\frac{1}{4}$ d.

^{[1} Geril, H. Armenian bola.—P.]
[2 Bel-der a digger, a pioneer.—P.]

Ghota-khur, or divers. They clean wells. In the cold season, 4 d. per diem; in the hot season, 3 d. By the job, 2 R. for cleaning a depth of 1 gaz.

Khishti-tarāsh, or tile makers, for 100 moulds, smoothened, 8 d.

Surkhi-kob (pounders of old bricks), 11 d. for a heap of 8 mans.

Glass-cutters, 100 d. per gaz.

Bamboo-cutters, 2 d. per diem.

Chappar-band,² or thatchers, 3 d. per diem; if done by the job, 24 d. for 100 gaz.

Patal-band (vide p. 234), 1 d. for 4 gaz.

Lakhīra. They varnish reeds, etc., with lac. Wages, 2 d. per diem.

Abkash, or water-carriers. First class, 3 d. per diem; second class do., 2 d. Such water-carriers as are used for furnishing house-builders with water for mortar and quicklime, get 2 d. per diem.

A*in 88.

ON ESTIMATES OF HOUSE BUILDING.

Stonebuildings. For 12 gaz, one phart (vide above A^* in 86) is required; also 75 mans of chuna; but if the walls be covered with red stone, 30 mans of chuna are required per gaz.

Brickbuildings. For every gaz, there are required 250 bricks of three ser each, 8 mans china, and 2 m. 27 s. pounded brick (surkhi).

Claybuildings. 300 bricks are required for the same; each brick-mould contains 1 s. of earth and \(\frac{1}{2} \) s. of water.

Astarkārī work. For every gaz, 1 man chūna, 10 s. qal^cī, 14 s. sur<u>kh</u>ī, and ½ s. san (vide p. 234) are required.

Şandalakārī work. For every gaz, 7 s. of qal⁵ī, and 3 s. sur<u>kh</u>ī are required.

Safīdkārī work. 10 s. of qal'ī are required per gaz.

Gojkārī work (white-washing). For walls and ceilings, 10 s. per gaz; for pantries, 6 s.; chimneys, 10 s.

Windows require 24 s. of lime, 2\frac{1}{2} s. of glass, 4 s. of sirīsh-i kāhī (putty).

Plaster for walls, for 14 gaz 1 m. of straw, and 20 m. earth; for roofs and floors, do. for 10 gaz. For ceilings, and the inside of walls, do. for 15 gaz.

Lac (varnish work) used for chighs 3 [aliced bamboo sticks, placed

[[]¹ See note l to Å*In 86.—P.] [* Chhappar-band.—P.] [* Chiq T., f.—P.]

horizontally, and joined by strings, with narrow interstices between the sticks. They are painted, and are used as screens]. If red, 4 s. of lac, and 1 s. of vermilion; if yellow, 4 s. of lac, 1 s. of $zarn\bar{\imath}\underline{kh}$ (auripigment). If green, $\frac{1}{2}s_n$ of indigo is mixed with the lac, and $zarn\bar{\imath}\underline{kh}$ is added; if black, 4 s. of lac and 8 s. of indigo.

Ā*īn 89.

RULES FOR ESTIMATING THE LOSS IN WOOD CHIPS.1

One gaz=24 tassūj

1 tassūj=24 tisvansa

1 tiswānsa=24 khām

 $1 \underline{kham} = 24 zarra.$

Whatever quantity of wood be used, the chippings (?) are reckoned at one-eighth (?). In Sīsaū wood, per ṭassūj, 26½ sers 15 tānks; Babūl wood, 23½ s. 5 d.; Sirs wood, 21½ s. 15 tānks; Nāzhū wood, 20 s.; Ber wood, 18½ s.; Dayāl wood, 17 s. 20 tānks.

Ā*īn 90.

THE WEIGHT OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF WOOD.

His Majesty, from his practical knowledge, has for several reasons experimented on the weight of different kinds of wood, and has thus adorned the market place of the world. One cubic gaz of dry wood of every kind has been weighed, and their differences have thus been established. <u>Khanjak</u> wood has been found to be the heaviest, and Safidār the lightest wood. I shall mention 72 kinds of wood.

The weight of one cubic gaz of

rue neight of one one	at you								
							Mans.	Sers.	Tanks,
Khanjak .		•	•	•		is	27	14	-
Ambli (Tamarindus	indice	a)	•		•	•	24	8	25
Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus	asiati	cus 1	?)			1	91	94	
Balūţ (Oak) .	•	•		•		j	21	4	
Kher (Acacia catechi	4)	•		•	•	1	91	16	
Khirni (Mimusops)			•		•	Ì	AL	10	
Parsiddh .	•	•	•		•	•	20	14	17
Abnūs (Ebony)	•	-	•		•		30	9	20
	Khanjak . Amblī (Tamarindus Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus Balūţ (Oak) . Kher (Acacia catechi Khirnī (Mimusops) Parsiddh .	Khanjak Amblī (Tamarindus indice Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiati Balūţ (Oak) Kher (Acacia catechu) Khirnī (Mimusops) Parsiddh	Amblī (Tamarindus indica) Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiaticus indica) Balūt (Oak) Kher (Acacia catechu) Khirnī (Mimusops) Parsiddh	Khanjak Amblī (Tamarindus indica) Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiaticus ² ?) Balūţ (Oak) Kher (Acacia catechu) Khirnī (Mimusops) Parsiddh	Khanjak Amblī (Tamarindus indica) Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiaticus ² ?) Balūţ (Oak) Kher (Acacia catechu) Khirnī (Mimusops) Parsiddh	Khanjak Amblī (Tamarindus indica) Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiaticus * ?) Balūţ (Oak) Kher (Acacia catechu) Khirnī (Mimusops) Parsiddh	Khanjak is Amblī (Tamarindus indica)	Mans. Khanjak is 27 Amblī (Tamarindus indica) . . 24 Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiaticus *?) .	Mans. Sers. Khanjak is 27 14 Amblī (Tamarindus indica) . 24 82 Zaytūn (Gyrocarpus asiaticus 2?) . . . 21 24 Balūţ (Oak) . </td

⁴ I are not sure whether this Asin has been correctly translated.

⁸ So according to Watson's Index. But Voigt, in his Hortue Bengalensie, mys the wood of Zaytūn, or Gyrocarpus, in very light, and is used for bonts. Abū 'l-Faşl puts Zaytūn among the heaviest woods.

							Mans. S	Sers.	Tanks.
9.	Sain (Acacia suma)	•	•	•	•	•	19	32	10
10.	Baqam (Caesalpina sapp	an)	•	•	•	•	19	221	10
11.	Kharhar	•	•	•		•	19	111	5
12.	Mahwā (Bassia latifolia)	•	•		•	•	18	321	2
13.	Chandani	•	•		•	1	18	201	10
14.	Phulāhī	•	•	•	•	j	10	209	10
15.	Red Sandal, in Hindī Ra	kt C	handa	n (P	lerocarz	ous			
	santalinus) .	•	•	•	•	•	18	41	10
16.	Chamri	•	•	•	•	•	18	2	71
17.	Chamar Mamri .	•	•	•	•	•	17	161	-
18.	Unnāb (Zizyphus sativu	s)	•	•	•	•	17	5	4
19.	Sisaŭ Patang (vide No. 4	0)	•		•	•	17	17	
20.	Sandan	•	•	•	•	•	17	1	28
21.	Shamshad (Buxus semper	rvire	ns)	•	•	•	16	18	25
22.	Dhau (Grislea tomentosa)		•	•	•	•	16	1	10
23.	Amla, Hind Anwlah, (Er	nblic	a offic	inalis	e) .	•	16	11	1
24.	Karil (Sterculia fetida)			•	•	•	16	1	10
25.	Sandal	•	•		•	•	15	17	20
26 .	Sal (Shorea robusta).		•		•	•	15	42	7
27.	Banaus. His Majesty c	alls	this t	ree S	hāh Al	ū;			
	but in Kābul and	Pers	ian it	is c	alled A	lū			
	Bālū¹ (Cherry).						14	361	10
28.	Kailās 2 (Cherry-tree)		•	•	•	•	14	351	-
29.	Nimb (Azadirakhta indic	a)				•	14	$32\frac{1}{4}$	31
30 .	Därhard (Berberis aristat	a)			•	•	14	$32\frac{1}{4}$	19
31.	Main		•		•	1	14	22	
3 2.	Babûl (Acacia arabica)					Ì	1.8	22	
33.	Sagaun			•		•	14	10	20
34.	Bijaysår		•	•	•)	10	34	
35.	Pila				•	ì	13	92	
36.	Mulberry						13	281	15
37.	Dhaman.						13	25	20
38.	Bān Barās						13	10	29
39.	Sirs (Acacia odoratissima)			•		12	38	21
40.	Sisati (Dalbergia sissoo:	•	No. 1	9)		_	12	341	
41.	Finduq		•	<i>'</i> .	•		12	26	4
	-					_			

^{[1.} Alt-balt is a sour dark cherry.--P.]
[4 Gilss in Persia and Kamair is a sweet cherry.--P.]

								Mans.	Sers.	Fanks.
42 .	Chhaukar		•		•		. 1			
43 .	Duddhī.	•	•				. }	12	$17\frac{1}{2}$	22
44.	Haldi .	•	•					12	131	32
45 .	Kaim (Naucle	a pari	iflora)				12	12 j	
46.	Jāman (Jamh	osa)	•	•	•	•	.)	10	_	00
47.	Farās .			•	•	•	. }	12	8	20
48.	Bar (Ficus in	dica)	•					12	31	5
49.	Khandū			•	•		.)		-	
<i>5</i> 0.	Chanar 1.	•	•	•				11	29	_
51 .	Chārmaghz (V	Valnut	-tree)		•	•	. 1	••		
52 .	Champa (Mic	helia c	hamp	aca)		•		11	91	17
53 .	Ber (Zizyphu	jujub	a)		•	•		11	4	_
54.	Amb (Mango,			indica)	•	. 1			
55.	Pāparī (Ulmu				•	•	· Ì	11	2	20
56.	Diyar (Cedrus	deoda	r)			•		30	-00	
57.	Bed (Willow)						. }	10	20	
58.	Kunbhir (Gur	bhīr () gme	lina a	rborea	:)	.)	10	101	00
59 .	Chidh (Pinus						. 1	10	191	22
60.	Pipal. The			orshij	this	tree	(Ficus			
	religiosa)		•		•			10	101	21
61.	Kathal (Jackt	ree, A	rlocar	pus in	tegri f	olia)	.)	10	_	9.4
62.	Gurdain							. 10	71	34
63 .	Ruhera (Term	inalia	beleri	ica)	•	•		10	7	30
64.	Palas (Butca)	frondos	a)		•	•		9	34	-
65.	Surkh Bed		•		•	•		8	25	20
66 .	Ak (Calotropi	s gigan	tea)	•		•		8	191	25
67.	Senbal (Cotton	s-tree)	•		•	•		8	13	34
68.	Bakayin (Mel	ea com	posito	s)			•	8	9	30
69.	Lahsora (Cord		_		•		. 1	8	9	20
70.	Padmākh (Cer	rasus o	apron	iana)	•		.]	0	•	20
71.	And .		•	•	•	•		7	7	31
72.	Safidār .		•	•		•		6	7	221
1	in the above t	veight	s the	ser h	as bee	n tal	ken si	28 dām	8.	

[1 Chandr, the Plane.-P.]

END OF THE FIRST BOOK.

BOOK SECOND.

THE ARMY.

\bar{A}^{a} in 1.

THE DIVISIONS OF THE ARMY.

His Majesty guides the Imperial Army by his excellent advice and counsel, and checks in various ways attempts at insubordination. He has divided the army, on account of the multitude of the men, into several classes, and has thereby secured the peace of the country.

With some tribes, His Majesty is content, if they submit; he does not exact much service from them, and thus leads many wild races towards civilization.

The Zamindars of the country furnish more than four million, four hundred thousand men, as shall be detailed below (Third Book).

Some troopers are compelled by His Majesty to mark their horses with the Imperial brand. They are subject to divisions into ranks, and to musters.

Some soldiers are placed under the care and guidance of one commander. They are called Ahadis, because they are fit for a harmonious unity. His Majesty believes some capable of commanding, and appoints them as commanders.

A large number are worthy but poor; they receive the means of keeping a horse, and have lands assigned to themselves, without being obliged to mark their horses with the Imperial brand. Türänis and Persians get 25 Rupees; and Hindūstānis, 26 R. If employed to collect the revenue, they get 15 R. Such troopers are called Barāwardī.

Some commanders, who find it troublesome to furnish men, get a number of such soldiers as accept the Imperial brand. Such troops are called Dakhilis.

In the contingent of a commander (manşabdār) of Ten Thousand, other manşabdārs as high as Hazārīs (commanders of One Thousand) serve; in the contingent of a commander of Eight Thousand, Manṣabdārs up to Hashtpadīr (commanders of Eight Hundred) serve; in the contingent of a commander of Seven Thousand, Manṣabdārs up to Haftpadīs (commanders of Seven Hundred) serve; in the contingent of

a commander of Five Thousand, other Mansabdars as high as *Pansadīs* (commanders of Five Hundred) serve; and in the contingent of a *Pansadīs*, Mansabdars as high as *Ṣadīs* (commanders of One Hundred) serve. Mansabdars of lower ranks do not serve in the contingents of high Mansabdars.

Some commanders also receive auxiliaries. Such reserves are called Kumakis.

At the present time, those troopers are preferred whose horses are marked with the Imperial brand. This class of soldiers is superior to others. His Majesty's chief object is to prevent the soldiers from borrowing horses (for the time of musters) or exchanging them for worse ones, and to make them take care of the Imperial horses; for he knows that avarice makes men so short-sighted that they look upon a loss as a gain. In the beginning of the present reign, when His Majesty was still "behind the veil", many of his servants were given to dishonest practices, lived without check, and indulged, from want of honour, in the comforts of married life.1 Low, avaricious men sold their horses, and were content to serve as foot-soldiers, or brought instead of a superior horse, a tätü 2 that looked more like an ass. They were magniloquent in their dishonesty and greediness of pay, and even expressed dissatisfaction, or rebelled. Hence His Majesty had to introduce the Descriptive Roll System, and to make the issue of pay dependent upon the inspection of these rolls (vide below A*in 7). This stopped, in a short time, much lawlessness, and regenerated the whole military system. But at that time the regulations regarding the Imperial brand were not issued, as His Majesty had adopted the advice of some inexperienced men, who look upon branding an animal as an act of cruelty; hence avaricious men (who cannot distinguish that which is good from that which is bad, having neither respect for themselves, nor their master, and who think to promote a cause by ruining it, thus acting against their own interest) adopted other vicious practices, which led to a considerable want of efficiency in the army. Horse borrowing was then the order of the day. His Majesty, therefore, made the branding of the horses compulsory, in addition to the Descriptive Roll System. Easy-minded idlers thus passed through a school of discipline and became worthy men, whilst importunate, low men were taught honourableness and manliness. The unfeeling and avaricious learned the luxury of magnanimity. The army resembled a newly irrigated garden. Even for the Treasury the new regulations proved

^{[1} In text نوکر گسسته مهار زیستی.—P.] [2 For tatte H. pony.—P.]

beneficial. Such are the results which wisdom and practical knowledge can produce! Branding a horse may indeed inflict pain; but when viewed from a higher point, it is the cause of much satisfaction to the thinking man.

Ā^sin 2.

ON THE ANIMALS OF THE ARMY.

In the 18th year of his reign, His Majesty introduced the branding system [vide p. 147, note 2]. The ranks of the men were also laid down in the best manner, and the classification of the animals belonging to the army was attended to. The requirements for each were noted down, and excellent regulations were issued. The maximum and minimum prices were inquired into by His Majesty, and average prices were fixed. A proper check by accounts was enforced, and regulations on this subject were laid down. The Bakhshis were also freed from the heavy responsibility of bringing new men, and everything went on smoothly.

1. Horses. They have been divided into seven classes. The rate of their daily food has also been fixed. These seven classes are Arabs, Persian horses, Mujannas, Turkī horses, Yābūs, Tāzīs, and Jangla horses.

The first class are either Arab bred, or resemble them in gracefulness and prowess. They cost 720 dams per mensem; and get daily 6 s. of grain (the price of which, in the estimates for each animal, is put down at 12 d. per man), 21 d. of ghi, 2 d. for sugar, and 3 d. for grass. Also, for a jul, artak, yālposh, girth 1 (His Majesty does not call it tang, but a farākhī),1 gaddī nakhtaband, a qayza (which the valgar pronounces qāyiza), magasedn, curry-comb, hatthis (a bag made of horse hair for washing the horse). towel, pay-band, nails, etc. [vide p. 144], 70 d. per mensem, which outlay is called kharj-i yaraq-i asp (outlay for the harness of the horse). Besides, 60 d. for the saddle, and an apchi (?) every second month; 7 d. per mensem for shoes; and 63 d. for a groom, who gets double this allowance if he takes charge of two horses. Total, 479 d. But as His Majesty cares for the comfort of the army, and inquires into the satisfactory condition of the soldiers, he increased, in the very beginning, this allowance of 479 d. by 81 d.; and when the value of the Rupee was increased from 35 to 40 dams, His Majesty granted a second additional allowance of 80 d. This coin [the Rupee] is always counted at 40 d. in salaries. Afterwards a third additional allowance of 2 R. (80 d.) was ordered to be given for

^{[1} Tang is girth, but furdhhi is a body-roller, not a girth.—P.]
[2 Nahhta-band for nukth-band headstall ?—P.]

each class of horses, except Janglas, which horses are nowadays entirely left out in the accounts.

The second class are horses bred in Persia, or such as resemble Persian horses in shape and bearing. Monthly allowance, 680 d. Of this, 458 d. are necessary expenses, being 21 d. less than the former, viz., 10 d. for the yarāq, 10 d. for saddle and bridle, and 1 d. for shoes. The first increase which was given amounted to 67 d.; the second to 75 d.; the third to 80 d. Total 680 d.

The third class, or Mujannas horses, resemble Persian horses [vide p. 147, note 3], and are mostly Turki, or Persian geldings. Monthly cost 560 d. Of this, 358 d. are for necessaries. The allowance for these horses is 100 d. less than the preceding, viz., 30 d. less for sugar; 30 d. less for saddle, bridle, etc.; 15 d. less in ghī; 3 d. less for the groom; 2 d. less for shoeing. First increase sanctioned by His Majesty, 72 d.; second, 50 d.; third, 80 d.

The fourth class are horses imported from Tūrān; though strong and well-formed, they do not come up to the preceding. Monthly allowance, 480 d. Of this, 298 d. are for necessaries. The allowance is 60 d. less than for Mujannas horses, viz., 30 d. less for sugar, 30 d. less for grass; 10 d. less for the yarāq; 4 d. less for the saddle, bridle, etc.; 2 d. less for shoeing; 2 d. less for ghī. But the daily allowance of grain was increased by 2 sers (which amounts to 18 d. per mensem), as the sugar had been left out. First increase, 52 d.; second, 50 d.; third, 80 d.

The fifth class ($y\bar{a}b\bar{u}$ horses) are bred in this country, but fall short in strength and size. Their performances also are mostly bad. They are the offspring of Turki horses with an inferior breed. Monthly cost 400 d. Of this, 239 d. are for necessaries. The allowance is 59 d. less than the preceding; viz., 28 d. for $gh\bar{i}$; 15 d. less for the groom; 10 d. less for the $gh\bar{i}$ and 6 d. less for the saddle, bridle, etc. First increase, 41 d.; second increase, 40 d.; third, 80 d.

The last two classes also are mostly Indian breed. The best kind is called Tāzī; the middling, Janglas; the inferior ones, Tātū.4

Good mares are reckoned as Tāzīs; if not, they are counted as Janglas.

1. Tāzī. Monthly cost, 320 d., of which 188 d. are for necessaries. The allowance is 51 d. less than for the Yābū, viz., 18 d. less for grain, as they only get 6 sers per diem; 15 d. less for grass; 10 d. less for ghī and sugar; 8 d. less for yarāq. First increase, 22 d.; second, 30 d.; third, 80 d.

^{[&#}x27; Cirăq-i CAjam.—P.]
[' Ildich does not mean gelding but " of mixed breed ".—P.]
[' For fattë, H.—P.]

2. Jangla. Monthly cost, 240 d., of which $145\frac{1}{2}$ d. are for necessaries. The allowance is $42\frac{1}{2}$ d. less than for $T\bar{a}z\bar{s}s$. The daily allowance of grain has been fixed at 5 sers. Hence there are 15 d. less for grass; 9 d. less for grain; 6 d. less for $gh\bar{\imath}$ and molasses; $14\frac{1}{2}$ d. less for the $yar\bar{a}q$; 2 d. less for shoeing. First increase, $29\frac{1}{2}$ d.; second, 25 d.; third, 40 d.

Formerly mules were reckoned as $T\bar{a}z\bar{\imath}$ horses; but nowadays, as Jangla.

For $T\bar{a}t\bar{u}s^2$ the monthly expenditure is 160 d.; but this animal is now altogether thrown out.

Note by the Translator. We may arrange Abū'l-Fazl's items in a tabular form. From several remarks in Badā, onl, we may conclude that the borses of the Imperial army were mostly fourth and sixth class horses. The exportation of horses from Hindustān was strictly prohibited by Akbar, who made the kotwāls responsible for it: vide Bad. II. p. 390, l. 5 from below. Many recruits on joining the contingent of a Manyabdār, brought horses with them, for which the Manyabdār received from the treasury an allowance according to the following table:—

	I.	II.	ш.	IV.	٧.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
	Arabs.	Persian Horses.	Mujannas Horses.	Turki Horses.	Yabüs.	Taxis.	Janglahs.	Tātūs.
Gram GhI Sugar Grass Yariq Saddle, &c Shoes Groom	54 d. 75 d. 60 d. 90 d. 70 d. 60 d. 7 d. 63 d.	75 d. 60 d. 90 d. 60 d 50 d.	60 d. 30 d. 90 d. 40 d. 20 d.	56 60 d. 30 d. 16 d 2 d.	30 d. {	12 d. 10 d.	45 d. 4 d. 80 d. 71 d. 10 d.	Not
Original Allowance	479 d.	458 d.	35R d.	298 d.	239 d.	188 d.	145} d.	
Ist Increase	81 d. 80 d. 80 d.	67 d. 75 d. 80 d.	72 d. 30 d, 80 d.	52 d. 50 d. 80 d.	41 d. 40 d. 80 d.	22 d. 30 d. 80 d.	29} d. 25 d. 40 d.	Not specified.
Total monthly cost in dams	720 d.	680 d .	560 d.	480 d.	400 d.	320 d.	240 d.	160 d.

The allowance of sugar, or molasses, according to Abū 'l-Fagi ceases from Class IV; but as he goes on mentioning it in the inferior classes. I have made brackets. Ohi and molasses were generally given together; vide p. 142.

^{[1} Gand-i sight is probably gur, H.—P.]
[2 See footnote 4, p. 244.—P.]

3. Elephants. The branded elephants of the army are divided into seven classes: Mast, Shergīr, Sāda, Manjhola, Karha, Phandurkiya, and Mokal, elephants; but there are no subdivisions, as in His Majesty's elephant stables [vide p. 131, 1. 27].

The monthly allowance for Mast elephants is 1,320 dāms [33 Rupees]. Daily allowance of grain, $2\frac{1}{2}$ māns. No elephant has more than three servants, a Mahāwat, a Bho, $\bar{\imath}$, and a Meth, of whom the first gets 120 d., and the two last 90 d. An increase of 120 d. was given. From the beginning, elephants were branded; but now certain differences are made.

Shergir elephants. Monthly cost, 1,100 d., which is 220 d. less than the former. Grain, 2 m. per diem, which makes 180 d. less per mensem; also 15 d. less for the Mahāwat and the Bho,ī. His Majesty increased the allowance by 110 d.

 $S\bar{a}da$ elephants. Monthly cost, 800 d., which is 300 d. less than the preceding. Grain $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. per diem, which gives 180 d. less per month. Besides 30 d. less for the Meth, and 15 d. less for the Mahāwat and the Bho, $\bar{\imath}$. An increase of 50 d. was sanctioned.

Manjhola elephants. Monthly cost, 600 d. Grain 1 m. The decrease is the same as in the preceding; but an additional allowance of 90 d. was sanctioned.

Karha elephants. Monthly cost, 420 d.; grain, 30 s. Hence there is a decrease of 30 d. on this account; and of 15 d. for the Mahāwat. No Bho, $\bar{\imath}$ is allowed. The additional grant is 60 d.

Phandurkiya elephants. Monthly cost, 300 d. Grain, 15 s. per diem, which gives a decrease of 135 d. per mensem. Only one servant is allowed. at 60 d. per month. An additional grant of 105 d. was sanctioned.

Mokal elephants were formerly not counted. Now they are considered worthy of entering the classes. Monthly allowance, 280 d.

In all payments on account of elephants, dāms are taken, not rupees, so that there is no possibility of fluctuation.

- 4. Camels. Monthly cost, 240 d. Grain, 6 s.; grass, 1 d.; furniture, 20 d.; the driver, 60 d. An addition of 58 d. was sanctioned; and when the value of the Rupee was fixed at 40 dams, 20 d. more were allowed.
- 5. Ozen. Monthly allowance, 120 d. Grain, 4 s.; grass, 1 d.; furniture, 6 d. Additional grant, 38 d. At the time when the value of the rupee was raised, 10 d. more were given.
- 6. Oxen for the waggons. For each waggon, the monthly expenditure is 600 d., viz. 480 d. for four oxen; 120 d. for grease, repairs, and additional comforts.

Elephants and waggons are only allowed to Mansabdars, and to those who bring good horses and camels, and middling oxen to be branded.

°in 3.

THE MANSABDARS. 1

Wise inquirers follow out the same principles, and the people of the present age do not differ in opinion from those of ancient times. They all agree that if that which is numerous be not pervaded by a principle of harmony, the dust of disturbances will not settle down, and the troubles of lawlessness will not cease to rise. It is so with the elements; as long as the uniting principle is absent, they are dead, and incapable of exhibiting the wonders of the kingdoms of nature. Even animals form unions among themselves, and avoid wilful violence; hence they live comfortably and watch over their advantages and disadvantages. men, from the wickedness of their passions, stand much more in need of a just leader round whom they may rally; in fact, their social existence depends upon their being ruled by a monarch; for the extraordinary wickedness of men, and their inclination to that which is evil, teach their passions and lusts new ways of perversity, and even cause them to look upon committing bloodshed and doing harm as a religious command. To disperse this cloud of ignorance, God chooses one, whom he guides with perfect help and daily increasing favour. That man will quell the strife among men by his experience, intrepidity, and magnanimity, and thus infuse into them new vigour.

But as the strength of one man is scarcely adequate to such an arduous

The Arabians say mansib; in Persia and India, the word is pronounced mansab. It means a post, an office, hence mansabdar, an officer; but the word is generally restricted to high officials.
When the Collector of the Diwan asks them (the Hindus) to pay the tax, they

should pay it with all humility and submission. And if the Collector wishes to spit into their mouths, they should open their mouths without the slightest fear of contamination (tequency), so that the Collector may do so. In this state [with their mouths open] they should stand before the Collector. The object of such humiliations and spitting into their mouths is to prove the obedience of infidel subjects under protection, and to promote the grow of Islam, the true religion, and to show contempt to false religions: God himself orders us to despise them; for He says (Sur. 9, 29), 'Out of hand, whilst they are reduced lew,' To treat the Hindus contemptuously is a religious duty, because they are the greatest enemies of Mustafa (Muhammad), because Mustafa, regarding the killing and plundering of Hindus, and making slaves of them, has ordered, 'They must either accept the Islam, or be killed, or be made slaves, and their property must be plundered'; and with the exception of the Imam-i Açam (Abū Hanifah), to whose sect we all belong, there is no other authority for taking the Jisys from Hindus; but all other lawyers say, 'Either death or the Islam.' "Tarikh-i Fivis Shahi, p. 290. Akbar often represented the Muhammadans for converting with the sword. This, he said, was inhuman. And yet, he allowed the sutter.

undertaking, he selects, guided by the light of his knowledge, some excellent men to help him, appointing at the same time servants for them. For this cause did His Majesty establish the ranks of the Mansabdars, from the Dahbāshī (Commander of Ten) to the Dah Hazārī (Commander of Ten Thousand), limiting, however, all commands above Five Thousand to his august sons.

The deep-sighted saw a sign, and inquirers got a hint from above when they found the value of the letters of God's holy name; 1 they read in it glad tidings for the present illustrious reign, and considered it a most auspicious omen. The number of Mansabs is sixty-six, the same as the value of the letters in the name of Allah, which is an announcement of eternal bliss.

In selecting his officers, His Majesty is assisted by his knowledge of the spirit of the age, a knowledge which sheds a peculiar light on the jewel of his wisdom. His Majesty sees through some men at the first glance,² and confers upon them high rank. Sometimes he increases the mansab of a servant, but decreases his contingent. He also fixes the number of the beasts of burden. The monthly grants made to the Mansabdars vary according to the condition of their contingents. An officer whose contingent comes up to his mansab, is put into the first class of his rank; if his contingent is one half and upwards of the fixed number, he is put into the second class; the third class contains those contingents which are still less, as is shown in the table below.

Yūzbāshīs (Commanders of One Hundred) are of eleven classes. The first class contains such as furnish one hundred troopers. Their monthly salary is 700 Rupees. The eleventh class contains such as have no troops of their own, in accordance with the statement made above, that Dakhili troops are nowadays preferred. This class gets 500 Rupees. The nine intermediate classes have monthly allowances decreasing from 700 Rupees by 20 Rupecs for every ten troopers which they furnish less.

In the live stock accounts of the Du-bistis, the fixed number of Turki and Jangla horses, and of elephants, is not enforced. For Commanders of Thirty and Twenty, four horses are reckoned generally Mujannas, rarely

coincidence, because of the mixty-six mansabs only one half existed.

2 Abū 'l-Faşl often praises Akbar as a good physiognomist. Badā,onī says Akbar learnt the art from the Jogfs.

¹ Jaldah. This curious word is, according to Bahdr-i cAjdm, an abbreviation of the phrase Jalla jaldala-ha, "May His glory shine forth." It is then used in the sense of God; thus the dual jaldalays, saying Allah! Allah!; and hatm-i jalda saying the word Allah 125,000 times. Similarly here; the 66 mansats correspond to the value of the letters of Jaldah, i.e. 45 = 1+30+5=66. Abū "l-Faşl makes much of the coincidence, for Akbar's name was Jalda" d-Din, and Akbar wir divinity. Perhaps I should not say coincidence have not the sixty six mansate only one half existed.

Yābūs; and Dahbāshīs are excused the Turkī horse, though their salaries remain as before.

NOTE BY THE TRANSLATOR ON THE MANSABS.

The sixty-six Manṣabs, detailed by Abū 'l-Fazl in the following table, appear to be the result of a minute classification rather than a representation of the Manṣabs which actually existed at the time of Akbar. The table may represent Akbar's plan; but the list of grandees, as given by Abū 'l-Fazl himself in the 30th Ā*īn of this Book, only mentions thirty-three—the three commands of the three Princes from 10,000 to 7,000; and thirty commands of the Manṣabdārs, namely commands of 5,000, 4,500, 4,000, 3,500, 3,000, 2,500, 2,000, 1,500, 1,250, 1,000, 900?, 800, 700, 600, 500, 400, 350, 300?, 250, 200, 150, 120, 100, 80, 60, 50, 40, 30, 20, 10. Oh the last thirty commands, two are somewhat doubtful (the commands of 900 and 300), as not given in all-MSS. of the Ā*īn, though the List of Grandees of Shāh Jahān's time (Pādishāhnāma, II, p. 717) mentions a command of 900. It does not specify a command of 300, because no Manṣabs under 500 are enumerated in that list.

Abū 'l-Fazl specifies below the names of all of Akbar's Commanders up to the Manzabdārs of 500; he then gives the names of the Commanders of 500 to 200, who were living, when he made the list. Of the Commands below 200, he merely gives the numbers of those that were alive, viz. :— of Commanders of

150					53
120					1
	Yūzb	āshīs)			250
80					91
60					204
50					16
40				•	260
30		•	•		39
20			•		250
10		_			224

in all, 1,388 commanders from 150 to 10. The number of the higher Mansabdars from 5,000 to 200 is 412. of which about 150 may have been dead, when Abū 'l-Fazl made his list.

As Abū 'l-Fazl's List (A*in 30), according to the testimony of Nizām-i Harawī is a complete list, it is certain that of the 66 Mansabs of the

Name says, in the introduction to his List of the principal grandees of Akbar's Court, that it was unnecessary for him to specify all, because tapil-i mami-yi her just re afagilpench Shayth Abd 'l-Fast dar kitab-i Akbarnama marqum-i qalam-i baddbiç reque gardinida.

following table, only 33 existed in reality. The first eighteen of these 33 are commands down to 500, which corresponds to the List of Shāh-jahān's grandees in the *Pādishāhnāma*, which likewise gives 18 commands to 500.

The commands as detailed in the *Pādishāhnāma* are:—Four commands of the princes (Dārā Shikoh, 20,000; Shāh Shujā^c, 15,000; Awrangzeb, 15,000; Murād Ba<u>kh</u>sh, 12,000) and commands of 9,000, 7,000, 6,000, 5,000, 4,000, 3,000, 2,500, 2,000, 1,500, 1,000, 900, 800, 700, 600, 500.

From the fact that Abū 'l-Fazl only gives names up to commanders of 200, and the *Pādishāhnāma* up to 500, we may conclude that, at Akbar's time, Manṣabs under 200, and at Shāhjahān's time, Manṣabs under 500, did not entitle the holder to the title of *Amīr*. To judge from *Nizām's Ṭabaqāt* and the *Ma²āṣir-i Raḥīmī*, Manṣabdārs from the Hazārī (Commander of 1,000) were, at Akbar's time, styled *umarā²-i kibār*, or *umarā-i 'izām*, great Amīrs; and I am not quite sure whether the title of Amīr is not restricted to Manṣabdārs from the *Hazārīs* upwards. Nizām does restrict his phrases ba-martaba-yi imārat rasīd, or dar jarga (or silk, or zumra)-yi umarā muntazim gasht, to commanders from Hazārīs.

The title Amīr* 'l-umarā (the Amīr of the Amīrs, principal Amīr), which from its meaning would seem to be applicable to one at the time, seems to have been held by several simultaneously. Nizām gives his title to Adham Khān, Khizr Khwāja Khān, Mīr Muḥammad Khān Atkah, Muzaffar Khān, Quṭbu 'd-Dīn Muḥammad Khān, and to the three commanders-in-chief, Bayrām Khān, Munsim Khān, and Mīrzā ʿAbdu 'r-Raḥīm, the three latter being styled Khān Khānān,¹ or Khān Khānān o Sipahsālār.

In the Pādishāhnāma, however, the title of Amīru'l-Umarā is restricted to the first living grandee (SAlī Mardān Khān).

It is noticeable that Nizām only mentions commanders of 5,000, 4,000, 3,000, 2,500, 2,000, 1,500, and 1,000—for lower Manşabs he does not specify names. Abū 'l-Fazl gives three intermediate Manşabs of 4,500, 3.500, and 1,250; but as he only gives five names for these three ranks we may conclude that these Manşabs were unusual. This agrees also with the salaries of the commanders; for if we leave out the commands of 4,500, 3,500, and 1,250, we have, according to Asin 30, twelve steps from 5,000 to 500, and the monthly salary of a commander of 500 (Rs. 2,500; is the twelfth part of the salary of a commander of 5,000 (Rs. 30,000). The Pādishāhnāma gives fourteen steps between the

¹ For Khān-i Khānan, the Khān of the Khāns. In such titles the Persian Işā fat is left out.

commanders of 7,000 and 500, and fixes the salary of a commander of 7,000 at one kror of dams per annum, or 250,000 Rs., stating at the same time that the salaries decrease in proportion. The Persian Dictionary, entitled Ghiyās" 'l-lughāt, states that the salary of a commander of 5,000 is one kror, or 250,000 Rs., and that the salary of a Pansadi, or commander of 500, is 20,000 Rs. per annum, the 121th part of the former.

It would thus appear that the salaries of the Mansabdars, as given by Abū 'l-Fazl in the following table, are somewhat higher than those given in the Pādishāhnāma and the Ghiyās, whatever may have been the source of the latter.

The salaries appear to be unusually high; but they would be considerably reduced, if each Mansabdar had to keep up the establishment of horses, elephants, camels, carts, etc., which Abu 'l-Fagl specifies for each rank. Taking the preceding Asin and the table in the note as a guide, the establishment of horses, etc., mentioned in the following table, would amount, for a commander of

> 5,000 (monthly salary 30,000 R.) to 10,637 R. 1,000 (8,200 R.) to 3,015\(\frac{1}{2}\) R. •• 700 R.) to 313 R. 100 (

The three classes which Abū 'l-Fazl mentions for each Mansab differ very slightly, and cannot refer to p. 249, l. 23.

A commander of 5,000 was not necessarily at the head of a contingent of 5,000 men. In fact, the numbers rarely even approach the number expressed by the title of a Mansabdar. Thus Nizam says of Todar Mall and Qutba 'd-Din Muhammad Khan, as if it was something worth mentioning, that the former had 4,000 cavalry, and the latter 5,000 newkors, or servants, i.e., soldiers, though Todar Mall was a commander of 4,000 (Nizām says 5,000), and Qutbu 'd-Din a commander of 5,000. Of Abdul majid Asaf Khan, a commander of 3,000 (vide Asin 30, No. 49), Nigam says, "he reached a point when he had 20,000." In the Padishakname, where more details are given regarding the number of men under each commander, we find that of the 115 commanders of 500 under Shāhjahān, only six had contingents of 500, whilst the last had only 50 troopers. This also explains the use of the word عَن عِقد after the titles of Mangabdars; as panj kazārī-yi zāt sikhazār suvār, "a commander of 5.000, personally (zat, or by rank), and in actual command of 3,000 cavalry." Sometimes we meet with another phrace, the meaning of which will be explained below, as Shayista Khan penjharari, panj hasar supar-i duaspa sikaspa, "Shayista Khan, a commander of 5,000, contingent 5,000 cavalry, with two horses, with three horses." A trooper is called duaspa, if he has two horses, and sihaspa, if three, in order to change horses during elghars or forced marches. But keeping duashps sihaspa troopers was a distinction, as in the Pādishāhnāma only the senior Mansabdars of some ranks are so designated, viz., 8 (out of 20) Panjhazārīs; 1 Chahārhazārī; 2 Sihhazārī; 2 Duhazārī; 2 Hazār o pansadī; 1 Hazārī; and 1 Haftsadī.

The higher Mansabdars were mostly governors of Subas. governors were at first called sipahsālārs; towards the end of Akbar's reign we find them called Hakims, and afterwards Sahib Subah, or Sūba-dārs, and still later merely Sūbas. The other Mansabdārs held Jagirs, which after the times of Akbar were frequently changed. The Mansabdars are also called tafinatiyan (appointed), whilst the troops of their contingents are called tabinat (followers); 1 hence tabinbashi, the Mansabdar himself, or his Bakhshi (pay-master, colonel).

The contingents of the Mansabdars, which formed the greater part of the army, were mustered at stated times, and paid from the general or the local treasuries; vide Asins 6, 7, 8. Akbar had much trouble with these musters, as fraudulent practices were quite common. The reform of the army dates from the time when Shahbaz Khan (vide pp. 148, 197) was appointed Mir Bakhshi. The following passage from Bada.oni (II. p. 190) is interesting:-

"The whole country, with the exception of the Khālisa lands (domains), was held by the Amīrs as jāgīr; and as they were wicked and rebellious, and spent large sums on their stores and workshops, and amassed wealth. they had no leisure to look after the troops or take an interest in the people. In cases of emergency, they came themselves with some of their slaves and Moghul attendants to the scene of the war; but really useful soldiers there were none. Shahbaz Khan, the Mir Bakhshi, introduced the custom and rule of the dagh o mahalli, which had been the rule of SAla" 'd-Din Khilji, and afterwards the law under Sher Shah. It was settled that every Amir should commence as a commander of twenty (bist), and be ready with his followers to mount guard and 4 as had

tayin, the Indian pronunciation of تميني, from تميني latin, the Indian pronunciation of

to appoint sibin, wat, to follow; then as an adj. one who follows. This corrects the erroneous meanings of sibis on p. 62 of the Journal A. S. of Bengal for 1868.

The passage in the printed edition is frightfully unintelligible. For his read Kanb6; for bas dehands, we have perhaps to read ydd dahinida, having brought to the memory of (Akbar); for tablian, read sabinds; for pandh Khuda, read pandh ba-Khuda; for da m, road da hamah.

The Thrigh-i First Shahl says but little regarding it. The words dagh o meballi occur very often together.

Oite e meljer (?). For jer, a Turkish word, vide Vullers,

been ordered; and when, according to the rule, he had brought the horses of his twenty troopers to be branded, he was then to be made a Sade, or commander of 100 or more. They were likewise to keep elephants, horses, and camels, in proportion to their Mansabs, according to the same rule. When they had brought to the musters their new contingent complete they were to be promoted according to their merits and circumstances to the post of Hazārī, Duhazārī, and even Panjhazārī, which is the highest Mansab; but if they did not do well at the musters, they were to be put down. But notwithstanding this new regulation, the condition of the soldiers got worse, because the Amīrs did what they liked; for they put most of their own servants and mounted attendants into soldiers' clothes (libās-i sipāhī), brought them to the musters, and performed everything according to their duties. But when they got their jagire, they gave leave to their mounted attendants, and when a new emergency arose, they mustered as many 'borrowed' soldiers as were required, and sent them away again, when they had served their purpose. Hence while the income and expenditure of the Mansabdar remained in statuquo, 'dust fell into the platter of the helpless soldier,' so much so, that he was no longer fit for anything. But from all sides there came a lot of low tradespeople, weavers, and cotton cleaners (naddaf), carpenters, and greengrocers. Hindu and Musalman, and brought borrowed horses, got them branded, and were appointed to a Mansab, or were made Kroris (vide p. 13, 1, 7 from below), or Ahadis, or Dakhilis to some one (vide p. 231); and when a few days afterwards no trace was to be found of the imaginary horse and the visionary saddle, they had to perform their duties on foot. Many times it happened at the musters, before the emperor himself in the Diwan-khana-yi khass, that they were weighed in their clothes, with their hands and feet tied, when they were found to weigh from 21 to 3 man, more or less (?) and after inquiry, it was found that all were hired, and that their very clothes and saddles were borrowed articles. His Majesty then used to say, 'With my eyes thus open, I must give these men pay, that they may have something to live on.' After some time had passed away, His Majesty divided the Ahadis into du-aspa. yakaspa (having one horse), and nimaspa (having half a share in a horse), in which latter case two troopers kept one horse together, and shared the stipulated salary, which amounted to six rupees.1

Weigh well these facts, but put no question!

These were things of daily occurrence . . .; 2 but notwithstanding

¹ So according to one MS. The passage is not quite clear.
2 Here follows a sentence which I do not know how to translate.

all this, His Majesty's good luck overcame all enemies, so that large numbers of soldiers were not so very necessary, and the Amīrs had no longer to suffer from the inconvenient reluctance of their servants."

Hence the repeated musters which Akbar held, both of men and of animals, carts, etc.; the minuteness of some of the regulations recorded in the Å²in; and the heavy fines imposed on neglectful servants (pp. 226-7, note). The carefulness with which Akbar entered into details (kagrat), in order to understand the whole (waḥdat)—an unusual thing for rulers of former times—is the secret of his success.¹

We have not sufficient data to form an exact estimate of the strength of Akbar's army. We may, however, quote a statement in the Pādishāhnāma regarding the strength of Shāhjahān's army; vide Pādishāhn.

II, p. 715.

"The paid army of the present reign consists of 200,000 cavalry, according to the rule of branding the fourth part, as has been mentioned above. This is exclusive of the soldiers that are allowed to the Fawjdārs, Krorīs, and tax-collectors, for the administration of the Parganas. These 200,000 cavalry are made up as follows:—

8,000 Manşabdars.

7,000 mounted Ahadi and mounted Bargandaz.

185,000 cavalry, consisting of the contingents (tābīnān) of the princes, the chief grandees, and the other Manṣabdārs.

"Besides these 200,000 cavalry, there are 40,000 foot, musketeers, artillery, and rocket-bearers. Of these 40,000, 10,000 accompany the emperor, and the remaining 30,000 2 are in the subas and the forts."

The "Rule of branding the fourth part" is described among the events of the year 1056 as follows (II, p. 506):—

"The following law was made during the present reign (Shāhjahān). If a Manṣabdār holds a jāgīr in the same ṣūba, in which he holds his manṣab, he has to muster one-third of the force indicated by his rank." Accordingly a Si Hazārī-yi zāt sih-hazār suwār (a commander of 3,000, personal rank; contingent 3,000 cavalry) has to muster (bring to the brand) 1,000 cavalry. But if he holds an appointment in another ṣūba, he has only to muster a fourth part. Accordingly, a Chahārhazārī chahārhasār suwār (a commander of 4,000; contingent, 4,000) has only to muster 1,000 cavalry.

¹ Vide p. 11, note.

² The edition of the Pddishthndma has wrongly 3,000.

Literally, he has to bring his followers (troopers) to the brand (ddgh) according to the third part.

"At the time the Imperial army was ordered to take Balkh and Samargand [1055], His Majesty, on account of the distance of those countries, gave the order that as long as the expedition should last, each Mansabdar should only muster one-fifth. Accordingly a Panjhazari namihazār suwār (a commander of 5,000; contingent, 5,000) mustered only 1,000; viz., 300 sikuspa troopers, 600 du-aspa troopers, 100 yak-aspa troopers [i.e., 1,000 men with 2,200 horses], provided the income (hand) of his jagir was fixed at 12 months; or 250 sihaspa troopers, 500 du-aspa troopers, and 250 yak-aspa troopers [i.e., 1,000 men with 2,000 horses], provided the income of his jagir was fixed at 11 months; or 800 du ispa troopers, and 200 yak-aspa troopers [i.e., 1,000 men and 1,800 horses], if the income of his jagir was fixed at 10 months; or 600 du-aspa troopers and 400 wak-aspa, if at 9 months; or 450 du-aspa and 550 yak-aspa troopers, if at 8 months; or 250 du-aspa and 750 yak-aspa troopers, if at 7 months; or 100 du-aspa and 900 yak-aspa troopers, if at 8 months; or 1,000 yak-aspa, if at 5 months.

"But if the troopers to a mansab had all been fixed as si-aspa du-aspa [in other words, if the commander was not a Panj hazārī, panj hazār suwār-i du-aspa si-aspa] he musters, as his proportion of duaspa and sihaspa troopers, double the number which he would have to muster, if his mansab had been as in the preceding. Accordingly, a Panj hazārī panj hazār tamām du-aspa si-aspa (a commander of 5,000; contingent, only du-aspa and si-aspa) would muster 600 troopers with three horses, 1,200 troopers with two horses, and 200 troopers with one horse each [i.e., 2,000 men with 4,400 horses], provided the income of his jāgir be fixed at 12 months and so on."

From this important passage, it is clear that one-fourth of that number of troopers, which is indicated by the title of a Mansabdar, was the average strength of the contingents at the time of Shāhjahān. Thus if a commander of 1,000 troopers had the title of Hasārī hasār susafr, the strength of his contingent was \(\frac{10.00}{4} = 250 \text{ men with 650 horses, vis., 75 si-aspa, 150 du-aspa, and 25 yak-aspa; and if his title was Hasārī hasār susafr-i du-aspa si-aspa, the strength of his contingent was 500 men with 1,300 horses, vis., 150 si-aspa, 300 du-aspa, and 50 yak-aspa, if the income of his jāgīr was drawn by him for every month of the year. The above passage also indicates that the proportions of si-asps, and du-aspa, and yak-aspa troopers was for all mansabe as 300: 600: 100, or as 3: 6: 1.

As the author of the Padishahadas does not mention the restriction as to the number of months for which the Mangabdam drew the income,

we may assume that the difference in strength of the contingents mentioned after the name of each grandee depended on the value of their jagirs.

From an incidental remark (*Pādishāhnāma*, I, p. 113), we see that the pay of a commander of *sihaspa du-aspa* troopers was double the pay allowed to a commander of *yak-aspas*. This agrees with the fact that the former had double the number of men and horses of the latter.

The strength also of Awrangzeb's army, on a statement by Bernier, was conjectured to have been 200,000 cavalry, vide Elphinstone's History, second edition, p. 546, last line.

Akbar's army must have been smaller. It is impossible to compute the strength of the contingents, which was continually fluctuating, and depended rather on emergencies. We can, however, guess at the strength of Akbar's standing army. At the end of A*in 30, Abū 'l-Faz states that there were alive at the time he wrote the A*in

250 C	omman	ders o	f 100 (Y	ūzbāshīs
204	,,	"	60	>1
260	,,	37	40	,,
250	,,	"	20	**
224	>>	19	10	29

As these numbers are very uniform, the regular army could not have been larger than 250 x 100, or 25,000 men (troopers, musketeers, and artillery). The Imperial stables contained 12,000 horses (vide p. 132, 1. 6 from below) which were under the immediate charge of Mirza Abda 'r-Rahîm Khan Khanan, Akbar's Commander-in-Chief. Hence there may have been about 12,000 standing cavalry. The rest were matchlockbearers and artillery. In Asin 6, Abū 'l-Fazl states that there were 12,000 matchlock-bearers. The number of Ahadis, of which Shahjahan had 7,000, cannot have been very large. Many of them were on staff employ in the various offices, store-houses, Imperial workshops; others were employed as adjutants and carriers of important orders. They were, at Akbar's time, gentlemen rather than common soldiers, as they had to buy their own horse on joining. Bada, onl mentions an Ahadl of the name of Khwaja Ibrahim Husayn as one of his friends (II, p. 394). The number of Mansabdars, which under Shahjahan amounted to 8,000, was also much less. Of the 415 Mansabdars whose names are given in A in 30, about 150 were dead when Abu 'l-Fazl wrote it,1 so that there would be about

¹ The list of grandees in Å² in 30 is quoted in Nigām's Tabaqāt which do not go beyond A.m. 1908, as the author died in October, 1594; but it may be still older, as Nigām assigns to several Mansahdārs a higher rank than the one mentioned by Abū 'l-Faşl. In fact, the list refere to a time prior to the year 993, when the three princes (Bed, II, p. 342) were appeinted Commanders of 12,000, 9,000, and 7,000 respectively, whilst in Abū 'l-Faşl's List, Frince Salim (Jahāngīr) is still put down as a Commander of 10,000, Murād as Commander of 8,000, and Di v.'l : of 7,000.

Table showing the Establishments and Salaries of the Manṣabdārs.¹

			•				~		, es	,	111 arrabaar 8.				
		Horses. Elephants. Beasts of Burden an Cabts.							AND	MONTHLY SALARIES.					
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Number		ibaj C	Majero.	Turki.	Yaba.	Thei	Jangla.	Shergir. Sada. Manjhol Karha.	13	Camelar		Carta.			!
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							-		-		-	·			
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3	8,900	54			108	106	106	35.50,36,3					60,000 50,000		
3	7,000	49		96	98	98	98	30 42 29 2					45.000		
4	5,000	34		68	68	68	68	20 30 20 2			20				28,000
5	4,900	33	33	67	67	67	67	20 30 19 1				157	27,600	27.400	27.300
6	4,800	32		66	66	65	65	20 29 19 1	9 9			152	27,600	27,400	27,300
7	4,700	31	31	65	65	63	63	1929191	8, 9	75	195	151	26,800	26,600	26,500
	4,600	31	81	63	63	62	62	18 28 19 1	8 9	74		148	26,400	26,200	26,100
	4,500	31		61	61	61		19 28 19 1				145	26,000	25,600	25,700
10	4,400	PO		60	60	59	59	18 28 19 1	6, 7 8 7	71		1142	25,200	25,000	24,800
11	4,300	39	1	59	59	58		17,27,191	8 7	693	18		24,400		
12 13	4,200	28		58	58	57	56	16 26 19 1					23,600		
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is	3.900	56	3/	54	54	54	54	16 25 18 1			17		22,000		
16	3,800	56		53	53	52	52	16 24 18 1 16 23 18 1					21,400		
17	3,700	56		50	50	80	49	16 23 17 1			164		20,800		
is	3,600	56		49	48	48	47	16 23 17 1			- 4		20,200 $19,600$		
19	3.500	54		47	47	47	46	16 23 17 1			·		19.000		
20	3,400	6		46	46	46	44	16 22 17 1	•		151	-	18.300		
21	3,300			45	45	44	43	15 22 17 1	4 5	544	15		18.200		
22	3,200	11		44	44	42	42	15 21 17 1					17,800		
23	8,100	50	7.7	43	43	41	40	15 20 17 1				103	17,400	17,200	17,100
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26	2,600	18,	18	38	36	38	36	15 18 14 1:		46	12:		15,800	15,600	15,500
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37	1,700	67		27	27	1	27				71	54	11,220	11,00	10,800
38	1,000	53	13	26	20	25	25	910 9	7 2	251		5 :	10.600	10,400	10,200
39	1,500	12	12	24	24		24	8 10: 8	7, 2	24		50	100,000	9,500	¥ 9,700
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41	1,300	13	12	33	23	23	22	8 10, 7	7 9 9	23	44	48	9,200	9,100	9,050
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		Horses.							PR	AN	rs.	Bu	easts rden Cart:	AND	MONTHLY SALARIES.			
	COM- MANDERS										-	iy a					Classos	
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250 higher Manşabdars, to which we have to add 1,388 lower Manşabdars, from the Commanders of 150 downwards; hence altogether about 1,600 Mansabdars.

But Akbar's Mansabdars, on the whole, had larger contingents, especially more horses, than the Mansabdars of the following reigns, during which the brevet ranks (zat) were multiplied.

In the beginning of Akbar's reign, Manşabdārs had even to furnish men with four horses (chahār-aspa). A Dahbāshī, or Commander of ten, had to furnish 10 men with 25 horses; but in later times (vide Ā^aīn 5) the Chahār-aspas were discontinued, and a Dahbāshī furnished 10 men with 18 horses. As the other ranks had to furnish horses in proportion, one of Akbar's Hazārīs would have had to bring 1,800 horses, whilst a Hazārī at the time of Shāhjahān only furnished 650.

Of non-commissioned officers a Mirdaha is mentioned; vide note 1, p. 116. The pay of a Mirdaha of matchlock-bearers varied from 7½ to 6½ R. per mensem. Common matchlock-bearers received from 6½ to 2½ R. As they were standing (household) troops, Abū 'l-Fazl has put them into the first book of this work (Å*ins 36 to 40); and, generally, the reader will have to bear in mind that the second book, relating to the army, treats chiefly of the contingents of the Mansabdars.

Badā, onī, in the above extract, p. 253, speaks of a libās-i sipāhī, or soldier's uniform (armour ?).

The distinctions conferred by the emperor on the Mansabdars consisted in certain flags (vide p. 52, l. 6, from below), and the gharyal or gong (vide in the beginning of the fourth book, A*in-i Gharyāl).

Atin 4.

THE AHADIS.

There are many brave and worthy persons whom His Majesty does not appoint to a Mansab, but whom he frees from being under the orders of any one. Such persons belong to the immediate servants of His Majesty, and are dignified by their independence. They go through the school of learning their duties, and have their knowledge tested. As it is the aim of His Majesty to confer a spiritual meaning on that which is external, he calls such persons Ahadis (from ahad, one). They are thus reminded of the unity of God.

A new regulation regarding rank was given.

For the sake of the convenience of the Ahadis, a separate Diwan and a paymaster were appointed, and one of the great Amīrs is their chief. A fit person has also been selected to introduce to His Majesty such as are candidates for Ahadiships. Without partiality or accepting bribes, he takes daily several before His Majesty, who examines them. When they have been approved of, they pass through the Yad-dasht, the Tacliqa, the descriptive roll, and accounts scide Asin 10. The paymaster then takes security and introduces the candidate a second time to His Majesty, who generally increases his pay from an eighth to three-fourths, or even to more than six-sevenths. 1 Many Ahadis have indeed more than 500 Rupees per mensem.2 He then gets the number nine as his brand [vide A'In 7]. In the beginning, when their rank was first established, some Ahadis mustered eight horses; but now the limit is five. On his sar-khat [vide Asin 11] each receives a farmancha (rank and pay certificate), on which year after year the treasurer makes payments.

Ahadis are mustered every four months, when on a certificate signed by the Diwan and the Bakhshi, which is called nowadays Taskika, the

² Or, as we would say, by 75 or even 857 per cent. Vide note 4, p. 88.

³ This agrees with a statement which I have seen in some historian of Akbar's reign that a senior Abadé was promoted to a Yabbahlahip as the next step. Vide p. 20, note 1.

³ The Taphila corresponds, therefore, to a "life certificate". Arabic Infinitives II take in modern Persian a final s; thus telligs [vide below, A*In 10], takiff/s (vide p. 101, acto I), etc.

clerk of the treasury writes out a receipt, to be countersigned by the principal grandees. This the treasurer keeps, and pays the claim. Before the period (of four months) is over, he gets one month's salary in advance. In the course of the year, he receives cash for ten months, after deducting from it one-twentieth of the sum, the total stoppage being made on account of his horses and other expenses. On joining the service, an Ahadī generally finds his own horse; but afterwards he gets it from the Government; and if the certificate of the inspectors, which is called Saqaināma,1 explains the reason why the horse is not forthcoming he is held indemnified for his dead horse, but does not receive the money for keeping a horse until he gets a new one. But if he has no Saqaināma to show, he is not allowed anything from the time of the last muster. Those who are in want of horses are continually taken before His Majesty, who gives away many horses as presents or as part of the pay, one-half being reckoned as irmās money,2 and the other half being deducted in four instalments at the subsequent four musters; or if the Ahadī be in debt, in eight instalments.

Atin 5.

OTHER: KINDS OF TROOPERS.

As I have said something about the Manşabdars and the Aḥadis, I shall give a few details regarding the third class of troopers.

The horse-dealer fixes the quality of the horses, which are carefully inspected by the Bakhshis. The description of the man is then taken down in writing. If a trooper has more than one horse they add to his establishment a camel or an ox, for which he gets half the allowance usually given to troopers of a superior class; or if this be not given he gets an addition of two-fifths.

A Yak-aspa trooper is paid according to the following rates. If his horse be an 'Irāqī, he gets 30 R. per mensem; if mujannas, 25 R.; if Turkī, 20 R.; if a Yābū, 18 R.; if a Tāzī, 15 R.; if a Jangla, 12 R.

The revenue collectors of domain lands got formerly 25 R., but now only 15 R.

Troopers of this kind mustered formerly up to four horses, but now the order is not to exceed three.

From sagate, he fell.

² Or armes money. The word imay be Inf. IV, or plural of rame, a grave. Badā, oni evidently reads irmes, because in II, p. 202, he explains irmes by causeli duckman the burying or destruction of the foes, 'which word the grandees used instead of falsh-i spines, requesting stores, etc.' Hence irmes, a request made for military supplies or for ealary.

Every Dah-blishi had to muster 2 chahār-aspa, 3 si-aspa, 3 du-aspa, and 2 yak-asps troopers [i.e., 10 troopers with 25 horses], and the other Mansabdārs in the same proportion. But now a Dah-bāshi's contingent consists of 3 si-aspa, 4 du-aspa, and 3 yak-aspa troopers [i.e., 10 troopers with 18 horses].

A*in 6.

THE INFANTRY.

As I have said something about the Cavalry, I shall make a few remarks on foot soldiers. They are of various kinds, and perform remarkable duties. His Majesty has made suitable regulations for their several ranks, and guides great and small in the most satisfactory manner.

The writer of these . . . 1 is the Awara-navis. Inasmuch as they are of importance, they are counted as belonging to the infantry. There are several classes of them. The first class gets 500 dams; the second, 400 d.; the third, 300 d.; the fourth, 240 d.

The Banduq-chis, or Matchlock-bearers.

There are 12,000 Imperial Matchlock-bearers. Attached to this service is an experienced Büikch, an honest treasurer, and an active Darogha. A few Banduq-chis are selected for these offices; the others hold the following ranks. Some are distinguished by their experience and seal, and are therefore appointed over a certain number of others, so that uniformity may pervade the whole, and the duties be performed with propriety and understanding. The pay of these [non-commissioned] officers is of four grades, first, 300 d.; second, 280 d.; third, 270 d.; fourth, 260 d.

Common Banduq-chis are divided into five classes and each class into three subdivisions. First class, 250, 240, and 230 d. Second class, 220, 210, 200 d. Third class, 190, 180, and 170 d. Fourth class, 160, 150, and

140 d. Fifth class, 130, 120, and 110 d.

The Darbans, or Porters.

A thousand of these active men are employed to guard the palace. The pay of the Mirdahas is five fold, 200, 160, 140, 130, and 120 d. Common Darbäns have from 100 to 120 d.

The Khidmatiyyas.

The Khidmatiyyas also belong to the infantry. They guard the environs of the palace, and see that certain orders are carried out. Panjahis

The text has a word which does not suit.

to Bistis have 200 d.; and a Dak-bashi gets 180 and 140 d. The others

get 120, 110, and 100 d.

The caste to which they belong was notorious for highway robbery and theft; former rulers were not able to keep them in check. The effective orders of His Majesty have led them to honesty; they are now famous for their trustworthiness. They were formerly called Mineis. Their chief has received the title of Khidmat Rā,ī. Being near the person of His Majesty, he lives in affluence. His men are called Khidmatiyyas.1

The Mewras.

They are natives of Mewat, and are famous as runners. They bring from great distances with zeal anything that may be required. excellent spies, and will perform the most intricate duties. There are likewise one thousand of them, ready to carry out orders. Their wages are the same as the preceding.

The Shamsherbaz, or Gladiators.

There are several kinds of them, each performing astonishing feats. In fighting they show much swiftness and agility, and join courage to skill in stooping down and rising up again. Some of them use shields in fighting, others use cudgels. The latter are called Lakrait. Others again use no means of defence, and fight with one hand only; these are called yak-hath. The former class come chiefly from the Eastern districts, and use a somewhat smaller shield, which they call chirus. Those who come from the southern districts make their shields large enough to conceal a horseman. This kind of shield they call tiles.

Another class goes by the name of Pharaits. They use a shield not quite so large as to conceal a man, but a gaz broad.

Some again are called Banāits. They use a long sword, the handle of which is more than a gaz long, and seizing it with both hands, they perform extraordinary feats of skill.

The class which goes by the name of Bankulis are likewise famous. They use a peculiar sword which, though bent towards the point, is straight near the handle. But they do not make use of a shield. The skill which thev exhibit passes all description. Others make various kinds of daggers and knives, and perform with them the most extraordinary feats. Each class of these men has a different name; they also

I They are called in the Tuzuk-i Jahängiri Piyadahd-yi Khidmatiyya. The name of their chief under Jahängir was Rai Mdn. He case picked up the young Shāh Shujā\(\) who had failen from an upper window to the ground. Tuzuk-i Jahdagiri, p. 303.

2 "Among the innovations made by Ahbar are the Ddk-Mewras, of whom some were stationed at every place." Khdfi Khdn, I, p. 243. Hence the Mewras were chiefly posteren.

differ in their performances. But it is really impossible to give a mere description of them; nor would mere listening to my descriptions be enflicient.

There are more than a hundred thousand of them. At Court one thousand of them are always in readiness. Their Sadi (commander of one hundred) holds the rank of an Ahadi, and even a higher one. Their salaries vary from 80 to 600 d.

The Pahluwans, or Wrestlers.

There are many Persian and Tūrānī wrestlers and boxers at Court, as also stone-throwers, athletes of Hindustan, clever Mals from Gujrat, and many other kinds of fighting men. Their pay varies from 70 to 450 d. Every day two well-matched men fight with each other. Many presents are made to them on such occasions. The following belong to the best wrestlers of the age-Mirza Khan of Gilan; Muhammad Quli of Tabriz, to whom His Majesty has given the name of Sher-hamla, or Lion-attacker; Sadiq of Bukhara; SAlī of Tabrīz; Murad of Turkistan; Muhammad SAli of Türan; Fülad of Tabriz; Qasim of Tabriz; Mirza Kuhna-suwar of Tabris; Shah Quli of Kurdistan; Hilal of Ahyssinia; Sadhū Dayal; SAlī; Srī Rām; Kanhyā; Mangol; Ganesh; Ānbā; Nānkā; Balbhadr; Bajrnath.

The Chelas, or Slaves 1

His Majesty, from religious motives, dislikes the name banda, or alave; for he believes that mastership belongs to no one but God. He therefore calls this class of men Chelas, which Hindi term signifies a foul ful duciple. Through His Majesty's kindness, many of them have chosen the road to happiness.3

Various meanings attach to the term slave. First, that which people in general mean by a slave. Some men obtain power over such as do not belong to their sect, and sell and buy them. The wise look upon this as abominable. Secondly, he is called a slave who leaves the path of selfishness and chooses the road of spiritual obedience 5 Thirdly, one's

The author of the pretty Taskirs, entitled Kalimain 'sh-Shuçara, which contains biographies of the posts of the eleventh century, was called Chels. His real name is blind Muhammed Alpa); as a post he is known as Surphush.

By joining the Divine Faith.

[4 Obds !—P.]

^{[*} Chola, H., disciple, etc.~ P.]

The word Chois is the same as the Arab, murid, a disciple who places implicit belief in his murshed or pir, the head of the sort. "And many of His Majesty's special disciples, m 991, called themselves choice in unitation of the use of this term among Jogia.".-Made,oni II, p. 325.

Inanguch as such a man blindly follows his pir.

child. Fourthly, one who kills a man in order to inherit his property. Fifthly, a robber who repents and attaches himself to the man whom he had robbed. Sixthly, a murderer whose guilt has been atoned by payment of money, in which case the murderer becomes the slave of the man who releases him. Seventhly, he who cheerfully and freely prefers to live as a slave.

The pay of Chelas varies from 1 R. to 1 d. per diem. His Majesty has divided them into several sections, and has handed them over to active and experienced people who give them instruction in several things. Thus they acquire knowledge, elevate their position, and learn to perform their duties with propriety.

His Majesty, who encourages everything which is excellent and knows the value of talent, honours people of various classes with appointments in the ranks of the army; and raises them from the position of a common

soldier to the dignity of a grandee.

The Kuhārs, or Pālkī bearers.

They form a class of foot-servants peculiar to India. They carry heavy loads on their shoulders, and travel through mountains and valleys. With their pālkīs, singhāsans, chaudols, and dūlīs, they walk so evenly that the man inside is not inconvenienced by any jolting. There are many in this country; but the best came from the Dakhin and Bengal. At Court, several thousand of them are kept. The pay of a head bearer varies from 192 to 384 d. Common bearers get from 120 to 160 d.

Dākhilī troops.

A fixed number of these troops are handed over to the Mansabdars; but they are paid by the State. His Majesty has ordered to designate these infantry soldiers in the descriptive rolls as nīma suwūrān, or half troopers.

The fourth part of Dākhilî troops are matchlock-bearers; the others

carry nows.

Carpenters, workers in iron, water-carriers, pioneers, belong to this class.

A non-commissioned officer of the matchlock-bearers receives 160 d. or 4R; common matchlock-bearers get 140 d. The Mirdahas of the archers get from 120 to 180 d.; common archers from 100 to 120 d.

I could say much more on this subject, but I must content myself with having described the principal classes. I have also given some details in speaking of the several workshops and offices of the Household.

Aºin 7.

REGULATIONS REGARDING THE BRANDING OF ANIMALS.

When His Majesty had fixed the ranks of the army, and inquired into the quality of the horses, he ordered that upright Büikchis should make out descriptive rolls of the soldiers and write down their peculiar marks. Their ages, the names of their fathers, dwelling-places, and race, were to be registered. A Dārogha also was appointed, whose duty it is to see that the men are not unnecessarily detained. They were to perform their duties without taking bribes or asking for remunerations.

Every one who wishes to join the army is taken before His Majesty, in whose presence his rank is fixed, after which the clerks make out the

Tastiga [vide Asin 10].

Dākhilī troops are admitted on the signature of the Mansabdars.

His Majesty has also appointed five experienced officers who have to look after the condition of the men, their horses, and the stipulated amount His Majesty has the men assembled in an open place, and receives the several descriptive rolls, when the men with their horses are handed over to the above five officers. The amount of their pay is then entered at the bottom of the descriptive rolls, and is countersigned by those officers, which serves as a proof, and prevents trandulent alterations. Each roll is then handed over to the inspecting Darogha. He takes them in the manner described above [vide A*in 4] to His Majesty, who orders the pay to be increased or decreased. His Majesty discerns the value of a man by the lineaments of his forehead, and can therefore increase or decrease his pay. He also distinguishes a tradesman by the look of his face from a soldier, so much so that experienced people are astonished, and refer His Majesty's power of discernment to 'hidden knowledge'. When the roll is thus certified it is also signed by the Wagisa Name (Asin 10), the Mir Arz, and the officer commanding the guards. On the strength of this certificate, the Darogha of the dagh (brand) marks the horses.

When the brand was first introduced, it was made in the shape of the head of the letter sin (i.e. like this, r], and was put on the right side of the neck of the horse. For some time, it was made in shape of two chifs intersecting at right angles, the heads of the alif being made heavy as in this figure and put on the right thigh. For some time again, it was made like a bow with the string taken off. At last, numerals were introduced, which plan best frustrates fraudulent practices. They make iron numerals, by which all indistinctness is avoided. These new

signs are likewise put on the right thigh. Formerly, each horse on being mustered for the first time, was marked with a 1; the second time with a 2, and so on; but now His Majesty has ordered that separate numerals should be used for the horses of the princes, the Mansabdars, the governors of the provinces, and all other dignitaries attached to the Court.

The carefulness with which the system of marking horses was attended to resulted at once in truthful reports regarding dead horses; for when a soldier, after the introduction of the system of repeated marks (vide next Å*in), brought a horse which had been exchanged, he would demand his pay from the time he had last received his pay, whilst the Bakhshi commenced to count from the day be brought his (exchanged) horse. But since the present mark was introduced, the rule was made that each horse with which, instead of with his old one, a trooper came to the muster, should be described, and should get the same mark as the dead one; the Bakhshis, at the subsequent musters held for repeating the marks, were to inspect it and go by the brand. Horses answering the description in the rolls were even hired and substituted for the old ones; but as the mark was not forthcoming, the deception was detected, and the soldiers thus learnt to be honest.

A*in 8.

ON THE REPETITION OF THE MARK.

The servants (Manşabdārs) of His Majesty have their horses every year newly marked, and thus maintain the efficiency of the army, as by their endeavours unprincipled people learn to choose the path of honesty. If a Manṣabdār delays bringing his men to the muster, one-tenth of his jāgīr (aqtā^c) is withheld. Formerly, when the mark was repeated, they put the number on the muster of the horse, marking, for example, a horse with a 2 when it was mustered the second time, and so on; but now, as each class of soldiers had a particular mark, the mark is merely espected at the subsequent musters. In the case of Aḥadīs, the former custom was retained. Some Bitikchīs, and near servants of His Majesty, who have no leisure to look after jāgīrs, receive their monthly salaries in cash, and

¹ Properly iquas, Inf. IV, of quest; but in India the word is mostly pronounced as aggs. The king is therefore called magsis, one who confers lands on the nobles; abstr. n. magsis, the giving of lands to nobles, of which the Moghui historians accuse Sher Shah. Vide end of A* in 10, third book, Mugtas, past part, one on whom lands have been conferred; so often in the Parlight First Shah. From the times of Akbar the words eggs, and jayir are used as synonyms; before his time we only find aggist used; but jayir occurs, or jayyir, in its etymological sense. In later Historians the word aggist is but massly met with.

muster their horses every eighteen months. Grandees whose jagirs are very remote, do not bring their horses to muster before twelve years have elapsed; but when six years have elapsed since the last muster, one-tenth of their income is retrenched. And if a Manashdar has been promoted to a higher Manash, and three years have elapsed since he last presented his horses at muster, he receives a personal (increase of salary, but draws the allowance for the increased number of his men after the first muster. His old and his new men then get their assignments. If at the renewal of the mark at subsequent musters, any soldier brings a superior horse in exchange for his old one, he is taken before His Majesty, who inspects and accepts it.

Atin 9.

RULES ABOUT MOUNTING GUARD.

Mounting guard is called in Hindi chauki. There are three kinds of guards. The four divisions of the army have been divided into seven parts, each of which is appointed for one day, under the superintendence of a trustworthy Mansabdar. Another, fully acquainted with all ceremonies at Court, is appointed as Mir Arz. All orders of His Majesty are made known through these two officers (the Mir Arz, and the commander of the Palace). They are day and night in attendance about the palace, ready for any orders His Majesty may issue. In the evening, the Imperial Que (vide p. 116) is taken to the State hall. The mounting guards stand on the right; the ranks of the guards to be relieved are drawn up on the other side. His Majesty generally inspects the guards himself, and takes notice of the presence or absence of the soldiers. Both ranks salute His Majesty. If His Majesty be prevented by more important affairs from attending, one of the princes is ordered to inspect the guards. From predilection and a desire to teach soldiers their duties, as also from a regard to general efficiency, His Majesty pays much attention to the guards. If any one is absent without having a proper excuse, or from laziness, he is fined one week's pay, or receives a suitable reprimand.

The Imperial army has been divided into twelve parts, each of which mounts guard for the space of one month. This gives all troops, whether near or far, an opportunity to come to Court, and to partake of the liberality of His Majesty. But those who are stationed at the frontiers, or told off for any important duty, merely send in reports of their exact

condition, and continue to perform His Majesty's special orders. On the first of every solar month, the guards are drawn up to salute His Majestv. as is usual on weekly parades, and are then distinguished by royal marks of favour.

The Imperial army has also been divided into twelve other divisions, each of which is selected in turn, to come to Court for one year and do duty near the person of His Majesty.

A in 10.

REGULATIONS REGARDING THE WAOISA-NAWISA

Keeping records is an excellent thing for a government; it is even necessary for every rank of society. Though a trace of this office may have existed in ancient times, its higher objects were but recognized in the present reign. His Majesty has appointed fourteen zealous, experienced, and impartial clerks, two of whom do daily duty in rotation. so that the turn of each comes after a fortnight.2 Some other suitable men are selected as supernumeraries, each of whom is appointed for one day; and if any of the fourteen be detained by an important business, this additional person acts for him. Hence they are called kutal (supernumeraries).

Their duty is to write down the orders and the doings of His Majesty and whatever the heads of the departments report; what His Majesty eats and drinks; when he sleeps, and when he rises; the etiquette in the State hall; the time His Majesty spends in the Harem; when he goes to the general and private assemblies; the nature of hunting-parties; the slaving of animals; when he marches, and when he halts; the acts of His Majesty as the spiritual guide of the nation; vows made to him; his remarks (vide Fifth Book); what books he has read out to him; what alms he bestows; what presents he makes; the daily and monthly exercises 4 which he imposes on himself; appointments to mansabs; contingents of troops; salaries; jagirs; Irmas money (vide above, p. 260, note 2); sayūrghāls (rent-free land); the increase or decrease of

¹ From waqiqu an event and namis a writer. Instead of sugica-namis we also find

There was a setgifa-nessis, or recorder, in each Süba. From several places in the Tuzuk-i Jahangiri, we see that the Balthahls of the Sübas often held the posts of Wagifanessis at the same time. Vide Tanak, p. 121, l. 2; p. 137, l. 1; p. 171, l. 5.

Hence the arrangement must lieve been as follows—first day, first and second writers; second day, second and third writers; third day, third and fourth writers, and

Akbar wished to restrict the slaying of animals. Vide above, p. 200, l. 9. 4 Especially fasts.

taxes; contracts; sales, money transfers; peshkash (tribute receipts); dispatch; the issue of orders; the papers which are signed by His Majesty; the arrival of reports; the minutes thereon; the arrivals of courtiers; their departures; the fixing 1 of periods; the inspection of the guards; battles, victories, and peace; obituaries of well-known persons: animal-fights and the bettings on them; the dying of horses; capital punishments; pardons granted by His Majesty; the proceedings of the general assemblies; marriages, births; chawgan games (vide Atin 29); chaupar nard, chess, card games, etc.; extraordinary phenomena; the harvests of the year; the reports on events.

After the diary has been corrected by one of His Majesty's servants, it is laid before the emperor, and approved by him. The clerk then makes a copy of each report, signs it, and hands it over to those who require it as a voucher, when it is also signed by the Parwanchi, by the Mir SArz, and by that person who laid it before His Majesty. The report

in this state is called yad-dasht, or memorandum.

Besides, there are several copyists who write a good hand and a lucid style. They receive yad-dasht when completed, keep it with themselves, and make a proper abridgement of it. After signing it, they return this instead of the yad-dasht, when the abridgement is signed and sealed by the Waqisa-nawis, and the Risala-dar, the Mir Arz, and the Darogha. The abridgement, thus completed, is called Tacliqa, and the writer is called Taction-nawis.

The Taslique is then signed, as stated above. and sealed by the ministers

of state.

His Majesty's object is, that every duty be properly performed; that there be no undue increase, or decrease in any department; that dishonest people be removed, and trustworthy people be held in esteem : and that active servants may work without fear, and negligent and forgetful men be held in check.

A*in 11.

ON SANADS.

Every money matter will be satisfactorily settled, when the parties express their minds clearly, then take a pen and write down the

For Mir CArs we find in the early historians Carie.

¹ Tagra-i mud l st, the fixing of periodical importions: opp. be-infini duades to come at times not appointed beforehand, unexpectedly.

The tent has riskle, which stands for riskle-dar, as, in later times, field for

statement in legible handwriting. Every written statement of accounts is called a sanad. All classes of men adopt such a practice.

The sanad is the voucher which relieves the treasurer of all responsibility, and on which people receive payment of their claims. Honest experienced officers, upon whose forehead the stamp of correctness shines, write the agreement upon loose pages and leaves, so that the transaction cannot be forgotten. These loose sheets into which all sanads are entered are called the Daftar.

His Majesty has made himself acquainted with this department and brought it into proper working order. He has appointed clever, honest, incorruptible, experienced writers, and entrusts the dafter to impartial officers, who are under his immediate control.

The Daftar of the empire is divided into three parts:-

1. The Abwab "I-mal or entries referring to the revenue of the country. This part of the Daftar explains the revenue of the empire, details any increase or decrease, and specifies every other source of income (as presents, etc.).

2. The Arbab" 't-tahāwīl.2 This part explains the manner in which the sums for the Household have been expended; it contains the debits and credits entered on account of the cashkeepers employed at Court : and lastly, contains the accounts of daily expenditure, etc., for things bought or sold.

3. The Tawjih. This part contains all entries referring to the pay of the army, and shows the manner in which the pay is given out.

Some sanads are merely sealed with the imperial seal. Other sanads are first signed and sealed by the ministers of State, and are afterwards laid before His Majesty for signature. Many sanads, however, are only signed and sealed by the grandees of the Court. This will be explained in the following.

The Farman-i gabti.

Farman-i sabtis are issued for three purposes:-

1. For appointments to a Mansab; to the Vakilship; to the post of Sipāh-sālār (governor of a province and Commander-in-Chief); to the

that cheefs is the more usual expression.

Or, the giving of weith (pay) to the army; hence toujil, military accounts. For toujil, some MSE read toujilah.

Inglish writers of the last century often refer to this system of keeping all documents in loose sheets, instead of bound books. The sheets were kept together by a string drawn through them. This custom, I am informed, is still in use in Persis; and suits Eastern countries, the hot and damp climate of which soon destroys the binding of books. The word defter is the Greek \$i\theta \theta \the

tutorship of the princes; to the rank of Amīru 'l-umarā (vide p. 250); to a Nahiyati, or districtship; to the post of Vazir, or Finance Minister; to the Bakhshiship (Paymaster and Adjutant-General); to the post of a sadr, or a judge.

2. For appointments to jagirs, without military service; 1 for taking

charge of a newly conquered territory; sometimes . . . 2

3. For conferring Sayurghals (vide Atin 19); for grants on account of daily subsistence allowance; and for grants for beneficent purposes.

When the Tasliga has been made out, the Diwin-i Jāgir (who ke , ... the Jagir accounts) pays the stipulated grant. If the jagir is given for military services, with the order of bringing horses to the muster, the grant is once more sent to the Bakhshīs for inspection, when the following words are written either on the back or the corner of the paper-khāṣa, o mardum barāward numāyand; kārgarūn-i în shughl chihru-nawīsī kunand (this is special; the estimate for the salary may be made out. The proper officers are to prepare the descriptive rolls). When the horses are then branded at the time of the muster, the Bakhshi general takes the Tastina, keeps it, and hands instead of it a writing specifying the amount of the monthly salary, duly signed and sealed.

This paper, which the Bakhshī grants instead of the Tacliga, is called Sarkhat.

The Sarkhais are entered in the duftars of all Sub-Bakhshis, and are distinguished by particular marks. The Diwan then keeps the Surkhat with himself, prepares an account of the annual and monthly salary due on it, and reports the matter to His Majesty. If His Majesty gives the order to confer a jagir on the person specified in the Sarkhat, the following words are entered on the top of the report. Tasliga-yi tan yalami numayand (they are to write out a Tasliga-vi tan (certificate of salary)). This order suffices for the clerks; they keep the order, and make out a draft to that effect. The draft is then inspected by the Diwan, who verifies it by writing on it the words sabt numayand (ordered to be entered). The mark of the dafter, and the seal of the Diwan, the Bakhshi. and the Accountant the Diwan, are put on the draft in order, when the Imperial grant is

The text has jus (sometimes?) be Sunuan-i mult (milk?) dadan-which I do not

understand.

¹ Jagirs, to which no military service attaches, appear to be called beddet o metalli. i.c., the holder had nothing to do with the army and the musters, at which the Mangabdars drew the salaries of their contingents, nor with the collection of the taxes of the several Maballe or Parganas. Thus Fathe 'llah of Shīrās (vide p. 203) received Basiwar as his jāgir, bedduh o mahalli. Badā,ons, p. 315. Badā,ons also had a jāgir of 1,000 Bighas at which he often grumbles, calling himself by way of joke Hazdri, or Commander of One Thousand.

written on the outside. The draft thus completed is sent for signature to the Dīwān.

The Ṣāḥib-i Tawjīh, or military accountant, keeps the former Ta'līqa with himself, writes its details on the Farmān, and seals and signs it. It is then inspected by the Mustaufī, and is signed and sealed by him. Afterwards the Nāzir and the Bakhshīs do so likewise, when it is sealed by the Dīwān, his accountant, and the Vakīl of the State.

If His Majesty's order specifies a cash payment, the farman is made out in the same manner, but is generally called barat (cheque). ment of accounts of the transaction is appended at the bottom of it. After the Nazir, the Diwan-i Buyūtāt signs it, and when it has passed through the hands of the Bakhshis and the Diwan, it is sealed and signed by the Khān Sāmān. The receipts and expenditure of the Imperial workshops, the deposits and payments of salaries to the workmen (of whom some draw their pay on [military] descriptive rolls, and others according to the services performed by them, as the men engaged in the Imperial elephant and horse stables, and in the waggon department) are all made by barāts. The accountant of each workshop (or stable) writes out annually two barāts, one for the six months from Farwardīn (February-March) to Shahriwar, and the other from Mihr (September) to Isfandiyārmuz. He writes down the allowances on account of grain, grass, etc., both in shape of cash and stores, and the salaries of the workmen, and signs the statement. The Diwan-i Buyutat inspects them, passes the order for payment, inquires into the increase or decrease, if any, and writes on the margin az tahwīl-i falānī barāt nawīsand, 'Let a barat be made out showing the amount to be deposited with such and such a Mushrif.' The Mushrif of the workshop or stable then takes it, writes out an order and the receipt, and seals and signs it. In all cash payments, one-fourth is deducted, as another sanad is given for this amount. The Diwan-i Buyūtāt then gives the order to have it entered. The Mushrif does so, signs and seals the barat and the receipt. It then passes through the hands of the military accountant, the Nazir, the Dīwān-i Buyūtāt, the Dīwān-i Kul, the Khān Sāmān, the Mushrif of the Diwan, and the Vakil, who sign and seal it. In every case the estimate is sent along with it, so that there may be no mistake. When it has been laid before His Majestv, the Mushrif writes out the receipt, which is then in the same manner entered into the several daftars. The mode of payment also is detailed on the back of it, viz., one-fourth is to be paid in gold (ashrafis), one half in silver (rupis), and one part in copper (dams), according to the fixed values of the coins.

The Farmans in favour of Mansabdars are made out in the same manner; they are, however, never sent to the officers of the workshops and stables.

In case of Sayūrghāls (vide Ā^{*}īn 19), the farmāns, after having been signed by the Mustawfi, are entered in the daftars of the Dīwān-i Sa^{*}ādat (vide Ā^{*}īn 19); they are then signed and sealed by the Ṣadr, and the Dīwān-i Kul.

Farmans are sometimes written in <u>Tughrā</u> character; but the two first lines are not made short. Such a Farman is called a <u>Parwāncha</u>.

Parwänchas are made out for the stipulated salaries of the Begums and the princes; for the stipends of people under the care of the Dīwān-i Sasādat (vide Āsīn 19); the salaries of the Aḥadīs, Chelas, and of some officers in the workshops; and for the allowances on account of the food of Bārgīr horses (vide p. 147, Āsīn 54). The treasurer does not annually demand a new sanad, but pays the allowances on the mere receipt, signed and sealed by the ministers of the State. The Mushrif (accountant) writes out the receipt which is signed by the recipient, and is then sent to the Dīwān for orders. It is then signed by the Mushrif, the Mustawfī, the Nāzīr-i buyūtāt, the Dīwān-i kul, the Khān-Sāmān, the Mushrif of the Dīwān. In the Parwānchas given to Aḥadīs, the signature, seal, and orders of the Aḥadībāshī, or Commander of the Aḥadīs, are required after those of the Mustawfī, the Dīwān, and the Bakḥshīs, because His Majesty from motives of kindness, and from a desire to avoid delay, has ordered that these Parwānchas need not be laid before him.

Nor does His Majesty sign sarkhais, sale and purchase receipts, pricelists, Sarz-nāmchas (statements of sums forwarded to Court by the collectors of the Imperial domains), qarār-nāmas (which specify the revenue collections of the collectors on account of the ryots), and the muqūsā (statements of account which Tahwīldārs take from the Mustawfi, showing that the sums which they had received as deposits, have been correctly expended).

A*in 12.

THE ORDER OF THE SEALS.

Farmans, Parwanchas, and Barats, are made into several folds, beginning from the bottom. On the first fold which is less broad, at a place towards the edge where the paper is cut off, the Vakīl puts his seal; opposite to it, but a little lower, the Mushrif of the Dīwān puts his seal, in such a manner that half of it goes to the second fold. Then, in like manner, but a little lower, comes the seal of the Şadr. But when Shaykh

SAbdu 'n-Nabī and Sultān Khwāja were Ṣadrs (vide note to Āsin 19), they used to put their seals opposite to that of the Vakīl. In the middle of that fold is the place where that person puts his seal who comes nearest in rank to the Vakīl, as Atka Khān did at the time of Muncim Khān, and Adham Khān. The Mīr Māl, the Khān Sāmān, the Parwānchī, etc., seal on the second fold, but in such a manner that a smaller part of their seals goes to the first fold. The seals of the Dīwān, and the Bakhshī do not go beyond the edge of the second fold, whilst the Dīwān-i juz, the Bakhshī-yi juz, and the Dīwān-i buyūtāt put their seals on the third fold. The Mustawfī puts his seal on the fourth, and the Ṣāhib-i Tawjīh on the fifth fold. The seal of His Majesty is put above the Tughrā lines on the top of the Farmān, where the princes also put their seals in Tacīgas.

A*in 13.

THE FARMAN-I BAYAZÎ.

Some matters connected with the Government do not admit of delay, or must not to be known to every one. Such an order receives only the Imperial scal, and is called a Farmān-i bayāzi.¹ The farmān is folded up, and two edges are made to meet, when a knot of paper is put over them, which is scaled up in such manner that the contents cannot be seen. The scaling wax is made of the gum² of the Kunār, the Bar, the Pīpal, and other trees. Like wax, it gets warm when exposed to fire, but gets afterwards cool and hard. When thus scaled, the farmān is put into a golden cover; for His Majesty looks upon the use of external signs of grandeur as an act of divine worship. Such farmāns are carried by Mansabdārs, Aḥadīs, or common foot-soldiers, to the parties concerned.

When an officer receives such an order he proceeds a proper distance to meet it, performs various acts of obeisance, puts it on the crown of his head, makes the sijda, and rewards the messenger according to the favour conferred upon himself or according to his circumstances. According to His Majesty's wishes, the bags in which reports are sent, are secured in the same manner as a Farmān-i bayāzī, so that no alterations are possible. In consequence of this, much trouble is avoided, and dishonest practices are put a stop to.

¹ That is, a blank farman.

[[] Lak. The author probably means "asp". It is from the exudations from alite made evernight in the bark of the bar and the pipal tree that the best bird-lime is made.—P.]

A*in 14.

ON THE MANNER IN WHICH SALARIES ARE PAID.

When any one has the good fortune of joining the army, he receives, on bringing his horses to the muster, a proper sanad without delay and without costs. All accounts of salaries are made out in dams; but at the time of making out the estimate he receives one half in rupees, reckoned at thirty-eight dams 1 each. Half of the remainder is paid in muhurs at nine rupees each, and the last quarter is given in dams for stores. When the value of the rupee was raised to forty dams, the soldiers, through His Majesty's kindness, received dams at the same rate. Every year one month's pay is subtracted on account of the horse, the value of which is raised fifty per cent. above prime cost, and for accoutrements; but, as much care is shown in buying horses, this increase is not productive of any loss for the soldier. Besides, Ahadis are continually employed for affairs of importance, and are permitted to carry the orders of His Majesty; and whatever is given to them as an acknowledgment for their services by the recipients of the orders, is allowed to be kept by the Ahadis as a present if they bear a good character; but if not, a part of it is reckoned as monthly pay.

With the view of teaching zeal and removing the stamp of laziness, His Majesty fines soldiers for absence from guard; an Ahadī loses fifteen days' pay, and other soldiers one week's.

The Commander of every contingent (Tābīnbāshī) is allowed to keep for himself the twentieth part of the pay of his men, which reimburses him for various expenses.

A*in 15.

MUSASADAT, OR LOANS TO OFFICERS.

Higher Officers, who receive lands or monthly salaries may occasionally come into difficulties when it would be against the rules of the government for them to ask for a present. For this reason His Majesty appointed a treasurer and a separate $Mir \in Arz$, and those who wish to borrow money may now do so without prejudice to their honour, or annoyance of delay. For the first year, nothing is charged; in the second, the loan is increased by a sixteenth part of it; in the third year, by one-eighth; in the fourth year, by one-fourth; from the fifth to the seventh, by one-half; from the eighth to the tenth year, by three-fourths; from the tenth year and longer, double the original loan is charged, after which there is no further increase.

¹ The MSS, have forty-eight.

His Majesty's only object 1 is to teach propriety in transactions; else mutual esteem will never increase among men from the nature of their mercantile affairs.

This regulation brought unprincipled usurers to the proper path, and thus prevented much impropriety.

Āºin 16.

ON DONATIONS.

His Majesty, from his knowledge of man's nature, gives donations in various ways. It looks as if he lends, but in his heart, he makes a present; or he calls the donation a loan, but never asks it back. The far and near, the rich and poor, share His Majesty's liberality. He gives away elephants, horses, and other valuable articles. The Bakhshis read out daily the names of the guards and other soldiers, mentioning such first as have never received anything. His Majesty gives them horses. When a soldier has received a horse, he is not recommended to His Majesty for the space of a year for any other donation.

Ā*īn 17.

ON ALMS.

His Majesty bestows upon the needy money and necessaries, winning the hearts of all in public or private. Many enjoy daily, monthly, or yearly allowances, which they receive without being kept waiting. It is impossible for me to detail the sums which some people receive in consequence of representations having been made of their circumstances by such as stand near the throne; and it would take up too much time to describe the presents made daily to beggars, or the eating houses which have been established for the poor.²

There is a treasurer always waiting * at Court; and every beggar whom His Majesty sees is sure to find relief.

A*in 18.

THE CEREMONY OF WEIGHING HIS MAJESTY.

From reasons of auspiciousness, and as an opportunity of bestowing presents upon the poor, His Majesty is weighed twice a year. Various articles are put into the scales.

 ¹ it is needless to remind the reader that charging interest on loans is against the Muhammadan law. But Akbar was a Hindu in such matters.
 2 Vide p. 210, l. 19.
 3 Vide p. 15, l. 1.

On the first day of the month of Aban [15th October], which is the solar anniversary of the emperor, His Majesty is weighed twelve times against the following articles: gold, quicksilver, silk, perfumes, copper, rūḥ-i tūtiyā, drugs, ghī, iron, rice-milk, seven kinds of grain, salt; the order of these articles being determined by their costliness. According to the number of years His Majesty has lived, there is given away an equal number of sheep, goats, fowls, to people that breed these animals. A great number of small animals are also set at liberty.

His Majesty is weighed a second time on the 5th of Rajab, against eight articles, viz., silver, tin, cloth, lead, fruits, mustard oil, and vegetables. On both occasions the festival of Sālgirih (birthday) is celebrated, when donations, or grants of pardon, are bestowed upon people of all ranks.

The Imperial princes, sons, and grandsons of His Majesty are weighed once in every solar year. They are for the first time weighed when two years old, but only against one thing. Every year, however, a new additional thing is put on the scales. When grown up, they are generally weighed against seven or eight things, but not against more than twelve. Animals are set free as usual.

A separate treasurer and an accountant are appointed for this purpose, so that the expenditure may be made with every propriety.²

¹ The lunar birthday of the emperor. As this was the Muhammadan birthday, the articles were, of course, fewer and less valuable.

The birthday of the emperor was of importance for the Harem, as there the string was kept, which numbered as many knots as the emperor numbered years; hence also addirish (or addirah, as the word is pronounced all over India) "the year's knot", or birthday.

Tying knots, or bits of string, or ribbon, to the tombs of saintais considered by barron women as a means-of obtaining a son, and the tomb of Salim-i Chicht in Fathpur Sikri. in whose bouse Jahangir was born, is even nowadays visited by Hindu and Musalman women, who tie bits of strong to the marble treatile surrounding the tomb. Similar rows

are even placed on Akbar's tomb in Sikandra, near Agra.

Akbar's regulation, as given in the above A*In, appears to have been continued under Jahänger. Shahjahan made some alterations, in asiar as he was weighed on each feast first against gold and silver, and then against other articles. The articles themselves were given away to the courtiers, or to pious men and beggars, as a means of keeping the royal

According to the Tuzuk-i Jakangiri (p. 163) and Pādiskāknāma (I, p. 243), the weighing of the Royal person was introduced by Akbar. It, is an old Hindu custom. At first the weighing took place once a year, on the birthday of the Emperor; but with the introduction of Akbar's Divine (solar) Era, we find in the history of every year the re-ord of a wasn-i shame!, or solar weighing, and a wasn-i queari, or lunar weighing. There was of course, a jashn, or feast, on such occasions, and courtiers on the same day were promoted to higher Mannaba, or presented their peshkush. The feast was of special importance for the Harem. It appears (vide Pādishāhnāma, p. 243) that the articles against which the royal person was weighed were sent from the Harem, or by the mother of the reigning emperor. Jahāngir, according to several remarks in the Tuzuk (pp. 69, 70, 276, etc.), was even weighed in the palace of his angust mother, to whom the Tuzuk gives the title of Maryam Zamānī, the Mary of the age, as Akbar's mother had been styled Maryam Makbai (vids p. 49, note 7). The solar wasn was even retained by Aurangzeb; vide Çālamgirnāma, p. 229.

A in 19.

ON SUYÜRGHĀLS.1

His Majesty, in his care for the nation, confers benefits on people of various classes; and in the higher wisdom which God has conferred upon him, he considers doing so an act of divine worship.

His Majesty, from his desire to promote rank distinctions, confers lands and subsistence allowances on the following four classes of men, first, on inquirers after wisdom who have withdrawn from all worldly occupation, and make no difference between night and daytime in searching after true knowledge; secondly, on such as toil and practise self-denial, and while engaged in the struggle with the selfish passions of human nature, have renounced the society of men; thirdly, on such as are weak and poor, and have no strength for inquiry; fourthly, on honourable men of gentle birth who from want of knowledge are unable to provide for themselves by taking up a trade.

Subsistence allowances, paid in cash, are called Wazifa; lands conferred are called Milk, or Madad-i masash. In this way krors are given away, and yet the grants are daily increasing in number.

As the circumstances of men have to be inquired into before grants are made, and their petitions must be considered in fairness, an experienced man of correct intentions is employed for this office. ought to be at peace with every party, and must be kind towards the people at large in word and action. Such an officer is called Sadr. The $Q\bar{a}z\bar{i}$ and the $M\bar{i}r \in Adl$ are under his orders. He is assisted in his important duties by a clerk, who has to look after the financial business, and is nowadays styled Dīvoān-i Sasādat.

His Majesty. in his mercy, orders his servants to introduce to him such

Akbar, in accordance with his Hindu tendencies, used to give the money to Brahmins. "On the fifth of Rajab 973, which is the day on which the Emperor was born, the feast of weighing His Majesty was held at Nizāmābād, a town belonging to the Sirkār of Jaunpūr, for according to established custom the emperor is weighed twices year, on his solar and lunar birthdays, against gold, silver, etc., which is given as a present to the Brahmins of India, and others. Poets used, and still use, such opportunities for presenting nice poems,"

Badā.onī, ii, p. 84.

Occasionally, courtiers were weighed for important personal services. Thus Jahangar had once his Court doctor Rule 'lide weighed in silver (Tuzuk, p. 283), the sum being given him as a fee in addition to three villages, which were bestowed upon him as fagir.

Vide the note at the end of this A*In.

person from all bodily and mental harm. The gold and the silver against which Jahängir was once weighed amounted to Rs. 33,000; but according to the Tuzuk, the money was distributed among the women of the Harem. On another occasion (Tuzuk, p. 163), Jahängir was found to weigh 6,514 tolas. Taking the tola as 186 grains (Prinsep's useful Tables, by E. Thomas, p. 111), Jahängir at the age of forty-seven would have weighed 2101 lbs. Troy.

as are worthy of grants, and a large number receive the assistance they desire.

When His Majesty commenced to inquire into this department, it was discovered that the former Sadrs had been guilty of bribery and dishonest practices. He therefore appointed, at the recommendation of near friends, Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabi to this important office. The lands which were then held by Afghans and Chaudris were taken away, and became domain lands (khaleā), whilst all others that held grants were referred to the Shaykh who inquired into, and certified, their grants. After some time it was reported that those who held grants had not the lands in one and the same place, whereby the weak whose grounds lav near khālişa lands or near the jagirs of Mansabdars, were exposed to vexations, and were encroached upon by unprincipled men. His Majesty then ordered that they should get lands on one spot, which they might choose. This order proved beneficial for both parties. The officers of the government, on receiving this order, told off certain villages for this purpose; those who were weak were protected, and the encroachments of the unprincipled were put a stop to.

But when Time, according to his custom, commenced to tear the veil of secrets, rumours also regarding this Sadr [SAbdu 'n-Nabi] came to the ears of His Majesty. An order was therefore given that all those who held more than five hundred bighas should lay their farmans personally before His Majesty, and in default, should lose their lands. As, however, the practices of these grant-holders did not come up to the wise counsels of His Majesty, the order was passed that the excess of all lands above one hundred bighas, if left unspecified in the farmans, should be reduced to two-fifths of it, three-fifths of the excess being annexed to the domain lands. Irani and Tūrani women alone were excepted from this rule.

As it was reported that impudent, avaricious people used to leave their old grounds and take possession of new places, it was ordered that every one who should leave his place, should lose one-fourth of his lands and receive a new grant.

Again, when His Majesty discovered that the Qāzīs were in the habit of taking bribes from the grant-holders, he resolved, with the view of obtaining God's favour, to place no further reliance on these men [the Qāzīs], who wear a turban as a sign of respectability, but are bad at heart, and who wear long sleeves, but fall short in sense. He examined into the whole matter, and dismissed all Qāzīs, except those who had been appointed during the Ṣadrship of Sulţān Khwāja. The Īrānī and Tūrānī

This is the Indian pronunciation for the Arabic and Persian / hillisa.

women also were convicted of fraud, and the order was passed that every excess of land above one hundred $b\bar{\imath}ghas$ held by them should be inquired into, whether it was correctly held or not.

During the Sadrship of Azīzu 'd-Dawla [Mīr Fathu 'llāh of Shīrāz] the following order was given:—If any one held a Suyūrghāl together with a partner, and the farmān contained no reference to the share possessed by each partner, the Sadr should, in the event of one of the partners dying, proceed without further inquiry to a division, the share of the deceased partner lapsing to the Crown, and remaining domain land till the heirs should personally apply to His Majesty. The new Sadr was at the same time prevented from granting, without previous reference to His Majesty, more than fifteen bighas.

On account of the general peace and security in the empire, the grant-holders commenced to lay out their lands in gardens, and thereby derived so much profit, that it tempted the greediness of the Government officers, who had certain notions of how much was sufficient for Suyūrghāl-holders, to demand revenue taxes; but this displeased His Majesty, who commanded that such profits should not be interfered with.

Again, when it was found out that holders of one hundred bighas and even less were guilty of bribery, the order was given that Mir Şadr Jahān should bring these people before His Majesty; and afterwards it was determined that the Şadr with the concurrence of the writer of this work should either increase or decrease the grants. The rule now followed is this, that all Suyūrghāl land should consist of one-half of tilled land, and of one-half of land capable of cultivation; if the latter half be not so (i.e., if the whole be tilled land), one fourth of the whole should be taken away and a new grant be issued for the remainder.

The revenue derived from each bigha varies in the several districts, but is never less than one rupee.

His Majesty, with the view of teaching wisdom and promoting true piety, pays much attention to this department, and appoints disinterested men as Sades of districts and Sade of the realm.

Note by the Translator on the Sadrs of Akbar's reign.

In this A'in—one of the most interesting in the whole work—the Chaghatā'i word suyūrahāl is translated by the Arabic madad' l-ma'āsh, in Persian madad-i ma'āsh, for which we often find in MSS. madad o ma'āsh. The latter term signifies "assistance of livelihood", and, like its equivalent milk, or property, it denotes lands given for benevolent purposes, as specified by Abū'l-Fazl. Such lands were hereditary, and differ for

this reason from jägir or tuyül lands, which were conferred for a specified time on Manşabdars in lieu of salaries.

This A*in proves that Akbar considerably interfered with suyūrghāl lands, arbitrarily resuming whatever lands he liked, and increasing the domain, or khāliṣa,¹ lands to the ruin of many a Muhammadan (Afghān) family. He also completely broke the power of the Ṣadr, whose dignity, especially before the Moghul dynasty, had been very great. It was the Ṣadr, or as he was generally styled, Ṣadr-i Jahān, whose edict legalized the julūs, or accession, of a new king. During the reign of Akbar also, he ranked as the fourth officer of the empire (vide end of Ā*in 30). Their power was immense. They were the highest law-officers, and had the powers which Administrators-General have among us; they were in charge of all lands devoted to ecclesiastical and benevolent purposes, and possessed an almost unlimited authority of conferring such lands independently of the king. They were also the highest ecclesiastical law-officers, and might exercise the powers of High Inquisitors. Thus Abdu 'n-Nabī, during his Ṣadrship, ordered two men to be killed for heresy (vide p. 186, 1. 7, from below).

In the times before the Moghuls, the terms idrārāt, wazāif, milk, in am-i dehhā, in am-i zamīnhā, etc., occur for the word suyūsahāl (or

siyürgül, or sughurghül, as some dictionaries spell it).

Among the former kings, SAlāSu 'd-Dīn-i Khiljī is notorious for the disregard with which he cancelled the grants of former rulers. He resumed the greater part of the madad-ï maSāsh tenures, and made them domain lands. He also lowered the dignity of the Sadr by appointing his keybearer to this high office (Tārīkh-i Fīrūzshāhī, p. 353). Qutb-'d-Dīn Mubārakshāh, however, during the four years and four months of his reign, reinstated many whom SAlāu 'd-Dīn had deprived (T. F., p. 382). Fīrūz Shāh is still more praised for his liberality in conferring lands (T. F., p. 558).

That Sher Shah has often been accused by Moghul Historians for his bounty in conferring lands, has been mentioned above (p. 256, note); and this may have been one of the reasons why Akbar showed such an unexpected severity towards the grant-holders of his time.

Each Sūbā had a Ṣadr-i juz, or provincial Ṣadr, who was under the orders of the Chief Ṣadr (Ṣadr-i Jahān, or Ṣadr-i kul, or Ṣadr-i Ṣudūr).

As in every other department, bribery was extensively carried on in the offices of the Sadra. The land specified in the formen of a holder

¹ Regarding the turning out of Atamgha and Madad-i mcCash holders, wide Elliot's Glossary, under Altamgha, p. 18.

rarely corresponded in extent to the land which he actually held; or the language of the farman was ambiguously worded to enable the holder to take possession of as much as he could and keep it, as long as he bribed the Queis and provincial Sadrs. Hence Akbar had every reason, after repeated inquiries, to cancel grants conferred by former rulers. The religious views of the emperor (vide p. 176) and the hatred which he showed to the 'Ulama, most of whom held lands, furnished him with a personal, and therefore stronger, reason to resume their grants, and drive them away to Bhakkar in Sind, or to Bengal, the climate of which in those days was as notorious as, in later days, that of Gombroon. After the fall of Abdu 'n-Nabi-a man whom Akbar used once to honour by holding the slippers before his feet-Sultan Khwaja, a member of the Divine Faith (vide p. 214), was appointed as Sadr; and the Sadra after him were so limited in conferring lands independently of Akbar, and had so few grants to look after, as to tempt Bada, onl to indulge in sarcastical remarks. The following were Akhar's Sadrs:-

- 1. Shaykh Gadā*ī, a Shīsah, appointed at the recommendation of Bayrām Khān, till 968.
 - 2. Khwaja Muhammad Şalih, till 971.
 - 3. Shavkh Abdu 'n-Nabī, till 986.
 - 4. Sultan Khwaja, till his death in 993.
 - 5. Amir Fathu 'llah of Shiraz, till 997.
 - 6. Şadr Jahan, whose name coincides with the title of his office.

Abū 'l-Fazl also mentions a Şadr Mawlānā 'Abdu 'l-Bāqī; but I do not know when he held office.

I extract a few short passages from Bada, oni.

Page 29. Shaykh Gadā*ī cancelled the Madad-imasah lands, and took away the legacies 1 of the Khānzūdas (Afghāns) and gave a Suyūrghāl to any one that would bear up with humiliating treatment, but not otherwise. Nevertheless, in comperison with the present time, when obstacles are raised to the possession of every jarīb of ground, nay, even less, you may call the Shaykh an Salambakhsh (one who gives away a world).

Page 52. After Shaykh Gadā^{*}ī, Khājagī Muḥammad Ṣāliḥ was, in 968, appointed Ṣadr; but he did not possess such extensive powers in conferring lands as madad-i ma^{*}āsh, because he was dependent on the Dīwāns.

Page 71. In 972, or perhaps more correctly in 971, Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabi was made Sadr. In giving away lands, he was to consult Muzaffar Khan, at that time Vazir and Vakil. But soon after, the Shaykh acquired

¹ Awaif. The text of Padi, onl has wrongly augit. For bar road barah.

such absolute powers that he conferred on deserving people whole worlds of subsistence allowances, lands, and pensions, so much so that if you place the grants of all former kings of Hindustan in one scale, and those of the Shaykh into the other, his scale would weigh more. But several years later the scale went up, as it had been under former kings, and matters took an adverse turn.

Page 204. In 983, His Majesty gave the order that the Ayimas of the whole empire should not be let off by the kroris of each Pergana, unless they brought the farmans in which their grants, subsistence allowances and pensions were described, to the Sadr for inspection and verification. For this reason, a large number of worthy people, from the eastern districts up to Bhakkar on the Indus, came to Court. If any of them had a powerful protector in one of the grandees or near friends of His Majesty, he could manage to have his affair settled; but those who were destitute of such recommendations had to bribe Sayvid Abdu 'r-Rasūl, the Shaykh's head man, or make presents to his farrashes, darbans (porters), syces (grooms), and mihtars (sweepers), "in order to get their blanket out of the mire." Unless, however, they had either strong recommendations, or had recourse to bribery, they were utterly ruined. Many of the Ayimas, without obtaining their object, died from the heat caused by the crowding of the multitudes. Though a report of this came to the ears of His Majesty, no one dared to take these unfortunate people before the emperor. And when the Shaykh, in all his pride and haughtiness, sat upon his masnad (cushion), and influential grandees introduced to him, in his office, scientific or pious men, the Shaykh received them in his filthy way, paid respect to no one,1 and after much asking, begging, and exaggerating he allowed, for example, a teacher of the Hidayu (a book on law) and other college books 100 Bighas, more or less; and though such a man might have been for a long time in possession of more extensive lands, the Shaykh took them away. But to men of no renown, to low fellows, even to Hindus, he gave primitive lands as marks 2 of personal favour. Hence science and scientific men fell in estimation. . . . At no time had a Sadr for so long a time exercised more tyrannical powers.

The fate of Abdu 'n-Nabi has been related above. Akbar gave him money for the poor of Makkah, and sent him on a pilgrimage. When he came back, he was called to account for the money, was put in prison, and murdered "by some scoundrel" in 992.

as bidd midid.

² Badé, oni says that even in the State hall when before the time of prayer he washed his hands and feet, he took care to spirt water on the grandess standing near him.
• For being pil in the text (p. 205) one MS. of Badéoni reads namin-i ibidact be-injured.

The next Sadr was Sultan Khwais. Matters relating to suvurghals now took a very different course. Akbar had rejected the Islam, and the new sadr, who had just returned from Makkah,1 become a member of the Divine Faith. The systematic persecution of the learned and the lawyers had commenced, and His Majesty inquired personally into all grants (vide p. 199, second para.). The lands were now steadily withdrawn, and according to Bada, onl, who had managed to get 1,000 bighas, at first to the great disgust of Abdu 'n-Nabi, many a Muhammadan family was impoverished or utterly ruined.

In 993, Fathu 'llah of Shīras (vide p. 34) was appointed Sadr. As the Suyūrghāl duties, and with them the dignity of the Sadr, had dwindled down to nothing, Fathu 'llah, though Sadr, could be spared for missions

to the Dakhin, Bad., p. 343.

"His Shīrāzī servant Kamāl officiated for him during his absence, and looked after these lacklands of Ayima-dars, who had a few spots here and there; for the dignity of the Sadr had approached its kamal (perfection). Fathu 'llah had not even the power of conferring five bighas; in fact he was an imaginary Sadr, as all lands had been withdrawn. And yet, the lands which had been withdrawn became the dwelling-places of wild animals, and thus belonged neither to the Ayima-dars, nor to farmers. However, of all these oppressions, there is at least a record left in the books of the Sadr. though of the office of the Sadr the name only is left.

Page 368. Fath 'llah [the Sadr himself] laid before His Majesty a bag containing the sum of Rs. 1,000, which his collector by means of oppression or under the pretext that an Ayima-dar was not forthcoming or dead, had squeezed out of the widows and unfortunate orphans of the Pargana of Basawar [which was his jagir] and said "My collectors have this much collected from the Ayima-dars as a kifayat (i.e., because the collectors thought the Suyurghal holders had more than sufficient to live upon)" But the emperor allowed him to keep the sum for himself.

The next Sadr, Sadr Jahan, was a member of the Divine Faith. Though appointed Sade immediately after the death of Fathu 'llah, Bada, oni continues calling him Mufti-yi mamālik-i mahrusa, the Mufti of

¹ The same happened afterwards to Mirzā ÇAzīz Koka. In fact, several examples are on record that devous pilgrime returned so disappointed and "fiseced" from Makkah as to assume a hostile position to the Islām. There is a proverb current in the East, Ask-chapten fi 'l-barameya, "The Devil dwells in Makkah and Madinah."

^{**}Magtic" 'Lorizi a pun ressinding of mugia? (past part, IV), one on whom lands have been conferred, and mugi? (past act. IV), one who confere lands. Observe that Badā, on I uses the word spims not only in the plural sense of spims—dire, but as an equivalent of these who held a Suylingial.

Regarding the punishments which grasping Sadrs were subject to, vide Elliot's Index, p. 283, note, of which, however, the first para. ought to be expunged as unhistorical.

the empire, which had been his title before. Perhaps it was no longer necessary to have a separate officer for the Sadrship. Sadr Jahan continued to serve under Jahangir.

A great portion of the Suyūrohāl lands is specified by Abū 'l-Faşl in the geographical tables of the Third Book.

A in 20.

ON THE CARRIAGES, ETC., INVENTED BY HIS MAJESTY.

His Majesty has invented an extraordinary carriage, which has proved a source of much comfort for various people. When this carriage is used for travelling, or for carrying loads, it may be employed for grinding corn.1

His Majesty also invented a large cart, which is drawn by one elephant. It is made sufficiently large so as to hold several bath-rooms, and thus serves as a travelling bath. It is also easily drawn by cattle.

Camels and horses also are used for pulling carriages, and thus contribute to the comfort of mankind. Finely built carriages are called bahals; 2 if used on even ground several may sit together and travel on.

Water wheels and carts have also been so constructed that water may be fetched from far, low places. Two oxen may pull four such wheels at the same time, or one ox two.

Another machine exists which conveys water from a well, and moves at the same time a millstone.

A'in 21.

THE TEN SER TAX (DAHSERI).

His Majesty takes from each bigha of tilled land ten sers of grain as a royalty. Store-houses have been constructed in every district. They supply the animals belonging to the State with food, which is never bought in the bazars. These stores prove at the same time of great use for the people; for poor cultivators may receive grain for sowing purposes, or people may buy cheap grain at the time of famines. But the stores are only used to supply necessities. They are also used for benevolent purposes; for His Majesty has established in his empire many houses

¹ This was, according to Nigam's Tabaqat, an invention of Faths 'light of Shiris (wide p. 38, note). Nigam says, "He constructed a malistone which was placed on a cart. It turned itself and ground corn. He also invented a looking-glass which, whether men near or at a distance, showed all suries of curious figures. Also a wheel, which cleaned at once twelve barrels." The last mentioned wheel also is ascribed by Ab6C 'l-Fagl to Akbar; wide Book I, Å⁰ in 38, p. 122.

⁹ Regarding English carriages (rath-i sagres) brought to India under Jahlingh, wide Tussis, pp. 167, 168.

⁸ Vide pp. 210 and 211.

for the poor, where indigent people may get something to eat. He also appoints everywhere experienced people to look after these store-houses, and selects for this purpose active Dārogahs and clever writers, who watch the receipts and charges.

A*in 22.

ON FEASTS.

His Majesty inquires into the excellent customs of past ages, and without looking to the men of the past in particular, he takes up that which is proper, though he have to pay a high price for it. He bestows his fostering care upon men of various classes, and seeks for occasions to make presents. Thus, when His Majesty was informed of the feasts of the Jamsheds, and the festivals of the Parsi priests, he adopted them, and used them as opportunities of conferring benefits. The following are the most important feasts. 1. The New Year's Day feast. 1 It commences on the day when the Sun in his splendour moves to Aries, and lasts till the nineteenth day of the month (Farwardin). Two days of this period are considered great festivals, when much money and numerous other things are given away as presents; the first day of the month of Farwardin, and the nineteenth, which is the time of the Sharaf. Again, His Majesty followed the custom of the ancient Parsis, who held banquets on those days the names of which coincided with the name of a month.2 The following are the days which have the same name as a month: 19th Farwardin; Srd Urdibihisht; 6th Khurdad; 13th Tir; 7th Amurdad; 4th Shahriwar: 16th Mihr; 10th Aban; 9th Azar; 8th, 15th, 23rd Day; 2nd, Bahman; 5th Isfandarmuz. Feasts are actually and ideally held on each of these days. People in their happiness raise the strain of inward joy. In the beginning of each pahr the maggaras (vide p. 51, l. 1) are beaten, when the singers and musicians fall in. On the first of the above feasts coloured lamps are used for three nights; on the second for one night, and the joy is general.

I have given a few particulars in the first book (A*In 18).

A'in 23.

THE KHUSHROZ OR DAY OF FANCY BAZARS.

On the third feast-day of every month, His Majesty holds a large assembly for the purpose of inquiring into the many wonderful things

Badš, eni generally calls this day Nawrāz-i Jakli; vide p. 183, note 2.
 Thus Aben was the name of the eighth month (October-November); but the tenth day also of every month had the same name.

found in this world. The merchants of the age are eager to attend, and lay out articles from all countries. The people of His Majesty's Harem come, and the women of other men also are invited, and buying and selling is quite general. His Majesty uses such days to select any articles which he wishes to buy, or to fix the price of things, and thus add to his knowledge. The secrets of the empire, the character of the people, the good and bad qualities of each office and workshop, will then appear. His Majesty gives to such days the name of Khushrūz, or the joyful day, as they are a source of much enjoyment.

After the fancy bāzārs for women, bāzārs for the men are held. Merchants of all countries then sell their wares. His Majesty watches the transactions, and such as are admitted to Court indulge in the pleasure of buying. Bāzār people, on such occasions, may lay their grievances before His Majesty, without being prevented by the mace-bearers, and may use the opportunity of laying out their stores, in order to explain their circumstances. For those who are good, the dawn of success rises, whilst wicked bāzār people are called to account.

His Majesty has appointed for this purpose a separate treasurer and an accountant, so that the sellers may get paid without delay. The profit made by tradesmen on such occasions is very great.¹

A*in 24.

REGULATIONS REGARDING MARRIAGES.

Every care bestowed upon this wonderful tie between men is a means of preserving the stability of the human race, and ensuring the progress of the world; it is a preventive against the outbreak of evil passions, and leads to the establishment of homes. Hence His Majesty, inasmuch as he is benign, watches over great and small, and imbues men with his notions of the spiritual union and the equality of essence which he sees in marriage. He abhors marriages which take place between man and woman before the age of puberty. They bring forth no fruit, and His Majesty thinks them even hurtful; for afterwards, when such a couple ripens into mankood, they dialike having connexion, and their home is desclate.

Here in India, where a man cannot see the woman to whom he is betrothed, there are peculiar obstacles; but His Majesty maintains that the consent of the bride and bridegroom, and the permission of the parents, are absolutely necessary in marriage contracts.

Begarding these fancy basars, side above Bada.cal's remarks on p. 213, i. 4.

Marriage between near relations His Majesty thinks highly improper. He says. " The fact that, in ancient times (?) even, a girl was not given to her twin brother 1 ought to silence those who are fond of historical proofs. Marriage between first cousins, however, does not strike the bigoted followers of Muhammad's religion as wrong; for the beginning of a religion resembles, in this regard, the beginning of the creation of mankind.

His Majesty disapproves of high dowries; for as they are rarely ever paid, they are mere sham; but he admits that the fixing of high dowries is a preventive against rash divorces. Nor does His Majesty approve of every one marrying more than one wife; for this ruins a man's health, and disturbs the peace of the home. He censures old women that take

young husbands, and says that doing so is against all modesty.

He has also appointed two sober and sensible men, one of whom inquires into the circumstances of the bridegroom, and the other into those of the bride. These two officers have the title of Tu-1-beoi, or masters of marriages. In many cases, the duties are performed by one and the same officer. His Majesty also takes a tax from both parties, to enable them to show their gratitude. The payment of this tax is looked upon as auspicious. Mansabdars commanding from five to one thousand, pay 10 Muhrs; do. from one thousand to five hundred, 4 M.; do. to Commanders of one hundred, 2 M.; do. to Commanders of forty, 1 M.; do. to Commanders of ten, 4 R. The latter fee is also paid by rich people. The middle classes pay 1 R., and common people 1 dam. In demanding this tax, the officers have to pay regard to the circumstances of the father of the bride.

A*in 25.

REGULATIONS REGARDING EDUCATION.

In every country, but especially in Hindustan, boys are kept for years at school, where they learn the consonants and vowels. A great portion of the life of the students is wasted by making them read many books. His Majesty orders that every school boy should first learn to write the letters of the Alphabet, and also learn to trace their several forms.3 He ought to learn the shape and name of each letter, which may

Boys in the East generally learn to write by running their pens over the characters

of the copysize (piffer).

الم برزاس تدسى جهاس رود آنكه در باستان مصر بهرام ندادس. [1] The sone and daughters of common people were not allowed to marry, unless they came to the office of the kotwāl, and were stared at by the kotwāl's men, who had to take down their respective ages; and you may imagine what advantages and fine expertunities the officers thus had, especially the people of the kotwāl, and the hidad-yi hald (1), and their other low assistants outside." Bad. II, p. 301. Vide also Third Book, han it

be done in two days, when the boy should proceed to write the joined letters. They may be practised for a week, after which the boy should learn some prose and poetry by heart, and then commit to memory some verses to the praise of God, or moral sentences, each written separately. Care is to be taken that he learns to understand everything himself; but the teacher may assist him a little. He then ought for some time to be daily practised in writing a hemistich or a verse, and will soon acquire a current hand. The teacher ought especially to look after five things: knowledge of the letters; meanings of words; the hemistich; the verse; the former lesson. If this method of teaching be adopted, a boy will learn in a month, or even in a day, what it took others years to understand, so much so that people will get quite astonished. Every boy ought to read books on morals, arithmetic, the notation peculiar to arithmetic, agriculture, mensuration, geometry, astronomy, physiognomy, household matters, the rules of government, medicine, logic, the tabīsī, riyāzī, and ilāhī, sciences, and history; all of which may be gradually acquired.

In studying Sanscrit, students ought to learn the Bayakaran, Niya,i, Bedanta, and Patanjal. No one should be allowed to neglect those things which the present time requires.

These regulations shed a new light on schools, and cast a bright lustre over Madrages.

A*in 26.

THE ADMIRALTY.

This department is of great use for the successful operations of the army, and for the benefit of the country in general: it furnishes means of obtaining things of value, provides for agriculture, and His Majesty's household. His Majesty, in fostering this source of power, keeps four objects in view, and looks upon promoting the efficiency of this department as an act of divine worship.

First.—The fitting out of strong boats, capable of carrying elephants. Some are made in such a manner as to be of use in sieges and for the conquest of strong forts. Experienced officers look upon ships as if they were houses and dromedaries, and use them as excellent means of conquest. So especially in Turkey, Zanzibar, and Europe. In every part of His

¹ This is the three-fold division of sciences. Alahi, or divers, sciences comprise everything consected with theology and the means of acquiring a knowledge of God. Sighti sciences treat of quantity, and comprise mathematics, astronomy, music, mechanics. Tubi-fi sciences comprehend physical sciences. Sciences dictionaries call the last class of sciences (abs/fi, instead of tabiff.

Majesty's empire ships are numerous; but in Bengal, Kashmir, and Thathah (Sind) they are the pivot of all commerce. His Majesty had the sterns of the boats made in shape of wonderful animals, and thus combines terror with amusement. Turrets and pleasing kiosks, markets, and beautiful flower-beds, have likewise been constructed on the rivers. Along the coasts of the ocean, in the west, east, and south of India, large ships are built, which are suitable for voyages. The harbours have been put into excellent condition, and the experience of seamen has much improved. Large ships are also built at Ilāhābās and Lâhor, and are then sent to the coast. In Kashmir, a model of a ship was made which was much admired.

Secondly.—To appoint experienced seamen, acquainted with the tides, the depths of the ocean, the time when the several winds blow, and their advantages and disadvantages. They must be familiar with shallows and banks. Besides, a seaman must be hale and strong, a good swimmer, kind hearted, hard working, capable of bearing fatigue, patient; in fact, he must possess all good qualities. Men of such character can only be found after much trouble. The best seamen come from Malībār (Malabar).

Boatmen also bring men and their things from one side of the river to the other.

The number of sailors in a ship varies according to the size of the vessel. In large ships there are twelve classes. 1. The Nākhudā, or owner of the ship. This word is evidently a short form of Nāvkhudā. He fixes the course of the ship. 2. The Musallim, or Captain. He must be acquainted with the depths and the shallow places of the ocean, and must know astronomy. It is he who guides the ship to her destination, and prevents her from falling into dangers. 3. The Tamdil, 1 or chief of the khalasis, or Sailors, in seamen's language, are called khalāṣīs or khārwas. 4. The Nākhudā-khashab. He supplies the passengers with firewood and straw, and assists in shipping and unlading the cargo. Sarhang, or mate, superintends the docking and landing of the ship, and often acts for the Musallim. 6. The Bhandari has the charge of the stores. 7. The Karrani is a writer who keeps the accounts of the ship, and serves out water to the passengers. 8. The Sukkangir, or helmsman. He steers the ship according to the orders of the Mucallim. Some ships carry several helmsmen, but never more than twenty. 9. The Panjari looks out from

^{[1} Tandail or fandel, H.—P.]

This word is nowadays pronounced Kirāni, and is applied to any clerk. The word is often used contemptuously.

[2 There is a modern Angle-Indian word used in Calcutta, 'sea-cunny,' derived from making.—P.]

the top of the mast, and gives notice when he sees land or a ship, or a coming storm, etc. 10. The Gamti belongs to the class of khalāsis. He throws out the water which has leaked through the ship. 11. The Top-andaz, or gunner, is required in naval fights; the number depends on the size of the ship. 12. The Khārwa or common sailors. They set and furl the sails. Some of them perform the duty of divers, and stop leaks, or set free the anchor when it sticks fast. The amount of their wages varies, and depends on the voyage, or kūsk, as seamen call it. In the harbour of Sātgāw (Hūglī) a Nākhudā gets 400 R.; besides he is allowed four makkh, or cabins, which he fills with wares for his own profit. Every ship is divided into several divisions, for the accommodation of passengers and the stowage of goods, each of the divisions being called a malikh. The Musullim gets 200 R. and two malikhs; the Tantil, 120 R.; the Karrānī, 50 R. and one malīkh; the Nākhudā khashab, 30 R.; the Sarhang, 25 R.; the Sukkangir, Panjari, and Bhandari, each 15 R.; each Khārwa or common sailor, 40 R., and his daily food in addition; the Degandaz, or gunner, 12 R.

In Kambhāyat (Cambay), a $N\bar{a}\underline{kh}ud\bar{a}$ gets 800 R., and the other men in the same proportion.

In Lähari, a näkhudä gets 300 R., and the rest in proportion.

In Achin he gets half as much again as in southern harbours; in Portugal, two and a half as much again; and in Malacca, twice as much again. In Pegu, and Dahnäsari, he gets half as much again as in Cambay. All these rates vary according to the place and the length of the voyage. But it would take me too long to give more details.

Boatmen on rivers have wages varying from 100 to 500 d. per mensem.

Thirdly, an experienced man has been appointed to look after the rivers. He must be an imposing and fearless man, must have a loud voice, must be capable of bearing fatigue, active, zealous, kind, fond of travelling, a good awimmer. As he possesses experience, he settles every difficulty which arises regarding fords, and takes care that such places are not overcrowded, or too narrow, or very uneven, or full of mud. He regulates the number of passengers which a ferry may carry; he must not allow travellers to be delayed, and sees that poor people are passed over gratis. He ought not to allow people to swim across, or wares to be deposited anywhere else but at fording places. He should also prevent people from crossing at night, unless in cases of necessity.

Fourthly, the remission of duties. His Majesty, in his mercy, has remitted many tolls, though the income derived from them equalled the

revenue of a whole country. He only wishes that boatmen should get their wages. The state takes certain taxes in harbour places; but they never exceed two and a half per cent., which is so little compared with the taxes formerly levied, that merchants lock upon harbour taxes as totally remitted.

The following sums are levied as river tolls. For every boat, 1 R. per kos at the rate of 1,000 mans, provided the boat and the men belong to one and the same owner. But if the boat belongs to another man and everything in the boat to the man who has hired it, the tax is 1 R. for every $2\frac{1}{2}$ kos. At ferry places, an elephant has to pay 10 d. for crossing; a laden cart. 4 d.; do. empty, 2 d.; a laden camel, 1 d.; empty camels, horses, cattle with their things, $\frac{1}{2}d$.; do. empty, $\frac{1}{4}d$. Other beasts of burden pay $\frac{1}{18}d$., which includes the toll due by the river. Twenty people pay 1 d. for crossing; but they are often taken gratis.

The rule is that one-half or one-third of the tolls thus collected go to the State (the other half goes to the boatmen).

Merchants are therefore well treated, and the articles of foreign countries are imported in large quantities.

$ilde{A}^{f t}$ in 27.

ON HUNTING.

Superficial, worldly observers see in killing an animal a sort of pleasure, and in their ignorance stride about, as if senseless, on the field of their passions. But deep inquirers see in hunting a means of acquisition of knowledge, and the temple of their worship derives from it a peculiar lustre. This is the case with His Majesty. He always makes hunting a means of increasing his knowledge, and besides, uses hunting parties as occasions to inquire, without having first given notice of his coming, into the condition of the people and the army. He travels incognito, and examines into matters referring to taxation, or to Sayūrghāl lands, or to affairs connected with the household. He lifts up such as are oppressed. and punishes the oppressors. On account of these higher reasons His Majesty indulges in the chase, and shows himself quite enamoured of it. Short-sighted and shallow observers think that His Majesty has no other object in view but hunting; but the wise and experienced know that he pursues higher aims.

When His Majesty starte on a hunting party, active Qarāwals [men employed by the Mir Shikār,1 or Master of Hunting] surround the hunting

^{[1} Mir shikar in India is now applied to any assistant falconer, bird-catcher, etc.—P.]

ground, the Qur (p. 110), remaining at a distance of about five kos from it. Near the Qur the grandees and other people await the arrival of His Majesty. The men who look after the things sit down and watch. About a yard behind them the Mir Tūzak stands ready for service, and about a kos and one-half behind them stand some of the Khidmatiyya (p. 252) and other servants of His Majesty. The Khidmatiyya are told off to watch at that place. At about the same distance there stands a vigilant officer with some of His Majesty's servants. He advances very slowly and guards the private hunting ground. Behind them an experienced officer is stationed to superintend the whole. Several near servants of His Majesty have admission to this place; but generally only such are allowed to come as are required to render services at the chase.

When a certain distance has been passed over, His Majesty selects a few to accompany him, and then moves on; and after having gone over another distance, he generally goes alone, or accompanied by one or two. When the hour of rest comes, both parties which had been left behind again join His Majesty.

As I have stated the views of His Majesty regarding the chase, and have written down some remarks on the arrangements which are made during hunting parties, I shall give a few particulars as to the several modes of chasing, and the wonderful contrivances which people have recourse to.

1. Tiger Hunting.

They make a large cage, and having fastened it (on the ground) with strong iron ties, they put it in places frequented by tigers. The door is left open; but it is arranged in such a manner that the slightest shaking will cause it to close. Within the cage they put a goat, which is protected by a screen so constructed that the tiger can see the goat, but not get hold of it. Hunger will lead the tiger to the cage. As soon as he enters, he is caught.

Another method.—They put a poisoned arrow on a bow, painted green, in such a manner that a slight movement will cause the arrow to go off. The bow is hung upon a tree, and when the tiger passes, and shakes it a little, the arrow will hit the animal and kill it.

Another method.—They tie a sheep to a place in a road frequented by tigers, putting round about the sheep on the ground small blades of grass covered with glue.¹ The tiger comes rushing forward and gets his claws full of the glue. The more he tries to get rid of it. the more will the glue

^{[1} Milim, probably bird-lime made from the exudations from alite made in the bark of the bar (banyan) or the pipal tree.—P.]

stick to his feet, and when he is quite senseless and exhausted, the hunters come from the ambush and kill him. Or they take him alive, and tame him.

His Majesty, from his straightforwardness, dislikes having recourse to such tricks, and prefers with bows or matchlocks openly to attack this brute, which destroys so many lives.

Another method.—An intrepid experienced hunter gets on the back of a male buffalo and makes it attack the tiger. The buffalo will quickly catch the tiger on its horns, and toss it violently upwards, so that it dies. It is impossible to describe the excitement of this manner of hunting the tiger. One does not know what to admire more, the courage of the rider, or his skill in standing firm on the slippery back of the buffalo.

One day, notice was given that a man-eating tiger had made its appearance in the district of Bārī. His Majesty got on the elephant Nāhir Khān, and went into the jungle. The brute was stirred up; and striking its claws into the forehead of the huge animal, it pulled its head close down to the ground, when the tiger was killed by the men. This occurrence astonished the most intrepid and experienced hunters.

On another occasion, His Majesty hunted near Toda. The tiger had stretched one of the party to the ground. His Majesty aimed at the brute, killed it, and thus saved the life of the man.

Once during a *qamargha*. chase, a large tiger was stirred up. The animal attacked His Majesty, when he shot it in time through the head and killed it.

Once a tiger struck his claws into a man. All who witnessed it despaired of his life. His Majesty shot the tiger through the body and released the unfortunate man.

A remarkable scene took place in the forest of Mathurā. Shujāsat Khān (vide Āsīn 30, No. 51), who had advanced very far, got suddenly timid. His Majesty remained standing where he was, and looked furiously at the tiger. The brute cowered 2 down before that divine glance, and turned right about trembling all over. In a short time it was killed.

The feats of His Majesty are too numerous to be imagined; much less can a Hindustānī, as I am, describe them in a dignified style.

He slays lions, but would not hurt an ant.

He girds himself for the fray; but the lions drops his claws from fear.4

¹ Queenly is a chase for which drivers are employed. [The game is apparently enclosed in a living ring.—P.]

nelcood in a living ring.—P.]

This is one of Akber's miracles.

These two verses are taken from Fayri's Nal Daman; vide p. 113, note 1.

2. Elephant-catching.

There are several modes of hunting elephants.

1. Kheda.¹ The hunters are both on horseback and on foot. They go during summer to the grazing places of this wonderful animal, and commence to beat drums and blow pipes, the noise of which makes the elephants quite frightened. They commence to rush about, till from their heaviness and exertions no strength is left in them. They are then sure to run under a tree for shade, when some experienced hunters throw a rope made of hemp or bark round their feet or necks, and thus tie them to the trees. They are afterwards led off in company with some trained elephants, and gradually get tame. One-fourth of the value of an elephant thus caught is given to the hunters as wages.

2. Chor kheda. They take a tame female elephant to the grazing place of wild elephants, the driver stretching himself on the back of the elephant, without moving or giving any other sign of his presence. The elephants then commence to fight, when the driver manages to secure one by

throwing a rope round the foot.

3. Gad.² A deep pit is constructed in a place frequented by elephants, which is covered up with grass. As soon as the elephants come near it the hunters from their ambush commence to make a great noise. The elephants get confused, and losing their habitual cautiousness, they fall rapidly and noisily into the hole. They are then starved and kept without

water, when they soon get tame.

4. Bar. They dig a ditch round the resting-place of elephants, leaving only one road open, before which they put up a door, which is fastened

only one road open, before which they put up a door, which is fastened with ropes. The door is left open, but closes when the rope is cut. The hunters then put both inside and outside the door such food as elephants like. The elephants eat it up greedily; their voraciousness makes them forget all cautiousness, and without fear they enter at the door. A fearless hunter, who has been lying concealed, then cuts the rope, and the door closes. The elephants start up, and in their fury try to break the door. They are all in commotion. The hunters then kindle fires and make much noise. The elephants run about till they get tired, and no strength is left in them. Tame females are then brought to the place, by whose means the wild elephants are caught. They soon get tame.

From times of old, people have enjoyed elephant hunts by any of the above modes; His Majesty has invented a new manner, which

¹ Hence our elephant kheddes.
[1 For gdd or gdyd f., a pit !-P.]

admits of remarkable finesse. In fact, all excellent modes of hunting are inventions of His Majesty. A wild herd of elephants is surrounded on three sides by drivers, one side alone being left open. At it several female elephants are stationed. From all sides, male elephants will approach to cover the females. The latter then go gradually into an enclosure, whither the males follow. They are now caught as shown above.¹

3. Leopard ¹ Hunting.

Leopards, when wild, select three places. In one part of the country they hunt; in another part they rest and sleep; and in a third district they play and amuse themselves. They mostly sleep on the top of a hill. The shade of a tree is sufficient for the leopard. He rubs himself against the trunk. Round about the tree they deposit their excrements, which are called in Hindī ākhar.

Formerly, hunters used to make deep holes and cover them with grass. These pits were called od. The leopards on coming near them, fell down to the bottom; but they often broke their feet or legs, or managed by jumping to get out again. Nor could you catch more than one in each pit. His Majesty therefore invented a new method, which has astonished the most experienced hunters. He made a pit only two or three gaz deep, and constructed a peculiar trapdoor, which closes when the leopard falls into the hole. The animal is thus never hurt. Sometimes more than one go into the trap. On one occasion no less than seven leopards were caught. At the time of their heat, which takes place in winter, a female leopard had been walking about on the field, and six male leopards were after her. Accidentally she fell into a pit, and her male companions, unwilling to let her off, dropped in one after the other—a nice scene, indeed.

His Majesty also catches leopards by firing them out, which is very interesting to look at.

[&]quot;A large number of people had surrounded the whole jungle, outside of which, on a small empty space, a throne made of wood had been put on a tree, as a seat for the emperor [Jahängir], and on the neighbouring trees beams had been put, upon which the courtiers were to sit and enjoy the sight. About two hundred male elephants, with strong nooses, and many females were in readiness. Upon each elephant there set two men of the Jhariyyah caste, who chiefly occupy themselves in this part of India [Gujrāt] with elephant hunting. The plan was to drive the wild elephants from all parts of the jungle near the place where the emperor sat, so that he might enjoy the sight of this exciting scene. When the drivers closed up from all sides of the jungle, their ring unfortunately broke on account of the density and impenetrability of the wood, and the arrangements of the drivers partially failed. The wild elephants ran about as if mad; but twelve male and female elephants were caught before the eyes of the emperor." Iqbālnāma, p. 113.

[2 Yfiz, the chītā or hunting leopard.—P.]

Another method is to fasten nooses to the foot of the above mentioned tree. When the animal comes to scratch itself, it gets entangled.

His Majesty generally hunts leopards thirty or forty kos from Agra, especially in the districts of Bārī, Sīmāwalī, Alāpūr, Sunnām, Bhaṭinḍa, Bhaṭnīr, Paṭan in the Panjāb, Faṭhpūr Jhinjhanū, Nāgor, Mīrath, Jodhpūr, Jaisalmīr, Amrsarnāyin; but several other more remote spots have been selected as hunting grounds. His Majesty used often to go to the first mentioned places, take out the leopards that had fallen into a pit, and hand them over to the keepers. He would often travel over great distances, and was perhaps just on the point of resting a little; but before he had done so, good news were brought from some hunting ground, when he hastened away on a fleet courser.

In former times people managed to train a newly caught leopard for the chase in the space of three months, or if they exerted themselves, in two months. From the attention which His Majesty pays to this animal, leopards are now trained in an excellent manner in the short space of eighteen days. Old and active keepers were surprised at such results, and extolled the charm of His Majesty's knowledge. From good motives, and from a desire to add splendour to his court, His Majesty used to take it upon himself to keep and train leopards, astonishing the most experienced by his success.

A rather remarkable case is the following. Once a leopard had been caught, and without previous training, on a mere hint by His Majesty, it brought in the prey like trained leopards. Those who were present had their eyes opened to truth, and experienced the blessing of prostrating themselves in belief on His Majesty.¹

Attracted by the wonderful influence of the loving heart of His Majesty, a leopard once followed the imperial suite without collar or chain, and like a sensible human being, obeyed every command, and at every leopard chase enjoyed it very much to have its skill brought to the test.

There are two hundred keepers in charge of the khāşa leopards. A proper system of training has been laid down.

A*in 28.

THE FOOD ALLOWED TO LEOPARDS. THE WAGES OF THE KEEPERS.

First class leopards get 5 s. of meat every day; second class, 4½ s.; third class, 4 s.; fourth class, 3½ s.; fifth class, 3½ s.; sixth class, 3½ s.;

I Two more mirecles of Akbar's.

seventh class, 3 s.; eighth class, 2\frac{3}{4} s. The meat is given in a lump; and as on Sundays no animals are killed, 1 double the daily portion is given on Saturdays.

Formerly every six months, but now annually, four sers of butter and one-tenth of a ser of brimstone are given as ointment, which prevents itch. Four men also were appointed to train and look after each leopard; but now there are three men told off for such leopards as sit on horses when taken to the hunting ground, and only two for such as sit on carts and on doolies. The wages of the keepers vary from 30 R. to 5 R. per mensem; but they have at the same time to look after the cattle which draw the leopard carts. The servants who look after the cattle are divided into seniors and juniors, each class being subdivided into five divisions. The seniors get 300 d., 260 d., 220 d. 200 d., and 180 d., which is the lowest allowance; the juniors get 160 d., 140 d., 120 d., 110 d., and 100 d. For the sake of show, the leopards get brocaded saddle cloths, chains studded with jewels, and coarse blankets, and Gushkani a carpets to sit on. Grandees of the court also are appointed to superintend the keepers of each leopard; they are to take care that the animals are nicely dressed, and that new ones are added to the establishment. Each leopard has a name which indicates some of his qualities. Every ten leopards form a Misl or Taraf (set); they are also divided according to their rank as follows. One thousand 4 leopards are kept in His Majesty's park, and an interesting encampment they form. The three first sets are khāsa: they are kept at Court together with two other sets. For their conveyance two litters (mihaffa) are hung over the back of an elephant, one litter on each side. On each litter one leopard sits, looking out for a prey. Litters are also put on camels, horses, and mules. Carts even are made for the leopards, and are drawn by horses or cattle; or they are made to sit on horses; and sometimes they are carried by men in doolies. The best leopard which His Majesty has goes by the name of Samand-manik; he is carried on a chau-dol, and proceeds with much pomp. His servants,

According to the order mentioned on p. 209, 2nd pars

^{[*} Jul, a covering for any animal.—P.]

In my text edition, p. 208, l. 8, jkis. This should perhaps be jkis or fallow of the country of the c

eskhāni, Goshkān (in Arabie Joshqān), being a town in Irān, famous for its carpets.

"Among the carious events which happened during the present [Jahāngīr's] reign I must mention that a seopard in captivity covered a female leopard, which gave birth to three cubs. The late emperor [Akbar] during his youth, was passionately fond of leopards and hunting with leopards. He had about 9,000 leopards collected during his reign, and tried much to pair them, so as to get cubs, but in vain. He even allowed some leopards to run about in the gardens without collars, letting them walk about and hunt after their fashion; but they would not pair. During this year a male leopard broke its collar, and covered a female, which after a space of two months and a half gave birth to three cubs. They went on well, and grew big." Iqbāladma, p. 70.

fully equipped, run at his side; the naqqāra (a large drum) is beaten in front, and sometimes he is carried by two men on horseback, the two ends of the pole of the chau-dol resting on the necks of their horses. Formerly two horses were kept for every leopard; but now three horses are given to two leopards. Others have a dooly, or a cart drawn by four oxen. Many travel along on one and the same dooly. A tame, trained leopard has the dooly carried by three men, others by two.

Skill exhibited by hunting leopards.

Leopards will go against the wind, and thus they get scent of a prey, or come to hear its voice. They then plan an attack, and give the hunters notice where the prey is. The hunters keep the animal near themselves, and proceed to catch the prey. This is done in three ways.

1. Uparghati. The hunters let off the leopard to the right from the place where the deer was seen. The leopard swiftly seizes it with his claws. 2. Righni. The leopard lies concealed, and is shown the deer from a distance. The collar is then taken off, when the leopard, with perfect skill, will dash off, jumping from ambush to ambush till he catches the deer. 3. Muhārī. The leopard is put in an ambush, having the wind towards himself. The cart is then taken away to the opposite direction. This perplexes the deer, when the leopard will suddenly make his way near it and catch it.

It is impossible to describe the wonderful feats of this animal; language fails to express his skill and cunning. Thus he will raise up the dust with his forefeet and hind legs, in order to conceal himself; or he will lie down so flat, that you cannot distinguish him from the surface of the ground.

Formerly a leopard would not kill more than three deer at one and the same chase; but now he will hunt as many as twelve.

His Majesty has also invented a method called chatrmandal. The hunters lie in ambush near a place frequented by deer, and commence the chase from this place as if it was a quantum hunt (in which drivers are used). The leopards are then let off in all directions, and many deer are thus caught.

The men employed to train and keep the imperial leopards receive presents on all occasions when the animals exhibit skill, as an encouragement to further exertions. A special present has been fixed for each animal, but I cannot specify this.

Once, from the kindness shown by His Majesty, a deer 2 made friendship

^{[1} The translation of this passage is doubtful.—P.] [2 A&&, gazelle.—P.]

with a leopard. They lived together and enjoyed each other's company. The most remarkable thing was this, that the leopard when let off against other deer, would pounce upon them as any other leopard.

In former times leopards were never allowed to remain loose towards the close of the day; for people were afraid of their stubbornness and anxiety to run away. But now, in consequence of the practical rules made by His Majesty, they are let loose in the evenings and yet remain obedient. Formerly, leopards were also kept blindfolded, except at the time of the chase; for the leopards used to get brisk and run about as if mad. But nowadays they are kept without covers for their heads. The grandees of the court are allowed to bet on forty khasa leopards; whoever wins takes the amount of his bet from the others. If a leopard is first in bringing twenty deer, his Doriya 3 gets five rupees from his equals. The grandee in charge of the khāsa leopards, Sayyid Ahmad of Bārha, agets one muhr from each bet, by which he makes a good deal of money. Asoften as a grandee lays before His Majesty twenty pair of deer horns, he takes an Ashrafī from each of his equals. So also do the Tarafdārs and Qurawals bet; in fact every one shows his zeal in trying to get as many deer 1 as possible. The skins of the deer 1 are often given to poor people as part of money presents.

It is remarkable that His Majesty can at once tell by seeing a hide to what hunting ground the deer 1 belonged.

His Majesty, in fulfilment of a vow made by him before the birth of the eldest prince, never hunts on Fridays.

^{[1} Akā, gaselle.—P.] [2 i.e. hooded.—P.]

The man who holds the chain to which the leopard is fastened.

He was a Duhsairi; vide Åin 30, No. 91.
 Akbar required the horns of deer.

[&]quot;In this year (981), His Majesty built several edifices and eastles on the road from Agra to Ajmir. The reason was this. He thought it incumbent upon him once a year to make a pilgrimage to the tomb (daspāk) of MuSn-i Chiahti at Ajmir; he therefore had houses built at every stage on the road to that town. He also erected at every kos a tower (manāra), and had a well made near it. The towers were studded with several hundred thousand horus of deer which His Majesty had killed during his lifetime. The words mil-i shākh contain the Tārīkh (981). I wished His Majesty had made gardens and sarāke for travellers instead." Badā oni, ii, p. 173. Vide also Elliot's Index, p. 243, note.

Tarafāra, the men in charge of a taraf, which word Abū'l-Faşl above used in the mana and mild to said.

Tarafdära, the men is charge of a taraf, which word Abū'l-Fatl above used in the same sense as mid, or set. Tarafdär means also a Zamindär. A Qardwal is a driver.

"It was at this time [1027 a.m. or a.m. 1618] that Shāhzāda Shujā, son of Shāhjahān,

It was at this time [1027 A.H. or A.D. 1618] that Shāhzāda Shujā, son of Shāhjahān, fell ill, and as I am so much attached to him, and the doctors could not cure him of the insensibility in which he had laim for saveral days, I humbly prayed to God, and asked Him a favour. During the prayer, it occurred to me that I had already made a contract with my God and had promised Him to give up hunting after reaching the age of fifty, not to touch after that an arrow or a gun, and never again to slay an animal with my own hands; and I thought that if I should carry into effect my former vow from the present time, which would prevent so many animals from being killed, God might grant my

The Sivah-gosh.1

His Majesty is very fond of using this plucky little animal for hunting purposes. In former times it would attack a hare or a fox; but now it kills black deer.2 It eats daily 1 s. of meat. Each has a separate keeper, who gets 100 d. per mensem.

Dogs.

His Majesty likes this animal very much for his excellent qualities, and imports dogs from all countries. Excellent dogs come from Kābul, especially from the Hazāra district [north of Rawul Pindi]. They even ornament dogs, and give them names.* Dogs will attack every kind of animals, and more remarkable still, they will attack a tiger. Several also will join and hunt down the enemy. Khāsa dogs get daily 2 s. of meat; others get 11 s. There is one keeper for every two Tazī 4 (hunting) dogs; their wages are 100 d. per mensem.5

Hunting Deer & with Deer.

This timid animal also may be tamed and trained. They put a net 7 over his horns, and let it off against wild deer, which from fear will fight with them. During the struggle, the horn, or the foot, or the ears of the wild deer will get entangled in the net; the hunters who have been lying in ambush, will then run up to it, and catch it. The deer thus caught

Jahangir's self denial was not great; for when the prince was sick, Jahangir was fifty

years of age ! 1 Or black ear, the Persian translation of the Turkish gers-goleg, whence our Felis oarecel.

[The Red Lynx of India, Persia, and Arabia. It is trained to take, besides the quarry

mentioned, partridges, pigeons, cata, and Egyptian vultures, etc.—P.]

[* Aha-ys sigah, a wrong term.—P.]

This would not strike us as something worth mentioning. But as dogs are considered unclean animals by Muhammadans, they are not looked upon as domestic. Nowadays we hear occasionally names, as kullú, backhú; or English names as fenī (Fanny), bulday (bull dog), etc.

European bloodhounds were early imported by the Portuguese. Jahangir once said to Roe, "I only desire you to help me to a horse of the greatest size, and a male and female of mastiffee, and the tall Irish greyhounds, and such other dogges as hunt in your land.'
Regarding European dogs in India, vide also Tuzuk, p. 138, l. 3, from below.

Tast is the Arab greyhound,--P.]
Por a note on hunting Dogs and Chestas vide Jl. and Pro. As. Soc. Beng., 1907.--P.]

AAS, geselle.—P.] Dam, probably a noose of thick gut.-P.

prayer for the prince's recovery, I then made this contract with God, and promised, in all prayer for the prince a recovery, I then made this contract with God, and promised, in all singleness of intention and true belief, never again to harm an animal with my own hand. Through God's mercy, the sufferings of the prince were entirely allayed. When I was in the womb of my mother, it happened one day that I did not quicken as usual. The servants of the Harem grew alarmed, and reported the fact to my august father [Akbar]. In those days my father was continually hunting with leopards. That day happened to be Friday. My father then, with a view to making God inclined to preserve ms, made a vow never again, to the end of his life, to hunt on Fridays. I have followed the practice of my father, and have never hunted with leopards on a Friday." Tusuk-i Jahongiri, p. 240.

passes through a course of instruction, and gets tame. If the net 1 should break, or the deer get tired during the struggle, it will return to the keeper, who either puts a new net 1 on it, or sends out a fresh deer. 2

Sultan Fīrūz-i Khiljī used to indulge in this sport; but His Majesty

reduced this manner of hunting to a proper system.

Sometimes it happens that a wild deer will carry on the struggle from morning till evening, defeating as many as four tamed deer; but at last it will succumb to the fifth. Deer are nowadays rendered so perfectly obedient as to hunt at night; of their own accord they will return to their keepers, should the net break, or the wild deer run away; on hearing the call, they will discontinue a fight, come back, and then again engage, if ordered to do so.

In former times deer were never let loose at night time; for people were afraid, lest they should run away. Hence they attached a heavy ball to one of their feet, when the deer were let loose.

Many stories are related of the sagacity and faithfulness of trained deer.

Only lately a deer created much sensation. It had run away from Ilâhābād, and after bravely crossing rivers and plains, returned to

the Panjab, its home, and rejoined its former keeper.

In former times, two persons at most enjoyed together the pleasures of deer hunting. They would even, from fear of the timidity of the deer, alter the style of their dress, and lie concealed among shrubs. Nor would they employ other than wild deer; they caught them somehow, and taught them to hunt. His Majesty has introduced a new way, according to which more than two hundred may at the same time go deer hunting. They drive slowly about forty cattle towards a place where deer are; the hunters are thus concealed, and when arrived enjoy the chase.

There are nowadays also deer-studs; the deer born in captivity are

employed as hunting-deer.

The keepers will also bend forward and allow the trained deer to jump on them from behind. Wild deer, on seeing this, will think that they are in the act of copulation, and come near to fight. This way of hunting is disapproved of by His Majesty, who uses female deer as a means of making wild deer fight.

Once a deer caught a leopard, whose foot had got entangled in the net.¹ Both were brought together from Gujrāt, as mentioned above (?).

Ghantahera is the name given to the following mode of hunting. The

^{[*} Ddm, probably a noose of thick gut.—P.]

hunter takes a shield, or a basket, the concave side being turned from him. He then lights a lamp, which being put in the concavity of the shield, will conceal him, and commences to ring bells. Other hunters lie at the same time in wait. The light of the lamp, and the sound of the bells, will attract the animals towards the place, when they are shot by the hunters in ambush. The sound of musical instruments will so enchant deer that they are easily caught; or sometimes hunters will charm them with a song, and when the deer approach will rise up and cruelly slay them. From a long time His Majesty has disapproved of these two methods.

Thängi. The hunter manages to get opposite a wild deer; and bareheaded, from a distance, he commences to throw himself into odd attitudes. The deer then mistakes him for a mad man, and from curiosity will approach him. At this moment the hunters come from the ambush and kill it.

Baukāra. The hunters lie in ambush, against the scent, at a good distance from each other. Some others drive the deer towards them, each of the drivers swinging a white sheet above his head. The deer naturally will take fright, and run towards the hunters in ambush, who kill them.

Padāwan. Two good shots, dressed in green, place themselves as before, and have the deer driven towards themselves. This manner of hunting yields much amusement, as the deer get quite perplexed.

Ajūra. The hunters tie green twigs round their bodies from head to foot, and similarly conceal their bowe and arrows. They then move boldly to a place where deer generally pass, and enjoy the chase. Or they make ropes of deer skin, and attach them to trees, or let them hang down from poles all round about the place where wild deer sleep. They then lay down some nooses at a place situate against the wind. When the hunters show themselves from the side, the deer are compelled to run towards the spot where the nooses lie, and thus get caught. Sometimes the hunter will take his place behind a tree, and imitate the voice of deer. As soon as deer approach him, he kills them. Or, they tie a female deer to a place in a plain, or they let a trained deer go to the pasture place of wild deer. The latter will soon come near it, and get entangled with their feet.

Things. The hunter . . . * walks about bareheaded as if mad; his clothes are stained all over with pān juice, and the man himself acts as if he were wounded. Wild animals and others will soon gather round him, waiting for his death; but their greediness and desire lead them to destruction.

^{[1} Washgan. The convave side towards him ? -P.]

The text has der hand-yi sin, in the hollow of a saddle (?).

Buffalo Hunts.

At a place where buffaloes sleep, a rope is laid in the ground; but the end forming a loop is left outside. Another long rope is attached to it. To this they tie a female buffalo that wants the male. A courageous active man lies in ambush. As soon as a wild male buffalo comes to the spot, and covers the female, the hunter makes use of the opportunity. and fastens the foot of the male; but it frequently happens that the man loses courage, and has to pay for the attempt with his life.

Another mode of catching them is to go near the ponds which they frequent. They put snares round the ponds; and sitting on tame buffaloes the hunters go into the water with spears in their hands. Some buffaloes are then killed with spears, others are caught in the snares. A similar method may be adopted when buffaloes are attacked in their jungle pastures.

On Hunting with Hawks.

His Majesty is very fond of these remarkable animals, and often uses them for hunting purposes. Though he trains the baz, 1 shahin, 2 shungar, 3 and burket falcons, and makes them perform wonderful deeds, His Majesty prefers the bāsha,5 to which class of hawks he gives various names.

As I am compelled to hurry on, and must restrict myself to summary accounts, it is impossible to say much about this matter, or about the skill of the several birds, especially as I know little about it, being by nature averse to destroying life. I shall, however, give a few details, and lead inquirers to the retired spot of knowledge.

In the middle of spring the birds are inspected; after this they are allowed to moult, and are sent into the country. As soon as the time of moulting is over, they are again inspected. The commencement is made with the khāsa falcons (bāz) which are inspected in the order in which they have been bought. The precedence of jurras 1 is determined by the number of game killed by them. Then come the bāshas, the shāhīns, the khelas, the chappak? bashas, the bahris, the young bahris, the shikaras,

[* Belef is the remais poventian, and ".—P.] Baser is the female peregrine, and baser buckcha the tiercel or male, which is a third

^{[1} Baz, the female goshawk, the juria being the male.—P.] [* Shāhīn, fem., the male being the shāhīncha, is in India the Shahin Falcon, but in Persia the Persegrine is included in this term. Vide Journ. As. Soc. Beng., 1907.—P.]

^{[*} The Shangar was a Jer falcon, of which an occasional specimen found its way to India. It is doubtful whether it ever lived in India long enough to be trained. Vide Note in Journ. and Proc. As. Soc. Beng., vol. iii, No. 2, 1907 .- P.]

^{[4} Barkat, bargud, etc., was the Golden Eagle.—P.]

1 Basks is the female of the Common English Sparrow-hawk, the male being called backin .- P.]

[[] Khela, word not traceable; evidently the Hindi name of some hawk.—P.] Chappat is the Hindi name of the male of the Shikara or Indian Sparrow-hawk. The dictionaries make the former term masculine, and the latter feminine, but Akkar being a falconer knew better.—P.]

the chappak shikaras, the turnatis, the rekis, the besras, the dhotis, the charghs, the charghela,4 the lagars, and the jhagars,5 (which His Majesty calls the chappake kind of the lagar). The Molchins also are inspected the molchin is an animal resembling the sparrow, of yellowish plumage. like the shahin; it will kill a kulang a crane. People say that, whilst flying. it will break the wing of the kulang, and others maintain that it pierces its eyes; but this cannot be proved. Odhpapars 19 also are brought from Kashmir. This bird has a bluish (sabz) colour and is smaller than a parrot: its beak is red, straight, and long; 11 its tail is rather elongated. It brings down small birds, and returns to the hand of the keeper.

Many other birds can be trained for the chase, though I cannot specify all. Thus the crow, the sparrow, the bodna, 12 and the sarū 18 will learn to attack.

His Majesty, from motives of generosity and from a wish to add splendour to his Court, is fond of hunting with falcons, though superficial observers think that merely hunting is his object.

In this department many Mansandars, Ahadis, and other soldiers are employed. The footmen are mostly Kashmīrīs or Hindūstānīs. Their pay is as follows. First class of the former first grade, 71 R.; second, 7 R.; third, 6? R. Second class, first grade, 6? R.; second, 6? R.; third, 5 R. Third class, first grade, 5 R.; second, 5 R; third, 4 R. First class of the latter (Hindustani), first grade, 5 R · second, 4 R.; third, 41 R. Second class, first grade, 41 R.; second, 1 R; third, 31 R. Third class, first grade, 3 R.; second, 3 R.; third, 3 R.

Allowance of Food.

In Kashmir and in the aviaries 14 of Indian amateurs, the birds are generally fed once a day; but at Court they are fed twice. A buz falcon

^{[1} Turmati or vulg. turumti, is the Red-headed Merlin. - P.]

^{*} Regi, the common English Merlin .- P.] 1 The Besra Sparrow-hawk male and female, sexes transposed in the dictionaries .- P.1

^{4 (&#}x27;hargh or charkh in the female, and charghela the male of F. Sakar of Jerdon.-P.]

Lugar is the female, and jhagur the male of F. Jugger .. P.] 5 See n. 7, p. 314.

^{[*} Molchin, obviously the Falconet. Apparently it was occasionally trained to alight on a crane's head, the startled quarry being then gathered by hand.—P.]
[* Kulang, the common Crane (in the Panjab and j), the coolan of Anglo-Indian sports-

men.—P.]

[* Kulong ra az på anddzad, "brings down a crane."—P.]

16 The name of this bird is doubtful. It is not to be found among the names of Kashmiri

¹¹² Probably the Green Jay, Siese Sinensis, No. 673, of Jordan, vol. ii.—P.]
113 Bulas for bulane, the common Quail, which is used for fighting.—P.]

²⁰ Sare, the common Mains.—P.] [14 Quel-khana, mews for hawks.-P.]

gets a quantity of meat weighing 7 dāms; the jurra, 6 d.; the baḥrī, lāchīn, 1 and khela, 5 d.; the bāsha, 3 d.; the chappak bāsha, shikara, chappak shikara, besra, dhotī, etc., 2 d. Towards the close of every day, they are fed on sparrows, of which the bāz, jurra, and baḥrī, get each seven; the lāchīn, five; the bāsha, three; others, two. Charghs and lagars get at the same time meat. Shunqārs, shāhbāzes, burkats, get one ser. On the hunting grounds they feed them on the game they take.

Prices of Falcons.

From eagerness to purchase, and from inexperience, people pay high sums for falcons. His Majesty allows dealers every reasonable profit; but from motives of equity, he has limited the prices. The dealers are to get their gain, but buyers ought not to be cheated. In purchasing falcons people should see to which of the following three classes birds belong. First, khāna-kurīz birds; they have moulted whilst in charge of experienced trainers, and have got new feathers. Second, chūz birds; they have not yet moulted. Third, Tarīnāk birds; they have moulted before they were captured. First class, a superior bāz costs 12 muhrs; second grade do., 9 M.; third do., 6 M. Second class, first, 10 M.; second, 7 M.; third, 4 M. A third class bāz is somewhat cheaper than second class ones.

Jurras. First class, 8, 5, 2, 1 M. Second class, 6, 4, 11, 1 M., 5 R.

Bāshus. First class, 3, 2, 1 M., 4 R. Second class, 2, 1 M., 5 R.

Shāhīns of both kinds, 3, 2, 1 M.

Baḥrīs, 2, 11. 1 M. Young Baḥrīs 2 a little less.

Khelas, 11, 1, 1 M.

Charals, $2\frac{1}{2}R$., 2, $1\frac{1}{2}R$.

Chappak bāshas, 1 R.; 1, 1 R.

Shikaras, 11 R., 1, 1 R.

Besras, 2 R., 11, 1 R.

Chappuk shikarahs, lagars, jhagars, turmatīs, rekīs, 1 R., ½, ‡ R. Their prices are not classified.

His Majesty rewards the Mīr Shikārs (superintendents 3 of the chase) according to their ranks, with suitable presents. There are also fixed donations for each game brought in, varying from 1 M. to 1 d. If the falcons bring down the game alive or dead, attention is paid to the skill which it exhibited and to the size of the quarry. The man who keeps the falcon gets one-half of the allowance. If His Majesty hunts himself, fifty

Lachia is the Turki-name of the Shahin .- P.]

^{[*} Bahri backcha, peregvine tiercel.-P.]
[* Mir shibir is a term applied to any bird-catcher, assistant falconer, etc.—P.]

per cent. of the donation is stopped. If birds are received by the Imperial aviary as peshkash (tribute), the Qushbegī (Superintendent of the Aviary) gets for every $b\bar{a}z$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ R., and the accountant $\frac{1}{2}$ R. For jurras, the Qushbegī gets 1 R.; the accountant, $\frac{1}{4}$ R.; for $b\bar{a}shas$, the former receives $\frac{1}{4}$ R.; the latter, $\frac{1}{8}$ R.; for every $l\bar{a}ch\bar{n}n$, chargh, charghela, chargh, $bahr\bar{i}$ -bachcha, the former gets $\frac{1}{8}$ R., the latter $\frac{1}{10}$ R.; for every chhappak, $b\bar{a}sha$, $dhot\bar{i}$, etc., the former receives $\frac{1}{10}$, the other $\frac{1}{30}$ R. ($s\bar{u}k\bar{i}$).

The minimum number of baz and shahīn falcons, kept at Court, is forty; of jurras, thirty; of bashas, one hundred; of bahrīs, charghs,

twenty; of lagars, and shikaras, ten.

Waterford.

Hunting waterfowl affords much amusement. A rather curious way of catching them is the following. They make an artificial bird of the skin of a waterfowl with the wings, the beak, and the tail on it. Two holes are made in the skin for looking through. The body is hollow. The hunter puts his head into it, and stands in the water up to his neck. He then gets carefully near the birds, and pulls them one after the other below the water. But sometimes they are cunning and fly away.

In Kashmir they teach baz falcons to seize the birds whilst swimming about, and to return with them to the boat of the hunter. Or the hawk will keep a waterfowl down, and sit on it [till the man in the boat comes].

Another method is to let water buffaloes go into the water, between which the hunter conceals himself, and thus catches the birds.

Durrāj² catching. There are various methods. Some get a young one and train it till it obeys every call. It will fight with other birds. They put it into a cage, and place hair-nets² round about it. At the signal of the fowler, the bird commences to sing,⁴ when wild ones come near it either from friendship or a desire to fight, and get entangled in the snares.

Bodnas.⁵ The hunter makes a claypot with a narrow neck and, at night time, blows into it, which produces a noise like an owl's cry. The bodnas, frightened by the noise, come together. Another man then lights a bundle of straw, and swings it about, so that the eyes of the birds get dazzled. The fowlers thereupon seize the birds, and put them into cages.

Lagars. They resemble charghs; in body they are as large jurras. They hang nets 3 (about the body of a trained lagar) and put birds'

^{[1} Mews.—P.]
[2 The durrely is the francolin or black partridge. Abu 'l-Faşl was evidently not a sportsman and probably meant the red-legged partridge, the chaker of India and the hubb of Persia.—P.]

^{[4} Hair nooses.—P.] [4 I.e. utter its challenging call.—P.]
[5 Badins in Persia is the Common Quail.—P.]

feathers into its claws. It is then allowed to fly up. The birds think that it has got hold of prey, and when they get entangled in the nets,1 they commence to fight, and fall to the ground.

Ghaughā,ī. They fasten together on a cross-stick an owl and a ahaughā,ī, and hang hair nets 1 round about them. The owl will soon get restless; the birds think that the owl wishes to fight, and commence to cry out. Other qhaughā,īs and owls will come to their assistance; and get entangled in the nets.1

Frogs.

Frogs also may be trained to catch sparrows. This looks very funny. His Majesty, from curiosity, likes to see spiders fight and amuses himself in watching the attempts of the flies to escape, their jumps, and combats with their enemy.

I am in the power of love; and if I have thousands of wishes, it is no crime :

And if my passionate heart has an (unlawful) desire, it is no crime.

And in truth, His Majesty's fondness for leopards is an example of the power of love,4 and an instance of his wonderful insight.

It would take me too long to give more details. It is impossible to enumerate all particulars; hence it is better to go to another subject.

A*7n 29.

ON AMUSEMENTS.

His Majesty devises means of amusement, and makes his pleasures a means of testing the character of men.

There are several kinds of amusements, of which I shall give a few detaile.

¹¹ fram, a noose. The nooses are attached to the claws. A hawk so prepared is called in the Panjah, a bārak (uṣanā). For Plate and description, vide Journ. As. Soc. Beng., vol. iii, 1907.—P.]

[[] Ghaughā, i is probably the Large Grey Babbler or sit bhā, ī, 433 of Jerdon .--- P.]

^[3] Ba-shiku-i Sunkabüt dil nihad means "catch their prey".—P.;

4 The Historian may thank Abū 'l-Fazi for having preserved this little trait of Akbar's character. In several places of the Å*in, Abū 'l-Fazi tries hard to ascribe to His Majesty higher motives in order to bring the emperor's passion for hurting in harmony with historian the spiritual guide of the nation. But as "higher motives " were insufficient. to explain the fancy which Akbar took in frog and spider tights, Abū 'l-Fazl has to recognize the fact that peculiar leanings will lead even a sensible man to oddities and to actions opposed to the general tenor of his character.

The game of Chaugan (hockey).1

Superficial observers look upon this game as a mere amusement, and consider it mere play; but men of more exalted views see in it a means of learning promptitude and decision. It tests the value of a man, and strengthens bonds of friendship. Strong men learn in playing this game the art of riding; and the animals learn to perform feats of agility and to obey the reins. Hence His Majesty is very fond of this game. Externally, the game adds to the splendour of the Court; but viewed from a higher point, it reveals concealed talents.

When His Majesty goes to the maydan (open field) in order to play this game, he selects an opponent and some active and clever players, who are only filled with one thought, namely, to show their skill against the opponent of His Majesty. From motives of kindness, His Majesty never orders any one to be a player; but chooses the pairs by the cast of the die. There are not more than ten players: but many more keep themselves in readiness. When one ghari (20 minutes) has passed, two players take rest, and two others supply their place.

The game itself is played in two ways. The first way is to get hold of the ball with the crooked end of the chaugan stick, and to move it slowly from the middle to the hall.2 This manner is called in Hindi rol. The other way consists in taking deliberate aim, and forcibly hitting the ball with the chaugan stick out of the middle; the player then gallops after it, quicker than the others, and throws the ball back. This mode is called bela, and may be performed in various ways. The player may either strike the ball with the stick in his right hand, and send it to the right forwards or backwards; or he may do so with his left hand; or he may send the ball in front of the horse to the right or to the left. The ball may be thrown in the same direction from behind the feet of the horse or from below its body: or the rider may spit 3 it when the ball is in front of the horse; or he may lift himself upon the back leather 3 of the horse, and propel the ball from between the feet of the animal.

His Majesty is unrivalled for the skill which he shows in the various

There is scarcely a Muhammadan Historian that does not allude to this game. Bibar savs it is played all over Thibet. In the East of India the people of Muniques (Assam) are looked upon as clever hockey players. Vide Vigni's Travels in Cashnur.

Sayyid SAbda 'llah Khān, son of Mīr Khwānda, was Akbar's changānbegi, or Superintendent of the game of changān; vids Bad. II, p. 368. In the beginning of Akbar's reign, after 970, Gharīwalī, which lies a farming from Agra, was the favourite spot for changān playing. Bad. II, p. 70. [Changān, polo.—P.]

The pillars which mark the end of the playground.

^{[*} Meaning not clear, -- P.]

ways of hitting the ball; he often manages to strike the ball while in the air, and astonishes all. When a ball is driven to the hāl, they beat the naqqāra, so that all that are far and near may hear it. In order to increase the excitement, betting is allowed. The players win from each other, and he who brought the ball to the hāl wins most. If a ball be caught in the air, and passes, or is made to pass, beyond the limit (mīl), the game is looked upon as burd (drawn). At such times the players will engage in a regular fight about the ball, and perform admirable feats of skill.

His Majesty also plays at chaugān in dark nights, which caused much astonishment even among clever players. The balls which are used at night, are set on fire. For this purpose, palās wood is used, which is very light, and burns for a long time. For the sake of adding splendour to the games, which is necessary in worldly matters, His Majesty has knobs of gold and silver fixed to the tops of the chaugān sticks. If one of them breaks, any player that gets hold of the pieces may keep them.

It is impossible to describe the excellency of this game. Ignorant as I am, I can say but little about it.

His Majesty calls pigeon-flying Sishqbāzī (love-play). This occupation affords the ordinary run of people a dull kind of amusement; but His Majesty, in his wisdom, makes it a study. He even uses the occupation as a way of reducing unsettled, worldly-minded men to obedience, and avails himself of it as a means productive of harmony and friendship. The amusement which His Majesty derives from the tumbling and flying of the pigeons reminds one of the ecstasy and transport of enthusiastic dervishes; he praises God for the wonders of creation. It is therefore from higher motives that he pays so much attention to this amusement.

The pigeons of the present age have reached a high state of perfection. Presents of pigeons are sent by the kings of Īrān and Tūrān; but merchants also bring very excellent ones in large numbers.

When His Majesty was very young, he was fond of this amusement; but afterwards, when he grew older and wiser, he discontinued pigeonflying altogether. But since then, on mature consideration, he has again taken it up.

A well-trained pigeon of bluish colour, formerly belonging to the Khān-i

^{1 &}quot;In the beginning of 974 (July, 1566), the emperor returned (from Jaunpur) to Agra, and passed his time in amusements. He went to Nagarchia, a new town which he had built near Agra, and enjoyed the chaugen game, dog-hunting, and pigeon-flying. He also invented a fire hall with which he could play at chaugen during dark nights." Bad, II, p. 48.
The town of Nagarchia was subsequently deserted.

Acam Kokaltāsh ('Azīz, Akbar's foster-brother), fell into His Majesty's hands. From the care which was bestowed upon it by His Majesty, it has since become the chief of the imperial pigeons, and is known under the name of Mohana. From it descended several excellent pigeons as Ashkī (the weeper), Parīzād (the fairy), Almās (the diamond), and Shāh 'sūdī (Aloe Royal). Among their progeny again there are the choicest pigeons in the whole world, which have brought the trained pigeons of 'Umar Shaykh Mīrzā (father of Bābar), Sultān Ḥusayn Mīrzā (vide p. 107, note 6) into oblivion. Such improvement, in fact, has been made in the art of training, as to astonish the amateurs of Īrān and Tūrān, who had to learn the art from the beginning.

In former times pigeons of all kinds were allowed to couple; but His Majesty thinks equality in gracefulness and performance a necessary condition in coupling, and has thus bred choice pigeons. The custom is to keep a male and a female pigeon, if not acquainted with each other, for five or six days together, when they become so familiar that, even after a long separation, they will again recognize each other. The hen generally lays her eggs from eight to twelve days after coupling, or more if she be small or sickly. Pigeons couple in Mihrmah (September-October), and separate in Farwardin (February-March). A hen lays two eggs, but sometimes only one. The cock will sit upon the eggs by daytime, and the hen during the night, and thus they keep them warm and soft. In winter they hatch for twenty-one days; but if the air be warm, they only take seventeen or eighteen. For about six days, the pigeons feed their young ones with falah, which means grain reduced to pap in the crops of the old ones. Afterwards they feed them from the grain in their crops, which they bring up before it is fully digested. This they continue for about a month, and as soon as they see that the young ones can pick up their own grain, the old ones will go away. Eggs, or even young ones, are sometimes given to other pigeons to take care of. Home bred young ones are trained. Some are kept in a tor (?) till they get stronger, and get acquainted with the place. As soon as these two things have been attained, the pigeons only get one-third or one-fourth of their daily allowance of food. When they have got a little accustomed to hunger, they are gradually allowed to take flights. They take daily about forty hawas (air), i.e., forty flights. At this period the trainers pay no regard to what is called charkh and basi (vide below). Of feathers, they count ten, and if eight of them have fallen out, the keepers no longer allow the pigeons to fly, but keep them at rest (khwābānīdan). After two months, the pigeons get new feathers, and become very strong. They are then again let off. This is the best time

for showing their skill. As soon as the pigeons learn to perform the bazz and the charkh, they are sent to His Majesty for inspection, and are kept for four months in readiness, to exhibit their skill. Charkh is a lusty movement ending with the pigeon throwing itself over in a full circle. If this circular turn be not completely carried out, the movement is called kitf (shoulder), and is held in no esteem. Bazī is the same as musallag zadan (lying on the back with the feet upwards, and quickly turning round, in Hind. kaļā). Some thought that the two wings (kitf) meet, which appears to the observer as if it were a mucallaq; but His Majesty had one wing of a pigeon blackened, when the erroneousness of that opinion became evident. Some pigeons get confused during the bazī and charkh, and come stupefied to the ground. This is called gulula, and is disliked. Sometimes pigeons hurt themselves and fall down; but often they get all right again when they come near the ground; and taking courage and collecting their strength they fly up again. A pigeon of the khāşa pigeon cots will perform fifteen charkhs and seventy bazīs, a feat which will certainly astonish the spectators. In former times, they let eleven or twenty-one pigeons fly at a time; but nowadays they let off as many as one hundred and one. From the attention which His Majesty has bestowed upon pigeons, they are now so carefully trained as to be let fly at night, even to great heights.

At the time of departure and the breaking of the camp, the pigeons will follow, the cots being carried by bearers (kahār). Sometimes they will alight and take rest for a while, and then rise again.

It would be difficult to count the pigeons at Court; but there are more than twenty thousand. Five hundred of them are <u>khāşa</u>. They have a great reputation, and remarkable stories are told of their skill.

Pigeon trainers of former times, in order to determine the value of a pigeon, used to twist the foot, or looked to the slit of the eyes, or the openings on the top of the bill; but they failed to discover more signs of the value of a breed. His Majesty has discovered many more; and the fixing the value of a pigeon, in former times a matter of great difficulty, has now become very easy. First. His Majesty subdivided the three marks of former trainers as follows: the two eyes, and their upper and lower signs; the eight claws; the two sides of the beak, above and below. The mutual comparison of these signs has led to many additional means of fixing the value of a pigeon. Secondly. His Majesty looks to the variety and the colour of the annular protuberances on the feet of pigeons. A book

i Bu-tafun-i pa. Can this mean the angle made by the feet ?-P.]

^{*} Du cheshm bâlā u pāsin.—P.]

has been made in which the systematic order of these signs has been laid down. According to them, His Majesty distinguishes ten classes, for each of which separate aviaries have been constructed. The price of pigeons in the first house has not been limited. Many a poor man anxious to make his way has found in the training of superior pigeons a means of getting rich. A pair of second class pigeons has a value of 3R.; third class, $2\frac{1}{2}R$.; fourth class, 2R.; fifth class, $1\frac{1}{2}R$.; sixth class, 1R.; seventh class, $\frac{3}{2}R$.; eighth class, $\frac{1}{2}R$.; ninth and tenth classes. $\frac{3}{2}R$.

When inspections are held, the stock of Mohana first pass in review; then the young ones of $Ashk\bar{\imath}$. Though the latter belong to the former, they are now separately counted. Then come the four zirih $\bar{\imath}$ pigeons; they are the stock of a pigeon which belonged to Hāji 'Alī, of Samarqand, which coupled with an ' $Ud\bar{\imath}$ hen, of which I do not know the owner; their stock has become famous. The precedence of all other pigeons is determined by their age or the time they were bought.

The Colours of Khāşa Pigeons.

Magasi (flea-bitten); zirihi (steelblue); amīrī (?); zamīrī (a colour between sirihi and amiri; His Majesty invented this name); chini (porcelain blue); nofti (grey like naptha); shafaqi (violet); fūdī (aloewood coloured); surmai (dark grey, like powder of antimony); kishmishi 1 (dark brown, like currents1); halwā*ī (light-brown, like halwā sweetmest); eandali (light-brown, like sandalwood); jiqari (brown); nabāli (grevish white); duahi (bluish-white, like sour milk); wushki (of the same colour as the gum called wushk); jīlānī (chīlānī?); kūra*ī (brown, like a new earthen pot?); nīlūfarī (bluish-white); azraq (a colour between yellow and brown; His Majesty applies this name in this sense); ātashī (black brown); shaftālū (peach coloured); gul-i gaz coloured (?), yellow; kāghazī (yellowish, like native paper); zāgh (grey like a crow); agrī (a colour between white and brown); muharragī (a dirty black); khizrī (a colour between greenish and 'udi'); abi (water coloured); surmag (a name invented by His Majesty to express a colour between surma, and magasi).

Pigeons of these colours have often different names, as gulsar (whose head resembles a flower); dumghāza (stumptail); yakrang (of one colour); halqūm-safīd (white throat); parsafīd (white wing); kalla (big head); ghazghāzh (wild chick); māgh² (name of an aquatic bird); bābarī (?); alper (red wing?); kalla par (short wing); māhdum⁴ (moontail);

^{[*} Kishmish, Sultana raisina.—P.]
[* Magh, a cormorant ?--P.]

^{[*} Abi, blue.—P.]
[* Mahdum, with white on the tail.—P.]

tawqdar (ring-bearer); marwarid-sar (pearl head); mash ala-dum (torchtail); etc.

Some trainers of the present age gave pigeons such names as indicate their colours. His Majesty rather calls them according to their qualities, as bughur (?), qarapilk (with black eyelids); abyārī; palangnīgārī; rekhta pilk.

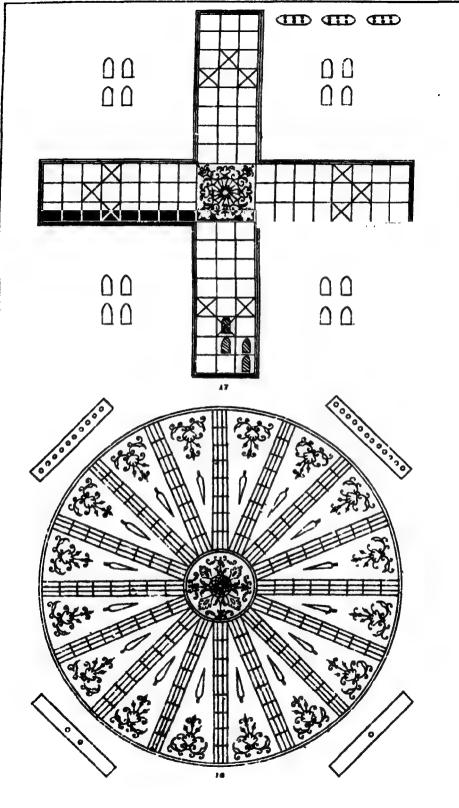
There are also many pigeons which do not perform charkhs and bazis. but are distinguished by their colours, or by peculiar tricks. Thus the Kokah 1 pigeon, the voice of which sounds like the call to prayer. 2. The Bagha, which utters a peculiar voice in the morning to wake up people. 3. The Luggan,2 which struts about proudly, wagging its head, neck, and tail. 4. The Lotan. They turn it about, and let it off on the ground, when it will go through all the motions which a half-killed fowl goes through. Some pigeons will do so when the keeper strikes his hand against the ground, and others will show the same restlessness when on leaving the cage their beak is made to touch the ground. 5. The Kherni. The cock shows a remarkable attachment to the hen. Though he fly up so high as to be no longer visible, if the hen be exposed in a cage, he will get restless and drop down instantly to join her. This is very remarkable. Some of them come down with both wings spread, others close one; some close both; or they change alternately the wing which they close in flying. 6. The Rath pigeon is chiefly used for carrying letters, though any other kind may be trained to bring letters even from great distances. 7. The Nishāwarī pigeon will fly up, and follow its cage to whatever place it be taken. It will fly out of sight, and stay away for a day or two, when it comes down and remains in its cage. 8. The parpa (having feet covered with feathers) will inhale air (?) and act as if it sighed.

Some pigeons are merely kept for the beauty of their plumage, the colours of which receive peculiar names. Thus some are called shīrāzī, shūstarī, kāshānī, jogiya, reza-dahan, magasī, and qumrī. Wild pigeons are called gola. If some of them are caught, they will be joined by a thousand others; they soon get domesticated. They return daily to the fields, and get on their return salt water to drink. This makes them vomit the grain which they had eaten on the fields. The grain is collected and given as food to other pigeons.

People say that pigeons will but rarely live above thirty years.

^{[1} Can this be for kekla, a species of green pigeon which has a call like the human voice, wide Jerdon No. 778.—P.]

^{[*} Laga, laga, etc., the fantail pigeon.—P.]
[* Loyan, the ground-tumbler.—P.]
[* Quart, a white dove.—P.]



Four sers of grain will be sufficient for one hundred of such pigeons as are made to fly; but for other pigeons five sers are required; or seven and a half if they pair. But flying pigeons get millet, not mixed with other grain; the others get a mixture of the seven kinds of grain, viz., rice, dāl 1-i nukhūd (gram), mūng dāl 1 (millet), karar, lahdara, juwār (vide p. 66). Though most servants of His Majesty keep pigeons and show much skill in training them, there are a few that have risen to eminence, as Qul Alī of Bukhārā, Mastī of Samarqand, Mullāzāda, Pūr-i Mullā Aḥmad Chand, Muqbil Khān Chela, Khwāja Ṣandal Chela, Mūmin of Harāt, Abdu 1-Latīf of Bukhārā, Ḥājī Qāsim of Balkh, Ḥabīb of Shahrsabz, Sikandar Chela, Māltū, Maqṣūd of Samarqand, Khwāja Phūl, Chela Hīrānand.

The servants attached to the pigeon houses draw their pay on the list of the army. The pay of a foot soldier varies from 2 R. to 48 R. per mensem.

The game of Chaupar.

From times of old, the people of Hindustan have been fond of this game. It is played with sixteen pieces of the same shape; but every four of them must have the same colour. The pieces all move in the same direction. The players use three dice. Four of the six sides of each dice are greater than the remaining two, the four long sides being marked with one, two, five, and six dots respectively. The players draw two sets of two parallel lines, of which one set bisects the other at right angles. These parallel lines are of equal length. The small square which is formed by the intersection of the two sets in the centre of the figure is left as it is; but the four rectangles adjoining the sides of the square are each divided into twenty-four equal spaces in three rows, each of eight equal spaces, as shown in Pl. XVII, Fig. 17. The game is generally played by four players, of whom two play against the other two. Each player has four pieces. of which he puts two in the sixth and seventh spaces of the middle row of the parallellogram before him, and the other two in the seventh and eighth spaces of the right row. The left row remains empty. Each player moves his pieces, according to his throw, in the outer row, always keeping to the right, till he arrives at the outer left row of the parallelogram, from which he started: and from there he moves to the middle row. When arrived at the latter place, he is pukkta (ripe), and from here, he must throw for each of his pieces the exact number which will carry them to the empty square in the centre of the figure. He is now rasida, or arrived.

When a player is pukhta or rasida, he may commence to play from

the beginning, which leads to amusing combinations. As long as a player keeps two of his pieces together, the adversary cannot throw them out. If a player throws a double six, he can move two pieces over twelve spaces, provided the two pieces stand together on one field; but he is allowed to move them only six fields onwards should he prefer doing so. A similar rule holds for double fives, etc. A throw consisting of a six, a five, and a one, is called khām (raw); and in this case, two pieces, provided they are together on the same field, may each be moved six fields forwards, and every single piece twelve fields. If a player throws three sixes, and three of his four pieces happen to stand on one field, he may move each of them over twelve fields. A similar rule holds, if a player throw three twos, or three ones. There are many other rules for particular cases. If a player has brought his four pieces into the central square, he throws, when his turn comes, for his companion, to get him out too. Formerly the custom was that when a piece had come to the last row, and . . . 1 His Majesty thinks it proper to do so from the very eighth field. If the throws of two players are the same as the throw of the preceding players, His Majesty counts them as quyim, or standing. Formerly he did not allow such equal throws. If the four pieces of an opponent are pukhia, and he yet lose his bet, the other players are entitled to double the amount of the bet. Should any of the players leave the game for some reason he may appoint anyone to play for him; but he will have to be responsible for the betting of his substitute. Of all winnings, the substitute is entitled to two per cent; if a player loses a bet, his substitute has to pay one per cent. If a player drops one of his pieces, or any of the players be late or inattentive, he is fined one rupee. But a fine of a muhur is exacted if any one prompts the other, or moves his pieces over too many fields, or tries to get two throws.

Formerly many grandees took part in this game; there were often as many as two hundred players, and no one was allowed to go home before he had finished sixteen games, which in some cases lasted three months. If any of them lost his patience and got restless, he had to drink a cup of wine.

Superficially considered, all this is mere play; but His Majesty has higher aims; he weighs the talents of a man, and teaches kindness.

The game of Chandal Mandal.

This game was invented by His Majesty. The figure, or board, which is required, consists of sixteen parallelograms, arranged in a circular form

¹ The MSS. have az khānayi hashtum pāyān shavad, hangām-i khān shudan amuda. gardad, which words are not clear to me.

round a centre. Each parallelogram is divided into twenty-four fields, every eight of which form a row; vide Pl. XVII, Fig. 18. The number of pieces is sixty-four, and four dice are used, of which the four longer sides are marked with one, two, ten, and twelve points respectively. The number of players is sixteen. Each gets four pieces, which are placed in the middle. As in Chaupar, the pieces are moved to the right, and pass through the whole circle. The player who is out first, is entitled to receive the stipulated amount from the other fifteen players; the second that is out, from fourteen players, and so on. The first player, therefore, wins most, and the last loses most; the other players both lose and win. His Majesty plays this game in several ways; one way in which the pieces are moved as if the fields were squares of a chess board, is very often played. I shall give a few particulars and directions how to play the different kinds of this game.

First kind, no piece can throw out another piece, but moves on by itself. Second way, single pieces may be thrown out. Each player whose piece has thus been thrown out, commences again from his starting point. Third way, at each throw two pieces are moved at a time, either with or without the permission of throwing out pieces. Fourth way, the preceding rule is applied to three or four pieces at a time. Fifth way, the dice are thrown four times, and four pieces are moved at each throw. These different ways may, moreover, be varied by some players playing to the right, others to the left, or all in the same direction. Sixth way, a player is out when he comes to the place from which the player opposite to him commenced to play, moving from the middle row of his opponent into the empty space in the centre of the board. Or the game ends when each player arrives at the place from which his left hand neighbour commenced to play. Seventh way, each player puts his pieces before himself, and has three throws. At the first throw, he moves two of his pieces; at the second, one of his own pieces and one belonging to his right hand neighbour; at the third throw, he moves any piece of his own, and allows his left hand neighbour to move one of his pieces. In this way of playing, no player throws out the pieces of his neighbours; and when the game is in full swing, he allows each piece which happens to come into the row in which he is, to move according to his own throw, as a sort of compliment to a guest. Eighth way, two pieces when together may throw out another set of two pieces; but single pieces do not throw out each other. Ninth way, four pieces together may throw out three together; three together, sets of two; and two together, single ones; but single pieces do not throw out each other. Tenth way, each player moves his pieces according to the number of points which he throws,

but at the same time, the player who sits opposite to him moves his pieces according to the number of points on the reverse side of the dice, whilst the two players to the right and left of the player who threw the dice, move their pieces according to the number of points to the right and left sides of the dice. Eleventh way, the players use five dice and four pieces. Each player, in his turn, throws the five dice, and moves his pieces according to the sum of the two highest points of his throw. The next highest point is taken by his vis-d-vis, and the two lowest points by his right and left hand neighbours. Twelfth way, the players have each five dice and five pieces. At every throw, he gives the points of one die to his right hand neighbour, and uses the others for himself. Sometimes the thrower mentions beforehand the names of four players to whom he wishes to give the points of four dice, he himself taking the points of the fifth die. And when a player requires only a few points, to get pukhta, he must give the remaining points to those near whom the dice fall.

The game may also be played by fifteen or less players, the figure being lessened accordingly. So also may the number of the dice be increased or decreased.

Cards.

This is a well-known game. His Majesty has made some alterations in the cards. Ancient sages took the number twelve as the basis, and made the suit to consist of twelve cards; but they forgot that the twelve kings should be of twelve different kinds. His Majesty plays with the following suits of cards. 1st, Ashwapati, the lord of horses. The highest card represents a king on horseback, resembling the king of Dihli, with the umbrella (chatr), the standard (calam), and other imperial ensigns. The second highest card of the same suit represents a vazīr on horseback; and after this card come ten others of the same suit with pictures of horses, from one to ten. 2nd, Gajpati, the king whose power lies in the number of his elephants, as the ruler of Orisah. The other eleven cards represent, as before, the vazir, and elephants from ten to one. 3rd, Narpati, a king whose power lies in his infantry, as is the case with the rulers of Bijapur. The card represents a king sitting on his throne in imperial splendour; the vazīr sits on a footstool (sandalī), and the ten cards completing this suit have foot soldiers, from one to ten. 4th, Gadhpati. The card shows a man sitting on a throne over a fort; the vazir sits on a sandali over a fort; and the remaining ten cards have forts from one to ten, as before. 5th, Dhanpati, the lord of treasures. The first card of this suit shows a

man, sitting on a throne, and gold and silver heaps; the vazīr sits upon a sandali, as if he took account of the Treasury, and the remaining cards show jars full of gold and silver, from one to ten. 6th, Dalpati, the hero of battle. The first card of this suit shows a king in armour, sitting on his throne and surrounded by warriors on coats of mail. The vazīr sits on a sandali and wears a jayon (breast armour); the ten other cards show individuals clad in armour. 7th, Nawapati, the lord of the fleet. The card shows a man sitting on a throne in a ship; the vazir sits, as usual, on a sandali, and the other ten cards have boats from one to ten. 8th, Tipati, a queen sitting on the throne, surrounded by her maids. The second card shows a woman as vazir on a sandali, and the other ten cards have pictures of women, from one to ten. 9th, Surapati, the king of the divinities (decta) also called Indar, on a throne. The vazīr sits on a şandalī, and the ten other cards have pictures of divinities from one to ten. 10th, Asrpati, the lord of genii (deo). The card represents Sulayman, son of Da*ad, on the throne. The vazir sits on a sandali, and the other ten cards have genii. 11th, Banpati, the king of wild beasts. The card represents a tiger (sher) with some other animals. The vazir is drawn in the shape of a leopard (palang) and the other ten cards are pictures of wild beasts, as usual from one to ten. 12th, Ahipati, the king of snakes. The first card shows a serpent mounted on a dragon, whilst the vazir is a serpent riding on another serpent of the same kind. The remaining ten cards show serpents, from one to ten.

The first six of these twelve suits are called bishbur (powerful), and the six last, kambur (weak).

His Majesty has also made some suitable alterations in the cards. Thus the Dhanpati, or lord of treasures, is represented as a man distributing money. The vazīr sits on a şandalī, and inspects the Treasury; but the ten other cards of this suit are representations of the ten classes of workmen employed in the Treasury, viz., the jeweller, the melter, the piece-cutter (mutallas-sāz), the weighman, the coiner, the muhr counter, the bitilchī (writer) of dhan pieces (vide p. 31, No. 17), the bitilchī of man pieces (vide p. 31, No. 20), the dealer, the quasqua (vide p. 24, No. 15). His Majesty had also the king of assignments painted on the cards, who inspects farmāns, grants, and the leaves of the daftar (vide p. 270); the vasīr site on a sandalī with the daftar before him; the other cards show officers employed in the Financial Department, as the paper maker, the mister maker (vide p. 55, note 1), the clark who makes the entries in the daftar, the illuminator (museuseir), the nagqāsh (who ornaments the pages), the jadwal-kash (who draws blue and gold lines on the pages), the farmān

writer, the mujallid (bookbinder), the rangrez 1 (who stains the paper with different colours). The Padishah-i gimash also, or king of manufacturers is painted in great state, looking at different things, as Thibetan yaks silk, silken stuffs. The vazir sits near him on a sundall, inquiring into former proceedings. The other ten cards represent beasts of burden, Again, the Padishah-i Chang, or lord of the lyre, is painted sitting on a throne, and listening to music; the vazir sits before him, inquiring into the circumstances of the performers, of whom pictures are given on the remaining cards. Next, the Pādishāh-i zar i safīd, or king of silver, who is painted distributing rupees and other silver coins; the vasir sits on a sandali, and makes inquiries regarding donations. On the other cards, the workmen of the silver mint are depicted, as before those of the gold mint. Then comes the Pādishāh-i Shamsher, or king of the sword, who is painted trying the steel of a sword. The vazir sits upon a sandall, and inspects the arsenal; the other cards contain pictures of armourers, polishers, etc. After him comes the Pādishāh-i Tāj,\$ or king of the diadem. He confers royal insignia, and the sandals upon which the vasif sits, is the last of the insignia. The ten other cards contain pictures of workmen, as tailors, quilters, etc. Lastly, the Padishah-i Ghulaman, or king of the slaves, sits on an elephant, and the vazir on a cart. The other cards are representations of servants, some of whom sit, some lie on the ground in worship, some are drunk, others sober, etc.

Besides these ordinary games of cards, His Majesty also plays chess, four-handed and two-handed. His chief object is to test the value of men,

and to establish harmony and good fellow-feeling at Court.

Å*in 30.

THE GRANDRES OF THE EMPIRE.

At first I intended, in speaking of the Grandees of the Court, to record the deeds which raised them to their exalted positions, to describe their

² Taj is often translated by a crown; but taj is a cap worn by oriental kings instead of the crown of occidental kings. Hence the word dialem does not express the meaning of taj either. [It apparently is also used of a crown as well as the cap worn by dervishes.—P.]

This is the Hindustani corruption of the Persian rangeraz. [Rangeriz is the common word in modern Persian.—P.]

this either. [It apparently is also used of a cross as well as the cap worn by dervishes.—P.]

** From the fact that Abit 'l-Faşl mentions in his list of Grandees Prince Khusraw, (wide No. 4) who was been in 995, but not Prince Parwis, who was born in 997, we might conclude that the table was compiled prior to 997. But from my note to p. 256, it would appear that the beginning of the list refers to a time prior to 993, and Abit 'l-Faşl may have afterward added Khusraw's name, though it is difficult to say why he did not add the names of Parwis and Shāhjahāu, both of whom were born before the Abin was completed.

Again, Mirzā Shāhrukh (No. 7) and Mirzā Muzaffar Hussyn (No. 8) are mentioned as

qualities, and to say something of their experience. But I am unwilling to bestow mere praise; in fact, it does not become the encomiast of His Majesty to praise others, and I should act against my sense of truthfulness, were I but to mention that which is praiseworthy, and to pass in silence over that which cannot be approved of. I shall therefore merely record, in form of a table, their names and the titles which have been conferred upon them.

- I. Commanders of Ten Thousand.
- 1. Shāhzāda Sultān Salīm, eldest son of His Majesty.
 - II. Commanders of Eight Thousand.
- 2. Shahzada Sultan Murad, second son of His Majesty.
 - III. Commanders of Seven Thousand.
- 3. Shahzada Sultan Danyal, third son of His Majesty.

Akhar had five sons :-

- 1. Hasan (twins, born 3rd Rabī' I, 972. They only lived one month.)
- 3. Sultān Salīm [Jāhangīr].
- 4. Sultan Murad.
- 5. Sultān Dānyāl.

Of daughters, I find three mentioned—(a) Shāhzāda Khānum, born three months after Salīm, in 977. (b) Shukr^a 'n Nisā Begum, who in 1001 was married to Mīrzā Shāhrukh (No. 7, below, p. 326); and (c) Ārām Bānū Begum; both born after Sultān Dānyāl. Regarding the death of the last Begum, vide Tuzuk, p. 386.

Of Akbar's wives the following are mentioned 1.—1. Sultān Ruqayyah Begum (a daughter of Mīrzā Hindāl), who died 84 years old, 7th Jumāda I, 1035 (Turuk, p. 401). She was Akbar's first wife (2an-i kalān), but had no child by him. She tended Shāhjahān. Nūr Jahān (Jahāngīr's wife), also stayed with her after the murder of Sher Afkan. 2. Sultān Salīma Begum. She was a daughter of (Julrukh (?) Begum 2 (a daughter of Bābar)

Commanders of Five Thousand, though they were appointed in 1041 and 1003 respectively.

i.e., a short time before the Asīn was completed.

The biographical notices which I have given after the names of the more illustrious grandees are chiefly taken from a MS. copy of the Mu^{*}dair* 't-Umari* (No. 770f the MSS. of the As. Soc. Bengal), the Tuzuk-i Jahangiri, the Tabaqut-i Akhari. Bada,oni, and the Akharama. For the convenience of the student of Indian History, I have added a genealogical table of the House of Timür, and would refer the reader to a more detailed article on the Chronology of Timür and his Descendants published by me in the Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for August, 1869.

¹ Fide Additional notes.

Regarding her, vide Jour. As. Soc. Bengal for 1869, p. 136, note.

and Mīrzā Nuru 'd-Dīn Muḥammad. Humāyūn had destined her for Bayrām Khān, who married her in the beginning of Akbar's reign. After the death of Bayrām, Akbar, in 968, married her. She died 10th Zī Qasda, 1021. As a poetess, she is known under the name Makh fī (concealed), and must not be confounded with Zebu'n-Nisā¹ (a daughter of Awrangzeb's) who has the same poetical name. 3. The daughter of Rāja Bihārī Mal and sister of Rāja Bhagawān Dās. Akbar married her in 968, at Sābhar. 4. The beautiful wife of Abdu l-Wāṣī, married in 970 (vide Bad. II, 61). 5. Bībī Dawlat Shād, mother of (b) and (c); vide Tuzuk, p. 16. 6. A daughter of SAbdu 'llah Khān Mughul (964). 7. A daughter of Mīrān Mubarak Shāh of Khandes; vide p. 13, note 1.

Sultān Salīm. Title as Emperor, Jahāngīr. Title after death, Jannatmakānī. Born at Fathpūr Sīkrī, on Wednesday, 17th Rabī' I, 997, or 18th Shahrīwar of the 14th year of Akbar's Era. He was called Salīm because he was born in the house of Shaykh Salīm-i Chishtī. Akbar used to call him Shaykhū Bābā (vide Tuzuk, p. 1). For his wives and children, vide below, No. 4. Jahāngīr died on the 28th Şafar 1037 (28th October, 1627) near Rājor on the Kashmīr frontier. Vide my article on Jahāngīr in the Calcutta Review for October, 1869.

Sultān Murād, Akbar's fourth son, was born on Thursday, 3rd Muḥarram, 978, and died of delirium tremens in 1006, at Jalnāpūr in Barār (Tuzuk, p. 15; Akbarnāma II, p. 443; Khāfī Khān, p. 212). He was nicknamed Pahārī (Bad. II, 378). He was sabzrang (of a livid complexion), thin, and tall (Tuzuk). A daughter of his was married to Prince Parwīz, Jahāngīr's son (Tuzuk, p. 38).

Sultān Dānyāl was born at Ajmīr, on the 10th Jumāda I, 979, and died of delirium tremens, A.H. 1013. Khāfī Khān, I, p. 232, says the news of his death reached Akbar in the beginning of 1014. He was called Dānyāl in remembrance of Shaykh Dānyāl, a follower of Mucīn-i Chishtī, to whose tomb at Ajmīr Akbar, in the beginning of his reign, often made pilgrimages. Dānyāl married, in the beginning of 1002, the daughter of Qulij Khān (No. 42), and towards the end of 1006, Jānān Begum, a daughter of Mīrzā ʿAhdu 'r-Raḥīm Khān Khānān (Khāfī Khān, p. 213), and was betrothed to a daughter of Ibrāhīm ʿĀdlishāh of Bījlāpūr; but he died before the marriage was consummated. He had three sons:—1. Tahmūras, who was married to Sultān Bahār Begum, a daughter of Jahāngīr.

2. Bāyasanghar (مايسنغر). 3. Hoshang, who was married to Hoshmand

¹ Her charming Diwan was lithographed at Lucknow, A.H. 1284. She was the eldest daughter of Awrangzeb, and was born in A.H. 1048.

[8 Sallow !---P.]

Bānū Begum, a daughter of Khusraw. Besides, he had four daughters, whose names are not mentioned. One of them, Bulāqī Begum, was married to Mīrzā Wālī (Tuz., p. 272). Țahmūras and Hoshang were killed by Āṣaf Khān after the death of Janāngīr (vide Proceedings Asiatic Society of Bengal, for August, 1869). Nothing appears to be known regarding the fate of Bāyasanghar. Vide Calcutta Review for October, 1869.

Dānyāl is represented as well built, good looking, fond of horses and

elephants, and clever in composing Hindustani poems.

IV. Commanders of Five Thousand.

4. Sultan Khusraw, eldest son of Prince Salīm [Jahāngīr].

Jahangir's wives (Tuzuk, p. 84, and Preface, p. 6). A daughter of Rāja Bhagwān Dās, married in 993, gave birth, in 994, to Sultāna 'n-Nisa Begum [Khāfī Khān, Sultan Begum], and in 995 to Prince Khusraw. She poisoned herself with opium in a fit of madness apparently brought on by the behaviour of Khusraw and her younger brother Madhu Singh, in 1011 (Khāfī Khān, p. 227). 2. A daughter of Rāy Ray Singh, son of Ray Kalyan Mal of Bikanir, married 19th Rajab 994, Bad. II, p. 353. She is not mentioned in the Tuzuk among Jahangir's wives. 3. A daughter of Oday Singh [Moth Raja], son of Raja Maldeo, married in 994. The Tuzuk (p. 5) calls her Jagat Gosayini. She is the mother of Shāhjahān, and died in 1028 (Tuzuk, p. 268). 4. A daughter of Khwaja Hasan, the uncle of Zayn Khan Koka. She is the mother of Prince Parwiz. She died 15th Tir, 1007. 5. A daughter of Raja Keshū Dās Rāthor. She is the mother of Bahar Banu Begum (born 23rd Shahriwar 998). 6 and 7. The mothers of Jahandar and Shahryar. 8. A daughter of Alī Rāy, ruler of little Thibet (Bad., II, 376), married in 999 9. A daughter of Jagat Singh, eldest son of Rāja Man Singh (Tuzuk, p. 68). 10. Mihru 'n-Nisā Kl.anum, the widow of Sher Afkan. On her marriage with Jahangir she received the title of Nur Mahall, and was later called Nür Jahan (Tuz., p. 156). Jahängīr does not appear to have had children by Nür Jahan.

Jahangir's children. 1. Sultan Khusraw. 2. Sultan Parwiz. 3. Sultan Khurram (Shahjahan). 4. Sultan Jahandar. 5. Sultan Shahryar. Two daughters are mentioned:—(a) Sultan 'n-Nisa Regum; (b) Sultan Bahar Hand Begum. There were "several children" after Parwiz; but the Tuzuk (p. 8) does not give their names. They appear to have died

soon after their birth.

Sulfan Khusraw was born on the 24th Amurdad 995 (Tuzuk, Preface); but Khafi Khan says 997. He was married to a daughter of Azam Khan

Koka. His sons—1. Baland Akhtar, who died when young, Tuzuk, p. 73. 2. Dāwar Bakhsh (also called Bulāqī), whose daughter, Hoshmand Bānū Begum, was married to Hoshang, son of Dānyāl. 3. Garshasp.

Khusraw died on the 18th Isfandiyārmuz, 1031. He lies buried in the Khusraw Gardens in Allahabad. Dāwar Bakhsh was proclaimed Emperor by Āṣaf Khān after the death of Jahāngīr; but at an order of Shāhjahān, he was killed, together with his brother Garshasp, by Āṣaf Khān.

Sulțăn Parwiz, born 19th Ābān, 997. He was married to a daughter of Mīrzā Rustam-i Ṣafawī (No. 9) and had a son who died when young (Tuz., p. 282). A daughter of Parwiz was married to Dărā Shikoh. Parwiz died of delirium tremens in 1036.

Sultān Khurram (Shāhjahān) was born at Lāhor on the 30th Rabī[§] I, 1000 A.H. Regarding his family, vide Proceedings As. Soc. Bengal for August, 1869, p. 219. He was Akbar's favourite.

Sultān Jahāndār had no children. He and Sultān Shahryār were born about the same time, a few months before Akbar's death (Tuz., Preface, p. 17). Shahryār was married, in the 16th year of Jahāngīr, to Mihru'n-Nisā, the daughter of Nūr Jahān by Sher Afkan, and had a daughter by her, Arzānī Begum (Tuzuk, p. 370). The Iqbāl-nāma (p. 306) calls her الزقلي بياً. From his want of abilities, he got the nickname Nāshudanī (fit for nothing). Khusraw, Parwīz, and Jahāndār died before their father.

Shahryār, at the instigation of Nür Jahān, proclaimed himself Emperor of Lāhor a few days after the death of Jahāngīr. He was killed either at the order of Dāwar Bakhsh or of Āṣaf Khān; vide Proceedings As. Soc. Bengal for August, 1869, p. 218.

- 5. Mīrzā Sulaymān, son of Khān Mīrzā, son of Sultān Maḥmūd, son of Abū Sa^cīd.
 - 6. Mīrzā Ibrāhīm, son of Mīrzā Sulaymān (No. 5).

Mīrzā Sulaymān was born in 920, and died at Lāhor in 997. He is generally called Wālā-yi Badakhshān. As grandson of Abū Sasīd Mīrzā, he is the sixth descendant from Tīmūr. Ābū Sasīd killed Sultān Muḥammad of Badakhshān. the last of a series of kings who traced their descent to Alexander the Great, and took possession of Badakhshān, which after his death fell to his son, Sultān Maḥmūd, who had three sons, Bāyasanghar Mīrzā, Salī Mīrzā, Khān Mīrzā. When Maḥmūd died, Amīr Khusraw

¹ The MSS. spell this name براتي and براتي.

The Masagire 'L'Umara calls the second son, Mirza Massud.

Khān, one of his nobles, blinded Bāyasanghar, killed the second prince, and ruled as usurper. He submitted to Bābar in 910. When Bābar took Qandahār, in 912, from Shāh Beg Arghūn, he sent Khān Mīrzā as governor to Badakhshān. Mīrzā Sulaymān is the son of this Khān Mīrzā.¹

After the death of Khān Mīrzā, Badakhshān was governed for Bābar by Prince Humāyūn, Sultān Uways (Mīrzā Sulaymān's father-in-law), Prince Hindāl, and lastly, by Mīrzā Sulaymān, who held Badakhshān till 17 Jumāda II, 948, when he had to surrender himself and his son, Mīrzā Ibrāhīm, to Prince Kāmrān. They were released by Humāyūn in 952, and took again possession of Badakhshān. When Humāyūn had taken Kābul, he made war upon and defeated Mīrzā Sulāymān who once in possession of his country, had refused to submit; but when the return of Kāmrān from Sind obliged Humāyūn to go to Kābul, he reinstated the Mīrzā, who held Badakhshān till 983. Bent on making conquests, he invaded in 967 Balkh, but had to return. His son, Mīrzā Ibrāhīm, was killed in battle.²

In the eighth year when Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm's (Akbar's brother) mother had been killed by Shāh Abū 'l-Masānī Mīrzā S. went to Kābul, and had Abū 'l-Masālī hanged; he then married his own daughter to M. M. Ḥakīm, and appointed Umed salī, a Badakhshān noble, M. M. Ḥakīm's Vakīl (970) But M. M. Ḥakīm did not go on well with Mīrzā Sulaymān. who returned next year to Kābul with hostile intentions; but M. M. Ḥakīm fled and asked Akbar for assistance, so that Mīrzā S., though he had taken Jalālābād, had to return to Badakhshān. He returned to Kābul in 973, when Akbar's troops had left that country, but retreated on being promised tribute.

Mīrzā Sulaymān's wife was Khurram Begum, of the Qibchāk tribe. She was clever and had her husband so much in her power, that he did nothing without her advice. Her enemy was Muḥtaram Khanum, the widow of Prince Kāmrān. M. Sulaymān wanted to marry her; but Khurram Begum got her married, against her will, to Mīrzā Ibrāhīm, by whom she had a son, Mīrzā Shāhrukh (No. 7). When Mīrzā Ibrāhīm fell in the war with Balkh, Khurram Begum wanted to send the Khānum to her father, Shāh Muḥammad of Kāshghar; but she refused to go. As soon as Shāhrukh had grown up, his mother and some Badakhshī nobles excited him to rebel against his grandfather M. Sulaymān. This he did,

A Hence he never was a grandes of Akbar's Court, and has been put on the list according to the rules of etiquette.

¹ The Machair says Khan Mirza died in 917; but this is impossible, as Mirza Sulayman was born in 920, the Tarikh of his birth being the word __a.c.

alternately rebelling and again making peace. Khurram Begum then died. Shāhrukh took away those parts of Badakhshān which his father had held, and found so many adhreents, that M. Sulaymān, pretending to go on a pilgrimage to Makkah, left Badakhshān for Kābul, and crossing the Nīlāb went to India (983). Khān Jahān, governor of the Panjāb, received orders to invade Badakhshān, but was suddenly ordered to go to Bengal, as Mun'im Khān had died and Mīrzā Sulaymān did not care for the governorship of Bengal, which Akbar had given him.

M. Sulayman then went to Ismā'il II of Persia. When the death of that monarch deprived him of the assistance which he had just received, he went to Muzaffar Ḥusayn Mīrzā (No. 8) at Qandahār, and then to M. M. Ḥakīm at Kābul. Not succeeding in raising disturbances in Kābul, he made for the frontier of Badakhshān, and luckily finding some adherents, he managed to get from his grandson the territory between Tāqān and the Hindū Kush. Soon after Muḥtaram Khānum died. Being again pressed by Shāhrukh, M. Sulaymān applied for help to 'Abdu 'llah Khān Uzbak, king of Tūrān, who had long wished to annex Badakhshān. He invaded and took the country in 992; Shāhrukh fled to Hundūstān, and M. Sulaymān to Kābul. As he could not recover Badakhshān, and being rendered destitute by the death of M. M. Ḥakīm, he followed the example of his grandson, and repaired to the court of Akbar, who made him a Commander of six thousand.

A few years later he died, at Lahor, at the age of seventy-seven.

7. Mīrzā Shāhurkh, son of Mīrzā Ibrāhīm.

Vide Nos. 5 and 6. Akbar, in 1001, gave him his daughter Shukrun'-Nisā Begum, and made him governor of Mālwa, and he distinguished himself in the conquest of the Dakhin. Towards the end of Akbar's reign, he was made a Commander of seven thousand, and was continued in his Mansab by Jahāngīr.

He died at Ujain in 1016. His wife, Kābulī Begum, was a daughter of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm. She wanted to take his body to Madīnah, but was robbed by the Badawīs; and after handing over the body to some "scoundrels" she went to Baṣra, and then to Shīrāz. In 1022, Shāh ʿAbbās married her to Mīrzā Ṣultān ʿAlī, his uncle, whom he had blinded; but the Begum did not like her new husband.

Shāhrukh's Children.—1. Ḥasan and Ḥusayn, twins. Ḥasan fled with Khusraw and was imprisoned by Jahāngīr. 2. Badī^{çu} 'z-Zamān (or Mīrzā Fatḥpūrī), "a bundle of wicked bones," murdered by his brothers in Patan (Gujrāt). 3. Mīrzā Shujā^ç rose to honours under Shāhjahān, who called him Najābat Khān. 4. Mīrzā Muḥammad Zamān. He held

a town in Badakhshān, and fell against the Uzbaks. 5. Mīrzā Sulṭān, a favourite of Jahāngīr. He had many wives, and Jahāngīr would have given him his own daughter in marriage if he had not perjured himself in trying to conceal the number of his wives. He fell into disgrace, and was appointed governor of Ghāzīpūr, where he died. 6. Mīrzā Mughul, who did not distinguish himself either. The Tuzuk (p. 65) says that after the death of Shāhrukh, Jahāngīr took charge of four of his sons and three of his daughters, "whom Akbar had not known." "Shāhrukh, though twenty years in India, could not speak a word of Hindī."

8. Mīrzā Muzaffar Ḥusayn, son of Bahrām Mīrzā, son of Shāh Ismā'īl-i

Şafawi.

In 965, Shah Tahmasp of Persia (930 to 984) conquered Qandahar, which was given, together with Dawar and Garmsir as far as the river Hīrmand, to Sultān Husayn Mīrzā, 1 his nephew. Sultān Husayn M. died in 984, when Shah Isma il II (984 to 985) was king of Persia, and left five children, Muhammad Husayn Mīrzā, Muzaffar Husayn Mīrzā, Rustam Mīrzā, Abū Sasīd Mīrzā, and Sanjar Mīrzā. The first was killed by Shāh Ismasīl Īrān. The other four in Qandahār had also been doomed; but the arrival of the news of the sudden death of the Shah saved their lives. The new Shah Khudabanda, gave Qandahar to Muzaffar Husayn Mīrzā, and Dāwar as far as the Hīrmand to Rustam Mîrză, who was accompanied by his two younger brothers, their akil being Hamza Beg SAbda 'llah, or Kor Hamza, an old servant of their The arbitrary behaviour of the Vakil caused Muzaffar Husayn Mirza to take up arms against him, and after some alternate fighting and peace-making, Muzaffar had the Vakil murdered. This led to fights between Muzaffar and Mirza Rustam who, however, returned to Dawar.

Not long after the invasion of Khurāsān by the Uzbaks under Dīn Muḥammad Sultān and Bāqī Sultān (a sister's son of Abdu 'llah Khān of Tūrān) took place, and the Qandahār territory being continually exposed to incursions, the country was unsettled. Most of the Qızilbāsh grandees fell in the everlasting fights, and the Shāh of Persia promised assistance, but rendered none; Mīrzā Rustam who had gone to Hindūstān, was appointed by Akbar Governor of Lāhor, and kept Qandahār in auxiety, and Muzaffar hesitatingly resolved to hand over Qandahār to Akbar, though 'Abdu' 'llah Khān of Tūrān advised him not to join the Chaghatā' i kings (the Mughuls of India) At that time Qarā Beg (an old servant of Muzaffar's father, who had fled to India, and was appointed Farrāshbegī

^{[1} Son of Bahram Mirsa vide 95.--P.]

by Akbar) returned to Qandahār, and prevailed upon Muzaffar's mother and eldest son to bring about the annexation of Qandahār to India.

Akbar sent Shāh Beg Khān Arghūn, Governor of Bangash, to take prompt possession of Qandahār, and though, as in all his undertakings, Muzaffar wavered at the last moment and had recourse to trickery, he was obliged by the firm and prudent behaviour of Beg Khān in 1003, to go to Akbar. He received the title of Farzand (son), was made a Commander of five thousand, and received Sambhal as Jāgīr, "which is worth more than all Qandahār."

But the ryots of his jāgīr preferred complaints against his grasping collectors, and Muzaffar, annoyed at this, applied to go to Makkah. No sooner had Akbar granted this request than Muzaffar repented. He was reinstated, but as new complaints were preferred, Akbar took away the jāgīr, and paid him a salary in cash (1005). Muzaffar then went to Makkah, but returned after reaching the first stage, which displeased Akbar so much, that he refused to have anything to do with him.

Muzaffar found everything in India bad, and sometimes resolved to go to Persia, and sometimes to Makkah. From grief and disappointment, and a bodily hurt, he died in 1008.

His daughter, called *Qandahār Maḥall*, was in 1018 married to Shāhjahān, and gave birth, in 1020, to Nawāb Parhez Bānū Begum.

Three sons of his remained in India, Bahrām Mīrzā, Ḥaydar Mīrzā (who rose to dignity under Shāhjahān, and died in 1041), and Ismā^çīl Mīrzā. The Ma^{*}āṣīr mentions two other sons, Alqās Mīrzā and Ṭahmās Mīrza.

Muzaffar's younger brothers, Mîrzā Abū Sa^cīd, and Mīrzā Sanjar, died in 1005. They held commands of Three hundred and fifty. (*Vide* Nos. 271 and 272.)

9. Mīrzā Rustam.—He is the younger, but more talented brother of the preceding. As the revenue of Dāwar was insufficient for him and his two younger brothers, he made war on Malik Maḥmūd, ruler of Sīstān. Muzaffar Ḥusayn assisted him at first, but having married Malik Maḥmūd's daughter, he turned against Rustam. This caused a rupture between the brothers. Assisted by Lalla (guardian) Hamza Beg, M. Rustam invaded Qandahār, but without result. During the invasion of the Uzbaks into Khurāsān, he conquered the town of Farāh, and bravely held his own. Some time after, he again attacked Malik Maḥmūd. The latter wished to settle matters amicably. During an interview, Rustam seized him and killed him, when Jalālu 'd-Dīn, Maḥmūd's son, took up arms. Rustam was defeated, and hearing that

his brother Muzaffar had occupied Dawar, he quickly took the town of Qalat. Being once absent on a hunting expedition, he nearly lost the town, and though he took revenge on the conspirators who had also killed his mother, he felt himself so insecure, that he resolved to join Akbar. Accompanied by his brother, Sanjar Mīrzā, and his four sons Murad, Shahrukh, Hasan, and Ibrahim, he went in 1001 to India. Akbar made him a Panjhazārī, and gave him Multān as jāgīr, "which is more than Qandahar." His inferiors being too oppressive, Akbar, in 1003, wished to give him Chitor, but recalled him from Sarhind, gave him Pathan as tuyūl, and sent him, together with Aşaf Khān against Rāja Bāsū. But as they did not get on well together, Akbar called M. Rustam to court, appointing Jagat Singh, son of Raja Man Singh, in his stead. In 1006, M. Rustam got Raysın as jagır. He then served under Prince Dānyāl in the Dakhin. In 1021, Jahāngīr appointed him Governor of That'han, but recalled him as he ill-treated the Arghuns. marriage of his daughter with Prince Parwiz, Jahangir made him Shashhazārī, and appointed him Governor of Allāhābād. He held the fort against Abdu 'llah Khan, whom Shahjahan, after taking possession of Bengal and Bihar, had sent against Allahabad, and forced Abdu 'llah to retire to Jhosi. In the 21st year, he was appointed Governor of Bihar, but was persioned off as too old by Shahjahan at 120,000 Rs. per annum, and retired to Agra. In the sixth year, M. Rustam married his daughter to Prince Dārā Shikoh. He died, in 1051, at Agra, 72 years old.

As a poet he is known under the takhallus of $Fia\bar{a}^*\bar{i}$. He was a man of the world and understood the spirit of the age. All his sons held subsequently posts of distinction.

His first son Murād got from Jahāngīr the title of Iltīfāt Khān. He was married to a daughter of 'Abdu r-Raḥīm Khān Khanān Murād's son, Mīrzā Mukarram Khān, also distinguished himself; he died in 1080.

His third son Mīrzā Hasan-i Ṣafawī, a Hazār ə panṣadī under Jahāngīr, was Governor of Kūch; died 1059. Hasan's son, Mīrzā Ṣafshikan, was Fawjdar of Jessore in Bengal, retired, and died in 1073. Ṣafshikan's son, Ṣayf" 'd-Dīn i Ṣafawī, accepted the title of Khān under Awrangzeb.

10. Bayram Khan, the fifth in descent from Mir Ali Shukr Beg Baharlü.

Bahārlü is the name of a principal clan of the Qaraqūilü Turks. During the time of their ascendency under Qará Yūsuf, and his sons Qarā Sikandar and Mirzā Jahān Shāh, rulers of 'Irāq-i 'Arab and Āzarbāyjān, 'Alī Shukr teg held Daynūr, Hamadān, and Kurdistān, "which tracts are still called

the territory of 'Alī Shukr.' His son Pīr 'Alī Beg stayed some time with Sultān Maḥmūd Mīrzā, and attacked afterwards the Governor of Shirāz, but was defeated. He was killed by some of the Amīrs of Sultān Ḥusayn Mīrzā. Pīr 'Alī Beg's son, in the reign of Shāh Ismā'īl-i Ṣafawī, left 'Irāq, settled in Badakhshān, and entered the service of Amīr Khusraw Shāh (vide p. 324, last line) at Qunduz. He then joined, with his son Sayf 'Alī Beg, Bābar's army, as Amīr Khusraw had been deposed. Sayf 'Alī Beg is Bayrām's father.

Bayram Khan was born at Badakhshan. After the death of his father he went to Balkh to study. When sixteen years old, he entered Humāyūn's army, fought in the battle of Qanawj (10th Muharram, 947), and fled to the Rāja of Lakhnor (Sambhal). Sher Shāh met Bayrām in Mālwa, and tried to win him over. But Bayram fled from Barhampur with Abū 'l-Qasim, governor of Gwaliyar, to Gujrat. They were surprised, on the road, by an ambassador of Sher Shah who had just returned from Gujrāt. Abū 'l-Qasim, a man of imposing stature, being mistaken for Bayram, the latter stepped forward and said in a manly voice, "I am Bayram." "No." said Abū 'l-Qāsim, "he is my attendant, and brave and faithful as he is, he wishes to sacrifice himself for me. So let him off." Abū 'l-Qāsim was then killed, and Bayrām escaped to Sultan Mahmūd of Gujrāt. Under the pretext of sailing for Makkah, Bayrām embarked at Sūrat for Sindh. He joined Humāyūn on the 7th Muharram, 950, when the Emperor, after passing through the territory of Raja Maldeo, was pressed by the Arghuns at Jon. On the march to Persia, he proved the most faithful attendant. The King of Persia also liked him, and made him a Khān. On Humāyūn's return, Bayrām was sent on a mission to Prince Kāmrān. When Humāvūn marched to Kābul, he took Qandahār by force and treachery from the Qizilbāshes, and making Bayrām governor of the district, he informed the Shah that he had done so as Bayram was "a faithful servant of both". Subsequently rumours regarding Bayram's duplicity reached Humāyūn; but when in 961, the Emperor returned to Qandahar, the rumours turned out false.

The conquest of India may justly be ascribed to Bayram. He gained the battle of Māchhīwāra, and received Sambhal as jāgīr. In 963, he was appointed atāliq (guardian) of Prince Akbar, with whom he went to the Panjāb against Sikandar Khān. On Akbar's accession (2nd Rabī'II, 963) at Kalānūr, he was appointed Wakīl and Khān Khānān, and received the title of Khān Bābā. On the second of Shawwāl, 964, shortly after the surrender of Mānkoṭ, when Akbar returned to Lāhor, an imperial elephant ran against Bayrām's tent, and Bayrām blamed Atgah Khān

(No. 15), who never had been his friend, for this accident. The Atgah, after arrival at Lähor, went with his whole family to Bayrām, and attested his innocence by an oath upon the Qurcān. In 965, Bayrām married Salīma Sultān Begum (p. 321, note), and soon after the estrangement commenced between Akbar and him. Badāonī (II, p. 36) attributes the fall of Bayrām to the ill-treatment of Pīr Muḥammad (No. 20) and the influence of Adham Khān and his mother Māhum Anagah (Akbar's nurse), Ṣiddiq Muḥammad Khān, Shāhābu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad, etc., who effectually complained of the wretchedness of their jāgīrs, and the emptiness of the Treasury, whilst Bayrām Khān's friends lived in affluence. The Tabayāt-i Akbarī says that no less than twenty-five of Bayrām's friends reached the dignity of Panjhazārīs—rather a proof of Bayrām's friends reached the dignity of Panjhazārīs—rather a proof of Bayrām's gift of selecting proper men. Bayrām's fall is known from the Histories. "Akbar's trick resembles exactly that which Sultān Abū Sasīd-i Mughul adopted towards his minister Amīr Chaubān." (Bad.)

On hearing the news that Akbar had assumed the reigns of the government, Bayrām left Āgra, and sent his friends who had advised him to go to Akbar, to Court. He himself went under the pretext of going to Makkah to Mewāt and Nāgor, from where he returned his insignia, which reached Akbar at Jhujhar; for Akbar was on his way to the Panjāb, which Bayrām, as it was said, wished to invade. The insignia were conferred on Pīr Muḥammad Khān, Bayrām's old protégé; and he was ordered to see him embark for Makkah. Bayrām felt much irritated at this; and finding the road to Gujrāt occupied by Rāja Māldeo, his enemy, he proceeded to Bīkānir to his friend Kalyān Mal

Beigram was a great seat of Muhammadan learning from the times of Akbar to the present century. For the literati of the town wide the Tagkira by thulam SAli Azad,

entitled Sarro i Azdd.

¹ So Bad. II, 19. The story in Elphinstone (fifth edition), p. 497, does not agree with the sources. The Akbarnama says, Bayram was on board a ship on the Jamna, when one of Akbar's elephants ran into the water and nearly upset the boat. Abū 'l-Farl, moreover, refers it to a later period than 984. The author of the Sawāniā-i Akbarī has a fine critical note on Abū 'l-Farl's account. I would remark here that as long as we have are translation of all the sources for a history of Akbar's reign. European historians should make the Sawāniā-i Akbarī the basis of their labours. This work is a modern compilation dedicated to William Kirkpatrick, and was compiled by Amīr Haydar of Belgrām from the Akbarnāma, the Tabaqāt, Badāonī Firishta, the Akbarnāma by Shaykh Ilāhdād of Sarhīnd (poetically called Fayrī; vide Journal As. Soc. Bengal for 1868, p. 10) and 106 'l-Farl's letters, of which the compiler had four books. The sources in italics have never been used by preceding historians. This work is perhaps the only critical historical work written by a native, and confirms an opinion which I have elsewhere expressed, that those portions of Iudian History for which we have several sources, are full of the most astounding discrepancies us to details.

The author of the Sawāniḍ-i Akbarī states that Abū 'l-Faşi does not show much friendliness to Bayrām, whilst Erskine (Elphinstone, p. 495, note) represents Abū 'l-Faşi as " Bayrām's warm panegyrist".

(No. 93). But unable to restrain himself any longer, he entrusted his property, his family, and his young son Abdu 'r-Rahim (No. 29) to Sher Muhammad Dīwāna, his adopted son and jāgīr holder of Tabarhinda. and broke out in open rebellion. At Dīpālpūr, on his way to the Panjāb, he heard that Diwana had squandered the property left in his charge, had insulted his family, and had sent Muzaffar Alī (whom Bayram had dispatched to Diwana to settle matters) to Court a prisoner. Mortified at this, Bayram resolved to take Jalindhar. Akbar now moved against him; but before he reached him, he heard that Bayram had been defeated 1 by Atgah Khan (No. 15). Bayram fled to Fort Tilwars on the banks of the Biyah, followed by Akbar. Fighting ensued. In the very beginning, Sultan Husayn Jalair was killed; and when his head was brought to Bayram, 2 he was so sorry that he sent to Akbar and asked forgiveness. This was granted, and Bayram, accompanied by the principal grandees, went to Akbar's tent, and was pardoned. After staving for two days longer with Muncim Khan, he received a sum of money, and was sent to Makkah. The whole camp made a collection (chandogh). Hājī Muḥammad of Sīstān (No. 55) accompanied Bayrām over Nāgor to Patan (Nahrwāla) in Gujrāt, where he was hospitably received by Mūsa Khān Fūlādī, the governor. On Friday, 14th Jumāda I, 968, while alighting from a boat after a trip on the Sahansa Lang Tank, Bayram was stabbed by a Lohānī Afghān of the name of Mubārak, whose father had been killed in the battle of Māchhīwara. "With an Allāh" Akbar on his lips, he died." The motive of Mubarak Khan is said to have merely been revenge. Another reason is mentioned. The Kashmīrī wife of Salīm Shāh with her daughter had attached herself to Bayrām's suite, in order to go to Hijāz, and it had been settled that Bayram's son should be betrothed to her, which annoyed the Afghans. Some beggars lifted up Bayram's body, and took it to the tomb of Shaykh Husamu 'd-Din. Seventeen years later the body was interred in holy ground at Mash.had.

Akbar took charge of Abdu 'r-Raḥīm, Bayrām's son (vide No. 29), and married soon after Salīma Sultān Begom, Bayrām's widow.

For Bayram, we often find the spelling Bayram. Firishta generally calls him Bayram Khān Turkmān. Bayrām was a Shisah, and a poet of no mean pretensions (vide Badāonī III, p. 190).

¹ Near دگدهار (or دگدهار) in the Parganah دگدهار (Bad. ; مناجر Ma[©]āṇir ; دگدهار Bawāniḥ] near Jālindhar. For کتاجر, Bad. (II. 40) has کتر بهلور. Firishta says (Lucknow edit., p 249) the fight took place outside of Māchhīwāra.

2 The Ma[©]āṇir mentions this fact without giving the source.

11. Muncim Khan, son of Bayram 1 Beg.

Nothing appears to be known of the circumstances of his father. Munsim Khān was a grandee of Humāyūn's Court, as was also his brother Fazil Beg. When Humāyūn, on his flight to Persia, was hard pressed hy Mirza Shah Husayn of Thathah, one grandee after another went quietly away. M. and Fazil Beg also were on the point of doing so, when Humayun made them prisoners, as he had done from motives of prudence and policy with several other nobles. M. did not, however, accompany Humāyūn to Persia. He rejoined him immediately on his return, and rose at once to high dignity. He rejected the governership of Qandahār, which was given to Bayrām Khān. In 961, he was appointed stālīq of Prince Akbar; and when Humāyūn invaded India, M. was left as governor of Kābul in charge of Mīrzā Muhammad Hakim, Akbar's brother, then about a year old. In Käbul M. remained till Bay am fell into disgrace. He joined Akbar, in Zī Ḥijja, 967, at Lūdhiyana, where Akbar encamped on his expedition against Bayram. M. was then appointed Khān Khānān and Vakīl.

In the seventh year of Akbar's reign, when Adham Khān (No. 19) willed Atgah Khān (No. 15), Mun'sim who had been the instigator, fled twice from Court, but was caught the second time in Saror (Sirkār of Qanawi) by the collector of the district, and was brought in by Sayyid Maḥmūd Khān of Bārha (No. 75). Akbar restored M. to his former honours.

Muncim Khan's son. Chani Khan, whom his father had left in charge of Kabul, caused disturbances from want of tact. Mah Jujak Begum, Prince M. Muhammad Hakim's mother, advised by Fazil Beg and his son Abdu 'l-Fath, who hated Ghani Khan, closed the doors of Kabul when (Hanī Khān was ouce temporarily absent at Fālīz. Ghanī Khān, not finding adherents to oppose her, went to India. Mäh Jūjak Begum theu appointed Fazil Beg as Vakil and Abdu 'l-Fath as Nath; but being dissatisfied with them, she killed them both, at the advice of Shah Wali, one of her nobles. On account of these disturbances, Akbar, in the eighth cear, sent M. to Kabul. Thinking he could rely on the Kabulis, M. left pefore his contingent was quite ready. He was attacked near Jalalabad by Mah Jujak Begum (who in the meantime had killed Shah Wali and had taken up, apparently criminally, with Haydar Qasim Kch-bar, whom she had made Vakil) and defeated. M. fied to the Ghakhars, and ashamed and hesitating he joined Akbar, who appointed him Commander of the Fort of Agra.

¹ Some MSS. read Miram; but Bayram is the preferable reading.

In the 12th year, after the defeat and death of Khān Zamān (No. 13), M. was appointed to his jāgīrs in Jaunpūr (Bad. II, 101), and then concluded peace with Sulaymān Kararānī of Bengal, who promised to read the Khutba and strike coins in Akbar's name.

In 982, Akbar, at M.'s request, went with a flotilla from Agra to Bihār, and took Ḥājīpūr and Paṭna from Dāʿūd, Sulaymān's son. M. was then appointed Governor of Bihār, and was ordered to follow Dāʿūd into Bengal. M. moved to Ṭānḍa (opposite Gaur, on the right side of the Ganges) to settle political matters, and left the pursuit to Muḥammad Qulī Khān Barlās (No. 31). But as the latter soon after died, M., at the advice of Ṭoḍar Mal, left Ṭānḍa, and followed up Dāʿūd, who after his defeat at submitted at Katak. In Ṣafar 983, M. returned, and though his army had terribly suffered from epidemics on the march through Southern Bengal, he quartered them against the advice of his friends at Gaur, where M. soon after died of fever.

The great bridge of Jaunpur was built by Mun's Mhān in 981. Its tārīkh is عراط المستقيم. Mhas son Ghanī Khān went to ʿĀdilshāh of Bījāpur, where he died.

12. Tardī Beg Khān, of Turkistān.

A noble of Humāyūn's Court. After the conquest of Gujrāt, he was made Governor of Champānīr (Pāwangaṛh). On Mīrza ʿAskarī's defeat by Sulṭān Bahādur, Tardī Beg also succumbed to him, and retreated to Humāyūn. During the emperor's flight from India, Tardī Beg distinguished himself as one of the most faithless¹ companions. When passing through the territory of Rāja Māldeo, he even refused Humāyūn a horse, and at Amarkoṭ, he declined to assist the emperor with a portion of the wealth he had collected while at court. Hence Rāy Parsād advised H. to imprison some of his nobles and take away part of their property by force. H., however, returned afterwards most of it. In Qandahār, Tardī Beg left the emperor and joined Mīrzā ʿAskarī. But Mīrzā ʿAskarī put most of them on the rack, and forced also Tardī Beg to give him a large sum as ransom.

On Humāyūn's return from 'Irāq, Tardī Beg asked pardon for his former faithlessness, was restored to favour, and was sent, in 955, after the death of Mīrzā Ulugh Beg, son of Mīrzā Sultān, to Dāwar. During the conquest of India, T. distinguished himself and received Mewāt as

¹ Elphinstone, p. 452, note, says Tardi Beg was one of the most faithful followers of Humāyūn, a statement which is contradicted by all native historians.

jāgīr. In 963, when Humāyūn died (7th Rabī I), T. read the khupba in Akbar's name, and sent the crown-insignia with M. Abū 'l-Qāsim, son of Prince Kāmrān, to Akbar in the Panjāb. Akbar made T. a Commander of Five Thousand, and appointed him governor of Dihli. T. drove away Ḥājī Khān, an officer of Sher Shāh, from Narnaul. On Hemū's approach, after some unsuccessful fighting, T. too rashly evacuated Dihlī, and joined Akbar at Sarhind. Bayrām Khān, who did not like T. from envy and sectarian motives, accused him, and obtaining from Akbar "a sort of permission" (Bad. II, 14) had him murdered (end of 963). Akbar was displeased. Bayrām's hasty act was one of the chief causes of the distrust with which the Chaghatā'ī nobles looked upon him. Tardī Beg was a Sunnī.

13. Khản Zaman-i Shaybani.

His father Ḥaydar Sultān Uzbak-i Shaybānī had been made an Amīr in the Jām war with the Qizilbāshes. When Ḥumāyūn returned from Persia, Ḥaydar joined him, together with his two sons Alī Qulī Khān [Khān Zamān] and Bahādur Khān (No. 22), and distinguished himself in the conquest of Qandahār. On the march to Kābul, an epidemic broke out in Humāyūn's camp, during which Ḥaydar Sultān died.

Alf Quli Khan distinguished himself in Kabul and in the conquest of Hindustan, was made Amīr and sent to the Du,āb and Sambhal, where he defeated the Afghans. At the time of Akbar's accession, Ali Quli Khān fought with Shādī Khān, an Afghān noble; but when he heard that Hemü had gone to Dihli, he thought fighting with this new enemy more important; but before SAlī Qulī arrived at Dihli, Tardī Beg (No. 12) had been defeated, and A. returned from Meerut to Akbar at Sarhind. SAlī Qulī was sent in advance with 10,000 troopers, met Hemū near Panipat and defeated him. Though Akbar and Bayram were near, they took no part in this battle. Ali Quli received the title of Khān Zamān. Next to Bayram, the restoration of the Mughul Dynasty may be justly ascribed to him. Khan Zaman then got Sambhal again as jagir, cleared the whole north of India up to Lakhnau of the Afghans, and acquired an immense fortune by plunder. In 964, he held Jaunpur as Quisim maqum for Sikandar, after the latter had surrendered Manket. In the third year of Akbar's reign, Khan Zaman became the talk of the whole country in consequence of a love scandal with Shaham Beg, a page of Humayun, and as he refused to send the boy back to Court, Akbar took away some of Khan Zaman's tuyul's, which led inm to rebei. Bayram from generosity did not interfere; but when Pir Muhammad, Khan Zaman's enemy, had been appointed Vakil, he took away, in the 4th year, the whole of his

maḥalls, and had him appointed commander against the Afghāns who threatened the Jaunpūr District. Pīr Muḥammad had also Burj ʿAlī thrown from the walls of Fīrūzābād, whom Khān Zamān had sent to him to settle matters. Khān Zamān now thought it was high time to send away Shāham Beg, went to Jaunpūr, and drove away the Afghāns. Upon the fall of Bayrām, they appeared again under Sher Shāh, son of ʿĀdlī,¹ with a large army and 500 elephants. Khān Zamān, however, defeated them in the streets of Jaunpūr, and carried off immense plunder and numerous elephants, which he retained for himself.

In Zī Qacda of the 6th year, Akbar moved personally against him; but at Karah (on the Ganges) Khān Zamān and his brother Bahādur submitted and delivered the booty and the elephants. They were pardoned and sent again to Jaunpūr. Soon after, he defeated the Afghāns, who had attacked him in a fortified position near the Son.

In the 10th year, Khan Zaman rebelled again in concert with the Uzbaks, and attacked the Tuyuldars of the province. As soon as an imperial army marched against him, he went to Ghāzīpūr, and Akbar on arrival at Jaunpur sent Munsim Khan against him. Being a friend of Khan Zaman, he induced him to submit, which he did. But a body of imperial troops under Mucizzu'l-Mulk and Rāja Todar Mal, having been defeated by Bahadur and Iskamlar Uzbak (No. 48), the rebellion continued, though repeated attempts were made to bring about a conciliation. Having at last sworn to be faithful, Klian Zaman was left in possession of his jagirs, and Akbar returned to Agra. But when the emperor, on the 3rd Jumada I, 974, marched against M. Muhammad Hakīm, Khān Zamān rebelled again, read the Khutba at Jaunpur in M. Muhammad Hakim's name, and marched against Shergarh (Qanaw)). Akbar was now resolved no longer to pardon; he left the Panjab, 12th Ramazan 974, and Agra on the 26th Shawwal. At Sakit, east of Agra, Akbar heard that Khan Zamān had fled from Shergarh to Mānikpūr where Bahādur was, and from there marching along the Ganges, had bridged the river near the frontier of Singror (Nawabganj, between Manikpur and Allahabad). Akbar sent a detachment of 6,000 troopers under Muhammad Quli Khan Barlas and Todar Mal to Audh to oppose Iskandar Khan Uzbak, and marched over Ray Bareli to Manikpur, crossed the Ganges with about 100 men, and slept at night near the banks of the river, at a short distance from Khan Zaman's camp, who must have gone from Nawabganj back again on the right side of the river to Karah. Next morning, 1st Zi

[[] Mubariz Khan SAdli.-B.]

Hijja, 974, Akbar with some reinforcements attacked Khān Zamān. Bahādur was captured, and brought to Akbar, and he had scarcely been dispatched, when Khān Zamān's head was brought in. He had been half killed by an elephant whose driver was called Somnāt, when a soldier cut off his head; for Akbar had promised a muhr for every Mughul's head. But another soldier snatched away the head and took it to Akbar. The fight took place dar sarşa-yi Sakrāwal (in Badā,onī, Mungarwāl), "which place has since been called Faṭhpūr." The Trig. S. maps show a small village Faṭhpūr about 10 or 12 miles south-east of Kaṛah, not far from the river.

On the same day, though the heat was terrible, Akbar started for and reached Allāhābād.

Khār Zamān as a poet styled himself Sultān (vide Proceedings Asiatic Society, September, 1868). Zamāniyā (now a station on the E. I. Railway) was founded by him. Though an Uzbak, Khān Zamān, from his long residence in Persia was a staunch Shī^cah. Khān Zamān must not be confounded with No. 124.

14. SAbdu 'llah Khan Uzbak.

A noble of Humayun's Court. After the defeat of Hemu, he received the title of Shujasat Khan, got Kalpi as tuyül, and served under Adham Khan (No. 19) in Gujrat. When Baz Bahadur, after the death of Pir Muhammad, had taken possession of Mālwa, Abdu 'llah was made a Panjhazārī, and was sent to Mālwa with almost unlimited authority. He re-conquered the province, and "reigned in Mandu like a king". Akbar found it necessary to move against him. Abdu 'llah, after some unsuccessful fighting, fled to Gujrāt, pursued by Qāsim Khān of Nīshāpūr (No. 40). Leaving his wives in the hands of his enemies, he fled with his young son to Changiz Khan, an officer of Sultan Mahmud of Gujrat. Hakim Ayn. I Mulk was dispatched to Changiz with the request to deliver up Abdu'llsh, or to dismiss him. Changiz Khan did the latter. SAbdu 'llah again appeared in Malwa, and was hotly pursued by Shahabu 'd-Din Ahmad Khan (No. 26), who nearly captured him. With great difficulties he eluded his pursuers, and managed to reach Jaunpur, where he died a natural death during the rebellion of Khan Zaman (No. 13).

15. Shamsu d-Din Muhammad Atga Khan.

Son of Mir Yar Muhammad of Ghazni, a simple farmer. Shamsu'd-Din, when about twenty years old, once dreamed that he held the moon under his arm, which dream was justified by the unparalleled luck which he owed to a little deed of kindness. Shamsu'd-Din entered

Prince Kāmrān's service as a common soldier, and was present in the fatal battle of Qanawj (10th Muḥarram, 947). Humāyūn, after the defeat, crossed the river "on an elephant", and dismounted on the other side, where a soldier who had escaped death in the current, stretched out his hand to assist the emperor to jump on the high bank. This soldier was Shamsu 'd-Dīn, Humāyūn attached him to his service, and subsequently appointed his wife wet nurse (angā) to Prince Akbar at Amarkot, conferring upon her the title of Jī Jī Anaga. Shamsu 'd-Dīn remained with the young prince whilst Humāyūn was in Persia, and received after the emperor's restoration the title of Atga (foster father) Khān. Humāyūn sent him to Hiṣār, which Sirkār had been set aside for Prince Akbar's maintenance.

After Akbar's accession, Atga Khān was dispatched to Kābul to bring to India the Empress mother and the other Begums. Soon after, on the march from Mankot to Lāhor, the elephant affair took place, which has been related under Bayrām Khān, p. 331. He held Khushāb in the Panjāb as jāgīr, and received, after Bayrām's fall, the insignia of that chief. He was also appointed Governor of the Panjāb. He defeated Bayrām Khān near Jālindhar, before Akbar could come up, for which victory Akbar honoured him with the title of A^czam Khān. In the sixth year, he came from Lāhor to the Court, and acted as Vakīl either in supersession of Mun^cim Khān or by "usurpation", at which Akbar connived. Mun^cim Khān and Shahāb Khān (No. 26) felt much annoyed at this, and instigated Adham (vide No. 19) to kill Atga Khān, 12th Ramazān, 969.

For Atga <u>Khān</u>'s brothers vide Nos. 16, 28, 63, and for his sons, Nos. 18 and 21. The family is often called in Histories Atga <u>Khāyl</u> * "the foster father battalion."

16. Khān-i Kalān Mīr Muhammad, elder brother of Atga Khān.

He served under Kāmrān and Humāyūn, and rose to high dignity during the reign of Akbar Whilst Governor of the Panjāb, where most of the Atgas (Atga Khayl) had jāgīrs, he distinguished himself in the war with the Ghakkars, the extirpation of Sultān Ādam, and in keeping down Kamāl Khān. In the ninth year he assisted Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm against Mīrzā Sulaymān (No. 5), restored him to the throne of Kābul, settled the country, and sent back the imperial troops under

¹ He stabled at the Atga, and ordered one of his own servants, an Uzbak, of the name of Khusham Beg, to kill him. Badā,oπī (p. 52) and Elphinstone (p. 502, l. 1) say that Adham himself killed Atga.

[[] Khayl, troop, tribe, etc.-P.]

his brother Quṭbu 'd-Dīn (No. 28), though Akbar had appointed the latter Atālīq of the Prince. But Khān-i Kalān did not get on well with M. M. Ḥakīm, especially when the Prince had given his sister Fakhru 'n-Nisā Begum (a daughter of Humāyūn by Jūjak Begum, and widow of Mīr Shāh ʿAbdu 'l-Maʿālī) to Khwāja Ḥasan Naqshbandī in marriage. To avoid quarrels, Khān-i Kalān left Kābul one night and returned to Lāhor.

In the 13th year (976) the Atga Khayl was removed from the Panjāb, and ordered to repair to Āgra Khān-i Kalān received Sambhal as jāgīr, whilst Ḥusayn Qulī Khān (No. 24) was appointed to the Panjāb. In 981, he was sent by Akbar in advance, for the reconquest of Gujrāt (Bad. II, 165). On the march, near Sarohī (Ajmīr), he was wounded by a Rājpūt, apparently without cause; but he recovered. After the conquest, he was made governor of Patan (Nahrwāla). He died at Patan in 983.

He was a poet and wrote under the takhallus of "Ghaznawi", in allusion to his birthplace. Badā, onī (III, 287) praises him for his learning.

His eldest son, Fāzil <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 156), was a *Hazārī*, and was killed when Mīrzā ^cAzīz Koka (No. 21) was shut up in Aḥmadnagar. His second son, Farru<u>kh Kh</u>ān (No. 232) was a *Panṣadī*. Nothing else is known of him.

17. Mīrzā Sharafu 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn, son of Khwāja Mu^cīn.

He was a man of noble descent. His father, Khāwja Musīn, was the son of Khāwand Maḥmūd, second son of Khwāja Kalān (known as Khwājagān Khwāja), eldest son of the renowned saint Khwāja Nāṣiru 'd-Dīn Ubaydu 'llah Aḥrār. Hence Mīrzā Sharafu 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn is generally called Aḥrārī.

His grandfather, Khāwaud Maḥmūd, went to India, was honorably received by Humāyūn, and died at Kābul.

His father, Khwāja Mu^cīn, was a rich, but avaricious man; he held the tract of land called "Rūdkhāna-yi Nasheb", and served under 'Abdu' 'lāh Khān, ruler of Kāshghar. He was married to Kījak Begum, daughter of Mīr 'Alā'u' 'l-Mulk of Tirmiz, who is a daughter of Fakhr Jahān Begum, daughter of Sultān Abū Sa'id Mīrzā. "Hence the blood of Timūr also flowed in the veins of Mīrzā Sharafu' 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn." As the son did not get on well with his father, he went to Akbar. Through the powerful influence of Māhum, Akbar's nurse, and Adham Khān, her son (No. 19), Mīrzā Sharaf was appointed Panjhuzārī. In the 5th year, Akbar gave him his sister Bakhshī Bānū Begum in marriage, and made him governor of Ajmīr and Nāgor. In 969, when Akbar went to Ajmīr, Mīrzā Sharaf joined the emperor, and distinguished himself in the siege

of Mairtha, which was defended by Jagmal and Devidas, the latter of whom was killed in an engagement subsequent to their retreat from the fort.

In 970, Mīrzā Sharaf's father came to Āgra, and was received with great honours by Akbar. In the same year, Mīrzā Sharaf, from motives of suspicion, fled from Agra over the frontier, pursued by Husayn Quli Khan (No. 24), and other grandees. His father, ashamed of his son's behaviour, left for Hijāz, but died at Cambav. The ship on which was his body, foundered. Mīrzā Sharaf stayed for some time with Changīz Khān, a Gujrāt noble, and then joined the rebellion of the Mīrzās. When Gujrāt was conquered, he fled to the Dakhin, and passing through Baglana, was captured by the Zamindar of the place, who after the conquest of Surat handed him over to Akbar. To frighten him, Akbar ordered him to be put under the feet of a tame elephant, and after having kept him for some time imprisoned, he sent him to Muzaffar Khān, Governor of Bengal (No. 37), who was to give him a jagir, should be find that the Mīrzā showed signs of repentance; but if not, to send him to Makkah. Muzaffar was waiting for the proper season to have him sent off, when Mir Massum-i Kābulī rebelled in Bihār. Joined by Bābā Khān Qāqshāl, the rebels besieged Muzaffar Khān in Tānda and overpowered him. Mīrzā Sharaf fled to them, after having taken possession of the hidden treasures of Muzaffar. But subsequently he became Ma^csūm's enemy. Each was waiting for an opportunity to kill the other. Ma^cşüm at last bribed a boy of the name of Mahmud, whom Mīrzā Sharaf liked, and had his enemy poisoned. Mîrzā Sharaf's death took place in 988. He is wrongly called Siefuddeen in Stewart's History of Bengal (p. 108).

18. Yūsuf Muhammad Khān, eldest son of Atga Khān (No. 15).

He was Akbar's foster brother (koka or kūkaltāsh). When twelve years old, he distinguished himself in the fight with Bayrām (p. 332, l. 9), and was made Khān. When his father had been killed by Adham Khān (No. 19) Akbar took care of him and his younger brother Azīz Koka (No. 21). He distinguished himself during the several rebellions of Khān Zamān (No. 13).

He died from excessive drinking in 973. Bad. II, p. 84.

19. Adham Khān,1 son of Māhum Anga.

The name of his father is unknown; he is evidently a royal bastard.

¹ Generally called in European histories Ādam Khān; but his name is ادهم, not ادهم, not ادهم.

His mother Māhum was one of Akbar's nurses $(ang\bar{a})$, and attended on Akbar "from the cradle till after his accession". She appears to have had unbounded influence in the Harem and over Akbar himself, and Munsim Khān (No. 11), who after Bayrām's fall had been appointed Vakīl, was subject to her counsel. She also played a considerable part in bringing about Payram's fall; Pad. II, p. 36.

Adham Khān was a Panjhazārī, and distinguished himself in the siege of Mankot.2 Bayram Khan, in the third year, gave him Hatkanth,3 South-East of Agra, as jagir, to check the rebels of the Bhadauriya clan, who even during the preceding reigns had given much trouble. Though he accused Bayram of partiality in bestowing bad jagirs upon such as he did not like, Adham did his best to keep down the Bhadau-After Bayram's fall, he was sent, in 968, together with Pir Muḥammad Khān to Mālwah, defeated Bāz Bahādur near Sārangpūr, and took possession of Bahādur's treasures and dancing girls. sudden fortune made him refractory; he did not send the booty to Agra, and Akbar thought it necessary to pay him an unexpected visit, when Mahum Anga found means to bring her son to his senses. Akbar left after four days. On his departure, Adham prevailed on his mother to send back two beautiful dancing girls; but when Akbar heard of it, Adham turned them away. They were captured, and killed by Māhum's orders. Akbar knew the whole, but said nothing about it. On his return to Agra, however, he recalled Adham, and appointed Pir Muhammad governor of Mālwah.

At Court, Adham met again Atga Khan, whom both he and Munsim Khan envied and hated. On the 12th Ramazan 969, when Munsim Khan, Atga Khan, and several other grandees had a nightly meeting in the state hall at Agra. Adham Khan with some followers, suddenly

among the events of the third year.

¹ This is the pronunciation given in the Calcutta Chagha'at Dictionary. Misled by the printed editions of Badā, onī. Firishta, Khāfī Khān, etc., I put on p. 223 of my text edition of the ASin. Māhum Atyah, as if it was the name of a man. Vide Khāfī Khān I, p. 132, l. 6 from below.

The Maçagir gives a short history of this fort, partly taken from the Akbarnama. Hatkanth was held by Rajputs of the Bhadauriya clan. Vide Beames's edition of Filiot's Glossary, II, p. 8d, and I, 27, where the word job is doubtful, though it is certainly not Jahore; for the old spelling "Luhāwar" for "Jahor" had ceased when the author of the Makhran-1 Afghānī wrote. Besides, a place in Gwäliär is meant, not far from the Sindh river. For job the two editions of Badā, onī have get; Dorn has got and the sindh river. Behair: Briggs has Yehar; the Lucknow edition or Firishta has Jy. There is a town and Pargana of the name of Jyl in Sirkar Rantaubhur.

The passage in the Akbarnama regarding Adham Khan quoted by Elliot may be found

Another nest of robbers was the eight villages, called Athgah, near Sakit, in the Sirkar of Ganawi.

entered. All rose to greet him, when Adham struck Atga with his dagger, and told one of his companions (vide p. 338) to kill him. He then went with the dagger in his hand towards the sleeping apartments of Akbar, who had been awakened by the noise in the state hall. Looking out from a window, he saw what had happened, rushed forward sword in hand, and met Adham on a high archway (aywān) near the harem. "Why have you killed my foster father, you son of a bitch?" (bachcha-yi lāda), cried Akbar. "Stop a moment, Majesty," replied Adham, seizing Akbar's arms, "first inquire." Akbar drew away his hands and struck Adham a blow in the face, which sent him "spinning" to the ground. "Why are you standing here gaping?" said Akbar to one of his attendants of the name of Farḥat Khān; "bind this man." This was done, and at Akbar's orders Adham Khān was twice thrown down from the dais (suffa) of the Aywān to the ground, with his head foremost. The corpses of Adham and Atga were then sent to Dihlī.

Māhum Anga heard of the matter, and thinking that her son had been merely imprisoned, she repaired, though sick, from Dihlī to Āgra. On seeing her, Akbar said, "He has killed my foster father, and I have taken his life." "Your Majesty has done well," replied Māhum, turning pale, and left the hall. Forty days after, she died from grief, and was buried with her son in Dihlī in a tomb which Akbar had built for them. For Adham's brother, vide No. 60.

20. Pir Muhammad Khān of Shīrwān.1

Nothing is known of his father. Pîr Muḥammad was a Mullâ, and attached himself to Bayrām in Qandahār. Through Bayrām's influence he was raised to the dignity of Amīr on Akbar's accession. He distinguished himself in the war with Hemū, and received subsequently the title of Nāṣiru'l-Mulk. His pride offended the Chaghatā'ī nobles, and, at last, Bayrām himself to whom he once refused admittance when he called on him at a time he was sick.

Bayrām subsequently ordered him to retire, sent him, at the instigation of Shaykh Gadā*ī (vide p. 282) to the Fort of Biyāna, and then forced him to go on a pilgrimage. Whilst on his way to Gujrāt, Pīr Muḥammad received letters from Adham Khān (No. 19) asking him to delay. He stayed for a short time at Rantanbhūr; but being pursued by Bayrām's men, he continued his journey to Gujrāt. This harsh treatment annoyed Akbar, and accelerated Bayrām's fall. Whilst in Gujrāt, P. M. heard of

¹ In my text edition, p. 223, No. 20, dele بير, Shirwan is also the birth-place of Khāqānī. The spelling Sharwan given in the Mucjam does not appear to be usual.

Bayrām's disgrace, and returned at once to Akbar who made him a Khān. In 968, he was appointed with Adham Khān to conquer Mālwah, of which he was made sole governor after Adham's recall. In 969, he defeated Bāz Bahādur who had invaded the country, drove him away, and took Bījāgarh from Istimād Khān, Bāz Bahādur's general. He then made a raid into Khandes, which was governed by Mīrān Muḥammad Shāh, sacked the capital Burhānpūr, slaughtered most unmercifully the inhabitants, and carried off immense booty, when he was attacked by Bāz Bahādur and defeated. Arriving at night on his flight at the bank of the Narbaddah, he insisted on crossing it, and perished in the river.

21. Khán-i Aszam Mīrzā SAzīz Koka, son of Atga Khān (No. 15).

His mother was Jī Jī Anaga (vide p. 338). He grew up with Akbar, who remained attached to him to the end of his life. Though often offended by his boldness, Akbar would but rarely punish him; he used to say, "Between me and 'Azīz is a river of milk which I cannot cross."

On the removal of the Atga Khūyl (p. 338) from the Panjāb, he retained Dīpālpūr, where he was visited by Akbar in the 16th year (978) on his pilgrimage to the tomb of Shaykh Farīd-i Shakkarganj at Ajhodhan (Pāk Patan, or Patan-i Panjāb).

In the 17th year, after the conquest of Ahmacābād, Mīrzā SAzīz was appointed governor of Gujrāt as far as the Mahindra river, whilst Akbar went to couquer Sūrat. Muhammad Husavn Mīrzā and Shāh Mīrzā, joined by Sher Khān Fūlādī, thereupon beseiged Patan; but they were at last defeated by Mīrzā SAzīz and Qulbu d-Dīn. SAzīz then returned to Ahmadābād. When Akbar, on the 2nd Şafar 981, returned to Fathpūr Sīkrī, Ikhtiyāru l-Mulk, a Gujrātī noble, occupied īdar, and then moved against SAzīz in Ahmadabād. Muhammad Husayn Mīrzā also came from the Dakhin, and after attacking Kambhāyit (Cambay), they besieged Ahmadābād. SAzīz held himself bravely. The siege was raised by Akbar, who surprised the rebels near Patan. During the fight Muhammad Husayn Mīrzā and Ikhtiyāru l Mulk were killed. The victory was chiefly gained by Akbar himself, who with 100 chosen men fell upon the enemy from an ambush. SAzīz had subsequently to fight with the sons of Ikhriyāru l-Mulk.

In the 20th year Akbar introduced the Dagh ($\bar{\Lambda}^{\epsilon}$ in 7), which proved a source of great dissatisfaction among the Amīrs. Mīrzā $\bar{\Lambda}$ Azīz especially

Akbar left Ägra on the 4th Rabis I. and attacked the Mirzäs on the nirth day after his departure. The distance between Ägra and Patan being 400 kes, Akbar's forced march has often been admired. Briggs, II, p. 241. [This differs from the Akbar-nama.—B.]

showed himself so disobedient that Akbar was compelled to deprive him temporarily of his rank.

Though restored to his honours in the 23rd year, M. Azīz remained unemployed till the 25th year (988), when disturbances had broken out in Bengal and Bihar (vide Muzaffar Khan, No. 37). Azīz was promoted to a command of Five Thousand, got the title of Aczam Khan, and was dispatched with a large army to quell the rebellion. His time was fully occupied in establishing order in Bihar. Towards the end of the 26th year, he rejoined the emperor, who had returned from Kābul to Fathpūr Sikri. During Azīz's absence from Bihār, the Bengal rebels had occupied Hajīpūr, opposite Patna; and Azīz, in the 27th year, was again sent to Bihar, with orders to move into Bengal. After collecting the Tuyuldars of Ilāhābād, Audh, and Bihār, he occupied Garhī, the "key" of Bengal. After several minor fights with the rebels under Macsum-i Kābulī, and Majnun Khān Qāqshāl, Azīz succeeded in gaining over the latter, which forced Macsum to withdraw. The imperial troops then commenced to operate against Qutlu, a Lohānī Afghān, who during these disturbances had occupied Orīsā and a portion of Bengal. SAzīz, however, took this ill, and handing over the command to Shahbaz Khan-i Kambu, returned to his lands in Bihar. Soon after, he joined Akbar at Ilahabad, and was transferred to Garha and Rāisīn. (993).

In the 31st year (994), M. SAzīz was appointed to the Dakhin; but as the operations were frustrated through the envy of Shahābu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad (No. 26) and other grandees, SAzīz withdrew, plundered Ilichpūr in Barār, and then retreated to Gujrāt, where the Khān Khānān was (Briggs, II, 257).

In the 32nd year, Prince Murad married a daughter of M. Azīz. Towards the end of the 34th year, Azīz was appointed Governor of Gujrāt in succession to the Khān Khānān. In the 36th year, he moved against Sultān Muzaffar, and defeated him in the following year. He then reduced Jām and other zamindārs of Kachh to obedience, and conquered Somnāt and sixteen other harbour towns (37th year). Jūnāgarh also, the capital of the ruler of Sorath, submitted to him (5th Zī Qaʿda 999), and Miyan Khān and Tāj Khān, sons of Dawlat Khān ibn i Amīn Khān-i Ghorī, joined the Mughals. Azīz gave both of them jāgīrs. He had now leisure to hunt down Sultān Muzaffar, who had taken refuge with a Zamīndār of Dwārkā. In a fight the latter lost his life, and Muzaffar fled to Kachh, followed by Azīz. There also the Zamīndārs submitted, and seon after delivered Sultān Muzaffar into his hands. No sooner had he been brought

to the Mīrzā than he asked for permission to step aside to perform a call of nature, and cut his throat with a razor.

In the 39th year Akbar recalled M. 'Azīz, as he had not been at Court for several years; but the Mīrzā dreading the religious innovations at Court,¹ marched against Diu under the pretext of conquering it. He made, however, peace with the "Farangī" and embarked for Hijāz at Balāwal, a harbour town near Somnāt accompanied by his six younger sons (Khurram, Anwar, 'Abdu 'lah, 'Abdu 'l-Latīf, Murtaṣā, 'Abdu 'l-Ghafūr), six daughters, and about one hundred attendants. Akbar felt sorry for his sudden departure, and with his usual magnanimity, promoted the two eldest sons of the Mīrzā (M. Shamsī and M. Shādmān).

M. 'Azīz spent a great deal of money in Makkah, in fact he was so "fleeced", that his attachment to Islām was much cooled down; and being assured of Akbar's good wishes for his welfare, he embarked for India, landed again at Balāwal, and joined Akbar in the beginning of 1003. He now became a member of the "Divine Faith" (vide p. 217, l. 33), was appointed Governor of Bihār, was made Vakīl in 1004, and received Multān as Jāgīr.

In the 45th year (1008) he accompanied Akbar to Āsīr. His mother died about the same time, and Akbar himself assisted in carrying the coffin. Through the mediation of the Mīrzā, Bahādur Khan, ruler of Khandes, ceded Āsīr to Akbar towards the end of the same year. Soon after. Prince Khusraw married one of 'Āzīz's daughters.

At Akbar's death, Man Singh and M. SAzīzwere anxious to proclaim Khusraw successor; but the attempt failed, as Shaykh Farid-i Bukhārī and others had proclaimed Jahangīr before Akbar had closed his eyes. Mān Singh left the Fort of Agra with Khusraw, in order to go to Bengal. SAzīz wished to accompany him, sent his whole family to the Rāja, and superintended the burial of the deceased monarch. He countenanced Khusraw's rebellion, and escaped capital punishment through the intervession of several courtiers, and of Salīma Sultān Begum and other princesses of Akbac's harem. Not long after, Khwāja Abū 'l-Ḥasan laid before Jahāngīr a letter written some years ago by SAzīz to Rāja SAlī Khān of Khandes, in which SAzīz had ridiculed Akbar in very strong language. Jahāngīr gave SAzīz the letter and asked him to read it before

M. CAZIZ ridiculed Akbar's tendencies to Hinduism and the orders of the "Divine "aith". He used to call Fayzī and Abū l'-Fazl, CUamān and CAlī. His disparaging remarks led to his disgrace on the accession of Jahāngīr, as related below.

the whole Court, which he did without the slightest hesitation, thus incurring the blame of all the courtiers present. Jahangir deprived him of his honours and lands, and imprisoned him.

In the 3rd year of Jahāngīr's reign (1017), M. Azīz was restored to his rank, and appointed (nominally) to the command of Gujrāt, his eldest son, Jahāngīr Qulī Khān, being his nā ib. In the 5th year, when matters did not go on well in the Dakhin, he was sent there with 10,000 men. In the 8th year (1022), Jahāngīr went to Ajmīr, and appointed, at the request of Azīz, Shāhjahān to the command of the Dakhin forces, whilst he was to remain as adviser. But Shāhjahān did not like M. Azīz on account of his partiality for Khusraw, and Mahābat Khān was dispatched from Court to accompany Azīz from Udaipūr to Āgra. In the 9th year, Azīz was again imprisoned, and put under the charge of Āṣaf Khān in the Fort of Gwāliyār (Tuzuk, p. 127). He was set free a year later, and soon after restored to his rank. In the 18th year, he was appointed Atālīq to Prince Dāwar Bakhsh, who had been made Governor of Gujrāt. M. Azīz died in the 19th year (1033) at Aḥmadābād.

'Azīz was remarkable for ease of address, intelligence, and his knowledge of history. He also wrote poems. Historians quote the following aphorism from his "pithy" sayings. "A man should marry four wives—a Persian woman to have somebody to talk to; a Khurāsānī woman, for his housework; a Hindu woman, for nursing his children; and a woman from Māwarānnahr, to have some one to whip as a warning for the other three." Vide Ibgālnāma, p. 230.

Koka means "foster brother", and is the same as the Turkish Kükaldāsh or Kūkaltāsh.

Mîrzā Azīz's sons. 1. Mīrzā Shamsī (No. 163). He has been mentioned above. During the reign of Jahāngīr he rose to importance, and received the title of Jahāngīr Qulī Khān.

- 2. Mīrzā Shādmān (No. 233). He received the title of Shād. Khān. Tuzuk, p. 99.
- 3. Mīrzā Khurrum (No. 177). He was made by Akbar governor of Jūnāgarh in Gujrāt, received the title of Kāmil Khān under Jahāngīr, and accompanied Prince Khurram (Shāhjahān) to the Dakhin.
- 4. Mīrzā ⁴Abdu 'llah (No. 257) received under Jahāngīr the title of Sardār Khān. He accompanied his father to Fort Gwāliyār.
- 5. Mīrzā Anwar (No. 206) was married to a daughter of Zayn Khān Koka (No. 34).

All of them were promoted to commanderships of Five and Two Thousands. 'Azīz's other sons have been mentioned above.

A sister of M. SAzīz, Māh Bānū, was married to SAbdu 'r-Rahīm Khān Khānān. (No. 29).

22. Bahādur Khān-i Shaybānī, (younger) brother of Khān Zamān. (No. 13).

His real name is Muḥammad Sa*id. Humāyūn on his return from Persia put him in charge of the District of Dāwar. He then planned a rebellion and made preparations to take Qandahār, which was commanded by Shāh Muḥammad Khān of Qalāt (No. 95). The latter, however, fortified the town and applied to the king of Persia for help, as he could not expect Humāyūn to send him assistance. A party of Qizilbāshes attacked Bahādur, who escaped.

In the 2nd year, when Akbar besieged Mānkot, Bahādur, at the request of Bayrām Khān, was pardoned, and received Multān as jāgīr. In the 3rd year, he assisted in the conquest of Mālwa. After Bayrām's fall, through the influence of Māhum Anga (vide p. 310), he was made Vakī!, and was soon after appointed to Itāwa (Sirkār of Āgra).

Subsequently he took an active part in the several rebellions of his elder brother (vide p. 336). After his capture, Shāhbāz Khān i-Kambū (No. 80) killed him at Akbar's order.

Like his brother he was a man of letters (Bad. III, 239).

23. Rāja Bihārī Mal, son of Prithirāj Kachhwāha.

In some historical MSS. he is called Bihārā Mal. There were two kinds of Kachhwāha, Rājāwat and Shaykhāwat. to the former of which Bihārī Mal belonged. Their ancient family scat was Amber in the Şūba of Ajmīr. Though not so extensive as Marwār, the revenues of Amber were larger.

Bibārī Mal was the first Rājpūt that joined Akbar's Court. The flight of Humāyūn from India had been the cause of several disturbances. Hājī Khān, a servant of Sher Khān, had attacked Nārnaul, the jāgīr of Majnūn Khān Qāqshāl (No. 50), who happened to be a friend of the Rāja's. Through his intercession both came to an amicable settlement; and Majnūn Khān, after the defeat of Hemū (963), brought Bihārī Mal's services to the notice of the emperor. The Rāja was invited to come to court, where he was presented before the end of the first year of Akbar's reign. At the interview Akbar was seated on a wild (mast)² elephant,

¹ The "flight" of Humāyūn from India was a delicate subject for Mughul historians. Abū 'l-Fatl generally uses suphemisms, as da waqiCa-yi naguzir, "that unavoidable event," or ribles (departure); or amadan-i Sher Khān, the coming of Sher Khān (not Sher Shāh), etc.

^{*} Mast, in rut; furious.-P.]

and as the animal got restive and ran about, the people made way; only Bihārī Mal's Rājpūt attendants, to the surprise of Akbar, stood firm.

In the 6th year of his reign (969), Akbar made a pilgrimage to the tomb of Mucin-i Chishti at Ajmīr, and at Kalālī, Chaghtā Khān reported to the Emperor, that the Raja had fortified himself in the passes, as Sharafu 'd-Dīn Husayn (No. 17), Governor of Mālwa, had made war upon him, chiefly at the instigation of Sojā, son of Pūran Mal, elder brother of the Raja. Sharafu'd-Din had also got hold of Jagnath (No. 69), son of the Rāja, Rāj Singh (No. 174), son of Askaran, and Kangār, son of Jagmal (No. 134), his chief object being to get possession of Amber itself. At Deosa, 40 miles east of Jaipūr, Jaima, son of Rūpsī (No. 118), Bihārī Mal's brother, who was the chief of the country, joined Akbar, and brought afterwards, at the request of the emperor, his father Rüpsi. At Sanganir, at last, Bihari Mal with his whole family, attended, and was most honorably received. His request to enter Akbar's service and to strengthen the ties of friendship by a matrimonial alliance, was granted. On his return from Ajmīr, Akbar received the Rāja's daughter at Sambhar, and was joined, at Ratan, by the Raja himself, and his son Bhagawant Das, and his grandson Kuwar Man Singh. They accompanied Akbar to Agra, where Bihārī Mal was made a Commander of Five Thousand. Soon after Bihari Mal returned to Amber. He died at Agra (Tabaqat).

Amber is said to have been founded A.D. 967 by Dholā Rāy, son of Sorā, of whom Bihārī Mal was the 18th descendant.¹

The Akbernama mentions the names of four brothers of Bibari Mal. 1. Püran Mal; 2. Rüpsi (No. 118); 3. Askaran (vide No. 174); 4. Jagmal (No. 134). Bihari Mal is said to have been younger than Püran Mal, but older than the other three.

Three sons of Bihārī Mal were in Akbar's service—1. Bhagwān Dās (No. 27); 2. Jagannāth (No. 69); and 3. Salhadī (No. 267).

24. Khān Jahān Husayn Quli Khān,2 son of Walī Beg Zū 'l-Qadr.

He is the son of Bayram Khan's sister. His father Wali Beg Zū'l-Qadr was much attached to Bayram, and was captured in the fight in the Pargana of (Jālindhar, vide p. 332, l. b), but died immediately afterwards from the wounds received in battle. Akbar looked upon him as the chief instigator of Bayram's rebellion, and ordered his head to

² Husayn Quli Beg. Masagir,

¹ The present Maharaja of Jaipur is the 34th descendant; ride Selections Government of India. No. LXV, 1868. Amber was deserted in 1728, when Jai Singh II founded the modern Jaipur.

be cut off, which was sent all over Hindustan. When it was brought to Iṭāwa, Bahādur Khān (No. 22) killed the foot soldiers (tawāchīs) that carried it. Khān Jahān had brought Bayrām's insignia from Mewāt to Akbar, and as he was a near relation of the rebel, he was detained and left under charge of Āṣaf Khān ʿAbdu ʿl-Majīd, Commander of Dihlī. When Bayrām had been pardoned, Khān Jahān was released. He attached himself henceforth to Akbar.

In the 8th year (end of 971) he was made a Khān and received orders to follow up Sharafu 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn (No. 17). Ajmīr and Nāgor were given him as tuyūl. He took the Fort of Jodhpūr from Chandar Sen, son of Rāy Māldeo, and distinguished himself in the pursuit of Udai Singh during the siege of Chītor.

In the 13th year (976) he was transferred to the Panjab, whither he

went after assisting in the conquest of Rantanbhur.

In the 17th year he was ordered to take Nagarkot, which had belonged to Rāja Jai Chand. Badā,onī says (II, p. 161) that the war was merely undertaken to provide Bīr Bar with a jāgīr. Akbar had Jai Chand imprisoned, and Budī¹ Chand, his son, thinking that his father was dead, rebelled. Khān Jahān, on his way, conquered Fort Kotla, reached Nagarkot in the beginning of Rajab 980, and took the famous Bhawan temple outside of the Fort. The siege was progressing and the town reduced to extremities, when it was reported that Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn Mīrzā and Masūd Mīrzā had invaded the Panjāb. Khān Jahān therefore accepted a payment of five mans of gold and some valuables, and raised the siege. He is also said to have erected a Masūd in front of Jai Chand's palace in the Fort, and to have read the Khutha in Akbar's name (Friday, middle of Shawwāl 980).

Accompanied by Ismā'il Quii Khān and Mīrzā Yūsuf Khān-i Rizawi (No. 35), Khān Jahān marched against the Mīrzās, surprised them in the Pargana of Talamba, 40 kos from Multān, and defeated them. Ibrāhim Husayn Mīrzā escaped to Multān, but Mas'ūd Husayn and several other

Miraas of note were taken prisoners.

In the 18th year (981) when Akbar returned to Agra after the conquest of Gujrāt, he invited his Amīrs to meet him, and Khān Jahān also came with his prisoners, whom he had put into cow skins with horns on, with their eyelids sewn together. Akbar had their eyes immediately opened, and even pardoned some of the prisoners. The victorious

^{[4} General Cunningham tells me that the correct name is Bidhi (Sansk. Vriddhi), not Budi, side Index.—B.]

general received the title of Khān Jahān, "a title in reputation next to that of Khan Khanan." About the same time Sulayman, ruler of Badakhshan (p. 326) had come to India, driven away by his grandson Shahrukh (No.7), and Khan Jahan was ordered to assist him in recovering his kingdom. But as in 983 Muncim Khan Khanan died, and Bengal was unsettled, Khān Jahān was recalled from the Panjāb, before he had moved into Badakhshān, and was appointed to Bengal, Rāja Todar Mal being second in command. At Bhagalpur, Khan Jahan was met by the Amirs of Bengal, and as most of them were Chaghtati nobles, he had, as Qizilbash, to contend with the same difficulties as Bayram Khan had had. He repulsed the Afghans who had come up as far as Garhi and Tanda; but he met with more decided opposition at Ag Mahal, where Dasud Khan had fortified himself. The Imperialists suffered much from the constant sallies of the Afghans. Khan Jahan complained of the wilful neglect of his Amīrs, and when Akbar heard of the death of Khwāja Abdu 'llah Naqshbandī, who had been purposely left unsupported in a skirmish, he ordered Muzaffar Khan, Governor of Bihar (No. 37) to collect his Jāgīrdārs and join Khān Jahān (984). The fights near Āg Mahal were now resumed with new vigour. During a skirmish a cannon ball wounded Junayd-i Kararānī, Dāsūd's uncle,1 which led to a general battle (15th Rabis II, 984). The right wing of the Afghans, commanded by Kālā Pahār, gave way when the soldiers saw their leader wounded, and the centre under Das ūd was defeated by Khan Jahan. Das ūd himself was captured and brought to Khān Jahān, who sent his head to Akbar.

After this great victory, Khan Jahan dispatched Todar Mal to Court, and moved to Satgaw (Hügli) where Datud's family lived. Here he defeated the remnant of Dasud's adherents under Jamshed and Mitti, and reannexed Satgaw, which since the days of old had been called Bulghākkhāna,2 to the Mughul empire. Dā*ūd's mother came to Khān Jahān as a suppliant.

Soon after Malku Sa,i,3 Raja of Kuch Bihar sent tribute and 54 elephants, which Khan Jahan dispatched to Court.

With the defeat and death of Dasud, Bengal was by no means conquered. New troubles broke out in Bhāti,4 where the Afghāns had

¹ The Ed. Bibl. Indica of Bada, oni (II, 238) has by mistake 'uncle'. Bada, oni says

that the battle took place near Colgong (Khalyaw).

This nickname of Satyaw is evidently old. Even the word bulghak (rebellion), which may be found on almost every page of the Tarikh-i Firaz Shāhī, is scarcely ever met with in historical works from the 10th century. It is now quite obsolete.

^{[*} Bal Goea, i.-B.] For Bhats, vide below under No. 32.

collected under Karim Däd, Ibrähim, and the rich Zamindär fisä (عيسو). With great difficulties Khān Jahān occupied that district, assisted by a party of Afghāns who had joined him together with Dātūd's mother at Go,ās; and returned to Şihhatpūr, a town which he had founded near Tanda. Soon after, he felt ill, and died after a sickness of six weeks in the same year (19th Shawwāl, 986).

Abū 'l-Fazl remarks that his death was opportune, inasmuch as the immense plunder collected by Khān Jahān in Bengal, had led him to the

verge of rebellion.

Khān Jāhān's son, Rizā Qulī (No. 274) is mentioned below among the Commanders of Three Hundred and Fifty. In the 47th year he was made a Commander of Five Hundred with a contingent of 300 troopers. Another son, Raḥīm Qulī, was a Commander of Two Hundred and Fifty (No. 333). For Khān Jahān's brother, vide No. 46.

25. Sasid Khan, son of Yasqub Beg, son of Ibrahim Jabuq.

He is also called Sa^cīd Khān-i Chaghtā^cī. His family had long been serving under the Tīmūrides. His grandfather Ibrāhīm Beg was an Amīr of Humāyūn's, and distinguished himself in the Bengal wars. His son, Yūsuf Reg, was attacked near Jaunpūr by Jalāl Khān (i.e., Salīm Shāh), and killed. His other son also, Ya^cqūb, Sa^cīd's father, distinguished himself under Humāyūn. According to the Tabaqāt, he was the son of the brother of Jahāngīr Qulī Beg, governor of Bengal under Humāyūn.

Sacid rose to the highest honours under Akbar. He was for some time Governor of Multan, and was appointed, in the 22nd year, ataliq of Prince Danyal. Some time after, he was made Subahdar of the Panjab, in supercession to Shah Quli Muhrim (No. 45), of whom the inhabitants of the Panjab had successfully complained. Savid again was succeeded in the governorship by Rāja Bhagwan Dās (No. 27), and received Sambhal as tuyul. In the 28th year, he was called to Court, was made a Commander of Three Thousand, and was sent to Hajipur (Patna) as successor to Mīrzā Azīz Koka (No. 21) In the 32nd year, when Vazir Khan (No. 41) had died in Bengal, Sacid was made Governor of Bengal, which office he held till the 40th year. He was also promoted to the rank of Panjhazārī. In the 40th year, Man Singh (No. 30) being appointed to Bengal, he returned to Court, and was, in the following year, again made Governor of Bihar. In the 48th year (1001), when Miras Chazi rebelled in Thatha after the death of his father, Mīrza Janī Beg (No. 47), Sacid was appointed to Multan and Bhakkar, and brought about the submission of the rebel.

After the accession of Jahangir, he was offered the Governorship of

the Paniab on the condition that he should prevent his eunuchs from committing oppressions, which he promised to do. (Tuzuk, p. 6, l. 2.) He died, however, before joining his post, and was buried "in the garden of Sarhind ".

His affairs during his lifetime were transacted by a Hindu of the name of Chetr Bhoj. Sacid had a passion for eunuchs, of whom he had 1,200.1 One of these Khwājasarās, Hilāl, joined afterwards Jahāngīr's service; he built Hilālābād, six kos N.W. from Āgra, near Rankatta,2 regarding which the Matair tells an amusing incident. Another eunuch, Ikhtiyar Khan, was his Vakīl, and another, Istibar Khan, the Fawjdar of his jagir. For Sa'id's brother, vide No. 70.

26. Shihāb Khān, a Sayyid of Nīshāpūr.

His full name is Shihābu 'd-Dīn Ahmad Khān. He was a relation and friend of Māhum Anga (p. 341), and was instrumental in bringing about Bayram's fall. From the beginning of Akbar's reign, he was Commander of Dihli. When Akbar, at the request of Mahum, turned from Sikandarābād to Dihlī to see his sick mother, Shihāb Khān told him that his journey, undertaken as it was without the knowledge of Bayram Khan, might prove disastrous to such grandees as were not Bayram's friends; and the Chaghtati nobles took this opportunity of reiterating their complaints, which led to Bayram's disgrace.

As remarked on p. 337, Shihāb served in Mālwah against Abdu 'llah-Khan.

In the 12th year (975) he was appointed Governor of Malwah, and was ordered to drive the Mirzas from that province. In the 13th year, he was put in charge of the Imperial domain lands, as Muzaffar Khān (No. 37) had too much to do with financial matters.

In the 21st year, he was promoted to a command of Five Thousand, and was again appointed to Malwah: but he was transferred, in the following year, to Guirat, as Vazīr Khan (No. 41) had given no satisfaction. He was, in the 28th year, succeeded by Istimad Khan (No. 119), and intended to go to Court; but no sooner had he left Ahmadabad than he was deserted by his servants, who in a body joined Sultan Muzaffar. The events of the Gujrāt rebellion are known from the histories. When Mīrzā Khān Khānān (No. 29) arrived, Shihāb was attached to Qulij

and Rankattä.

¹ If not acquired in Bengal, this predilection could not have been better satisfied elsewhere. The eunuchs of Bengal and Silhat were renowned; for interesting passages vide below, Third Book, Sūba of Bengal, and Tuzuk-i Jahāngīrī, pp. 72, 328.

Sikandra (or Bihishtābād). where Akbar's tomb is, lies halfway between Agra

Khān (Mālwah Corps). He distinguished himself in the conquest of Bahrāch (992), and received that district as tuyūl. In the 34th year (997), he was again made Governor of Mālwa, in succession to M. SAzīz Koka (No. 21).

Shihāb died in Mālwah (Ujain, Tabaqāt) in 999. His wife, Bābā Āghā, was related to Akbar's mother; she died in 1005.

During the time Shihāb was Governor of Dihlī, he repaired the canal which Fīrūz Shāh had cut from the Parganah of Khizrābād to Safīdūn; and called it Nahr-i Shihāb. This canal was again repaired, at the order of Shāhjahān, by the renowned Makramat Khān, and called it Nahr, (20th year of Shāhjahān). During the reign of Awrangzeh it was again obstructed, but has now again been repaired and enlarged by the English. (Āṣār*'ṣ-ṣanādīd.)

27. Rāja Bhagwān Dās, son of Rāja Bihārī Mal.

In the histories we find the spellings Bhagwant, Bhagwānt, and Bhagwān. He joined Akbar's service with his father (No. 23). In 980, in the fight with Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn Mīrzā near Sarnāl (Briggs, Sartāl), he saved Akbar's life. He also distinguished himself against the Rānā of Īdar, whose son, Amr Singh, he brought to Court. When, in the 23rd year, the Kachwāhas had their tuyūls transferred to the Panjāb, Rāja Bh. D. was appointed Governor of the province. In the 29th year, Bh.'s daughter was married to Prince Salīm, of which marriage Prince Khusraw was the offspring. In the 30th year, Bh. D. was made a commander of Five Thousand and Governor of Zābulistān, as Mān Singh was sent against the Yūsufza.īs. But Akbar, for some reason, detained him In Khayrābād, Bh. D. had a fit of madness, and wounded himself with a dagger; but he recovered soon after in the hands of the Court Doctors. In the 32nd year, the jāgīrs of the Rāja and his family were transferred to Bihār, Mān Singh taking the command of the province.

Rāja Bh. D. died in the beginning of 998 at Lāhor, a short time after Rāja fodar Mal (No. 39). People say that on returning from Todar Mal's funeral, he had an attack of stranguary, of which he died. He had the title of Amīra 'l-SUmarā.

The Jami 'Masjid of Lahor was built by him.

Regarding his sons, vide Nos. 30, 104, 336.

29. Qutbu 'd-Din Khān, youngest brother of Atga Khān (15).

As he belonged to the Atga Khayl (vide p. 338), his twyūl was in the Panjāb. He founded several mosques, etc., at Lāhor.

In the 9th year (972), Akbar sent him to Kābul. During his stay there, he built a villa at Ghaznīn, his birth-place. On the transfer of the

"Atga Khayl" from the Panjāb, Q. was appointed to Mālwa. After the conquest of Gujrāt, he received as jāgīr the Sirkār of Bahroch (Broach), "which lies south of Aḥmadābād, and has a fort on the bank of the Narbuddā near its mouth." Subsequently he returned to Court, and was made a Commander of Five Thousand.

In the 24th year (12th Rajab, 987), he was appointed atālīq to Prince Salīm, received a dāgū,¹ and the title of Beglar Begī. Akbar also honoured him by placing at a feast Prince Salīm on his shoulders. Afterwards Q. was again appointed to Bahrōch "as far as Nazrbār". In the 28th year (991), Muzaffar of Gujrāt tried to make himself independent. Q. did not act in concert with other officers, and in consequence of his delay and timidity he was attacked and defeated by Muzaffar near Baroda. Q.'s servants even joined Muzaffar, whilst he himself retreated to the Fort of Baroda. After a short time he capitulated and surrendered to Muzaffar, who had promised not to harm him or his family. But at the advice of a Zamīndār, Muzaffar went to Bahrōch, occupied the fort in which Q.'s family lived, and confiscated his immense property (10 krors of rupees), as also 14 lacs of imperial money. Immediately after, Muzaffar had Q. murdered.

His son, Nawrang <u>Kh</u>ān, served under Mīrzā <u>Kh</u>ān <u>Kh</u>ānan (No. 29) in Gujrāt (992), received a jāgīr in Mālwa and subsequently in Gujrāt. He died in 999.

The MSS. of the *Tabaqāt*, which I consulted, contain the remark that Nawrang Khān was a Commander of Four Thousand, and was, in 1001, governor of Jūnāgarh.

His second son, Gūjar <u>Kh</u>ān, was a *Haftṣadī* (No. 193), and served chiefly under M. A^czam <u>Kh</u>ān Koka (No. 21). He also had a *tuyūl* in Guirāt.

29. Khán Khánan Mīrsā 'Abdu 'r-Rahim, son of Bayram Khán.

His mother was a daughter of Jamal Khan of Mewat.² In 961, when Humayun returned to India, he enjoined his nobles to enter into matrimonial alliances with the Zamindars of the country, and after marrying the eldest daughter of Jamal Khan, he asked Bayram Khan to marry the younger one.

M. Abdu 'r-Raḥīm was born at Lahor, 14th Safar 964. When Bayram Khān was murdered at Patan in Gujrāt (p. 332), his camp was plundered

A kind of warm mantle—a great distinction under the Timurides.
He was the nephew of Hasen Khān of Mewāt (Bad. I, p. 361). In the fourth Book of the Å*in. ÇAbū'!-Fazi says that the Khānzādas of Mewāt were chiefly converted Janāha Rāināta.

by some Afghāns; but Muḥammad Amīn Dīwāna and Bābā Zambūr managed to remove the child and his mother from the scene of plunder and bring them to Aḥmadābād, fighting on the road with the Afghān robbers. From Aḥmadābād, M. ʿAbdu 'r-Raḥīm was taken to Akbar (969), who, notwithstanding the insinuations of malicious courtiers, took charge of him. He gave him the title of Mīrzā Khān, and married him subsequently to Mah Bānū, sister of M. ʿAzīz Koka (No. 21).

In 981, M. Abdu 'r-Rahim accompanied Akbar on his forced march to Patan (p. 343). In 984 M. SA. was appointed to Gujrāt, Vazīr Khān having the management of the province. In the 25th year, he was made Mir SArz, and three years later, atālīq to Prince Salīm. Soon after, he was sent against Sultan Muzaffar of Gujrat. Muzaffar, during the first Gujrātī war, had fallen into the hands of Akbar's officers. He was committed to the charge of Munsim Khan (No. 11), and after his death, to the care of Shah Manşûr the Diwan (No. 122). But Muzaffar managed, in the 23rd year, to escape, and took refuge with the Kathis of Junagarh, little noticed or cared for by Akbar's officers. But when Istimad Khan was sent to Gujrāt to relieve Shihābu d-Dîn (No. 26), the servants of the latter joined Muzaffar, and the Gujrat rebellion commenced. Muzaffar took Ahmadabad, and recruited, with the treasures that fell into his hands (vide Qutbu 'd-Din, No. 28), an army of 40,000 troopers. Mirzā Abdu 'r-Rahim had only 10,000 troupers to oppose him, and though his officers advised him to wait for the arrival of Qulij Khan and the Mālwa contingent, Dawlat Khān Lodī (No. 309), M. A.'s Mīr Shamsher, reminded him not to spoil his laurels and claims to the Khan Khananship. M. SA. then attacked Muzaffar, and defeated him in the remarkable battle of Sarkich, three kos from Ahmadabad. On the arrival of the Mālwa contingent, M. SA. defeated Muzaffar a second time near Nādot. Muzaffar concealed himself in Rajoipla.

For these two victories Akbar made M. A. a Commander of Five Thousand, and gave him the coveted title of Khān Khānān. For this reason historians generally call him Mīrzā Khān Khānan.

When Gujrāt was finally conquered, M. Khān Khānān gave his whole property to his soldiers, even his inkstand, which was given to a soldier who came last and said he had not received anything. The internal affairs of Gujrāt being settled, Qulij Khān was left in the province, and M. SA. rejoined the Court.

In the 34th year he presented to Akbar a copy of his Persian translation of Babar's Chaghtā,ī Memoirs (Wāqi Li-i Bābarī).

Vide p. 105, last line.

Towards the end of the same year, he was appointed Vakil and received Jaunpūr as tuyūl; but in 999 his jāgīr was transferred to Multān, and he received orders to take Thatha (Sind). Passing by the Fort of Sahwān, he took the Fort of Lakhī, "which was considered the key of the country, just as Gaḍhī is in Bengal and Bārahmūla in Kashmīr." After a great deal of fighting Mīrzā Jānī Beg (No. 47), ruler of Thatha, made peace, which M. A., being hard pressed for provisions, willingly accepted. Sahwān was to be handed over to Akbar, M. Jānī Beg was to visit the emperor after the rains, and Mīrzā Īrich, M. A.'s eldest son, was to marry Jānī Beg's daughter. But as M. Jānī Beg, after the rains, delayed to carry out the stipulations, M. A. moved to Thatha and prepared himself to take it by assault, when M. Jānī Beg submitted and accompanied M. A. to Court. Thus Sindh was annexed.

When Sultan Murad assembled at Bahroch (Broach) his troops for the conquest of the Dakhin, Akbar dispatched M. SA. to his assistance, giving him Bhīlsā as jāgīr. After delaying there for some time, M. 5A. went to Ujain, which annoyed the Prince, though M. SA. wrote him that Rāja SAlī Khān,3 of Khāndes was on the point of joining the Imperialists, and that he would come with him. When M. SA. at last joined headquarters at Fort Chandor, 30 kos from Ahmadnagar, he was slighted by the Prince; and, in consequence of it, he hesitated to take an active part in the operations, leaving the command of his detachment chiefly in the hands of M. Shāhrukh (No. 7). Only on one occasion after Murād's departure from Ahmadnagar, he took a prominent part in the war. Muctamidu 'd-Dawla Suhayl Khan (Briggs II, 274; III, 308) threatened Prince Murad, who had been persuaded by his officers not to engage with him. M. A., Raja Ali Khan, and M. Shahrukh, therefore, took it upon themselves to fight the enemy. Moving in Jumada II, 1005, from Shāhpūr, M. SA. met Suhayl near the town of Ashtī, 12 kos from Pathri. The fight was unusually severe. Raja Alī Khan with five or six of his principal officers and five hundred troopers were killed (Briggs IV, 324). The night put an end to the engagement; but each party, believing itself victorious, remained under arms. When next morning, M. A.'s troopers went to the river [near Sūpā, Firishta] to get water, they were attacked by 25,000 of the enemy's horse. Dawlat Khan, who commanded

Also called Siwastan, on the right bank of the Indus. Lakhi (Lukkee) lies a little south of Sahwan.

The conquest of Sindh forms the subject of a Magnawi by Mullä Shikebi, whom Abū'l-Fazl mentions below among the poets of Akhar's age.
Khāfi Khān calls him Rēji ÇAH Khān.

M. A.'s avantguard, said to him, "It is dying a useless death to fall fighting with but 600 troopers against such odds." "Do you forget Dihli?", asked M. A. "If we keep up," replied Dawlat Khan, "against such odds, we have discovered a hundred Dihlis; and if we die, matters rest with God." Qāsim of Bārha 1 and several other Sayyids were near; and on hearing M. SA.'s resolution to fight, he said, "Well, let us fight as Hindustanis, nothing is left but death; but ask the Khan Khanan what he means to do." Dawlat Khan returned, and said to M. SA. "Their numbers are immense, and victory rests with heaven; point out a place where we can find you, should we be defeated." "Under the corpses," said M. SA. Thereupon they charged the flank of the enemy and routed them. After this signal victory, M. SA. distributed 75 lacs of rupees among his soldiers. At the request of the Prince, M. SA, was soon after recalled (1006).

In the same year Mah Banu, M. A.'s wife, died.

In the 44th year Prince Danyal was appointed to the Dakhin, and M. SA. was ordered to join the Prince, and besiege Ahmadnagar. The town, as is known from the histories, was taken after a siege of 4 months and 4 days.2 M. A. then joined the Court, bringing with him Bahadur ibn-i Ibrahim, who had been set up as Nizam Shah. Danyal was appointed governor of the newly conquered territory, which was called by Akbar Dandes,3 and married to Jana Begum, M. A.'s daughter The Khan Khanan was also ordered to repair to Ahmadnagar, to keep down a party that had made the son of Shah SAli, uncle of Murtaza, Nizum Shah.

After the death of Akbar, matters in the Dakhin did not improve. In the 3rd year of Jahangir (1017), M. A. promised to bring the war to a close in two years if he received a sufficient number of troops. Shahzada Parwiz, under the Atalia ship of Asaf Khan, Man Singh, Khān Jahān Lodi, and others, were appointed to assist M. A. He took the Prince in the rains from Burhanpur to Balaghat; but in consequence of the usual duplicity and rancour displayed by the Amīrs, the imperial array suffered from want of provisions and loss of cattle, and M. SA. was compelled to conclude a treaty dishonourable for Jahangir, who appointed

A combination of the words Danyel and Khandes.

¹ The Sayvids of Barba considered it their privilege to fight in the Hardwel or van Vide No. 75.

Abû'i Farl and the Lucknow edition of Firiahta call the eunuch who murdered Chand Bible was or may. Brigge has Hamid Khan. For Nihang Khān, which Briggs gives, all copies of the Akbarnāma and the Maçasir have Athang Khān. The Lucknow Ed. of Firiahta has Ahang Khān. The differences, moreover, between Abū 'i-Farl and Firiahta in details are very remarkable.

Khān Jahān Lodī as his successor, and sent Mahābat Khān, subsequently M. 'A.'s enemy, to bring the unsuccessful commander to Court.

In the 5th year, M. A. received Kālpī and Qanawj as tuyūl, with orders to crush the rebels in those districts (vide p. 341, note). Some time afterwards, M. A. was again sent to the Dakhin, as matters there had not improved; but he did not gain any advantage either.

In the 11th year (1025) Jahāngīr, at last, dispatched Prince Khurram, to whom he had given the title of Shāh.¹ Jahāngīr himself fixed his residence at Māndū in Mālwa, in order to be nearer the scene of war, while Shāh Khurram selected Burhānpūr as Head Quarters. Here the Prince also married the daughter of Shāhnawāz Khān, M. ʿA.'s son. ʿĀdil Shāh and Quṭbu 'l-Mulk sent tribute and submitted, and Jahāngīr bestowed upon ʿĀdil Shāh the title of Farzand (son); and ʿAmbar Malik handed over the keys of Aḥmadnagar and other Forts, together with the Parganas of Bālāghāt, which he had conquered. Shāh Khurram then appointed M. ʿA. Ṣūbahdār of Khāndes, Barār, and Aḥmadnagar, whilst Shāhnawāz Khān was appointed to Bālāghāt. Leaving 30,000 horse and 7,000 artillery in the Dakhin, Shāh Khurram joined his father at Māndū, where new honours awaited him.²

In the 15th year, Malik Ambar "broke" the treaty, and fell upon the Thanadars of the Mughuls. Darab Khan, M. A.'s second son, retreated from Balaghat to Balapur; and driven from there, he went to Burhanpur, where he and his father were besieged. On Shahjahan's approach, the besiegers dispersed.

In the 17th year (1031) Shāh 'Abbās of Persis attacked Qandahār, and Shāhjahān and 'Abdu'r-Raḥīm were called to Court to take command against the Persians; but before they joined, Prince Parwīz, through Nūr Jahān's influence, had been appointed heir-apparent, and Mahābat Khān had been raised to the dignity of Khān Khānān. Shāhjahān rebelled, returned with M. 'A. to Māndū, and then moved to Burhānpūr. On the march thither, Shāhjahān intercepted a letter which M. 'A. had secretly

^{1 &}quot;Since the time of Timir no Prince had received this title." Matagir. Shah Khurram received subsequently the title of Shahjahan, which he retained as king, in conjunction with the titles of Sahib Qiran-i Ṣanī and Asla Harrat (علي عفرت). The last title had also been used by Sulayman-i Kararāni, King of Bengal. Awrangzeb, in imitation of it, adopted the title of Asla Khagan.

He received the title of Shāhjahān and was made a Sīhāzārī, or Commander of Thirty Thousand, personal (brevet) rank, and a contingent of 20,000 (az uṣī va iẓāfa, i.e., his former contingent plus an increase in troope). He was also allowed a Ṣāndalī (vide p. 318), likewise a custom that had not been observed since the age of Tīmūr. Jahāngīr even came down from the Jhareks (the window in the State hall, familiar to all that have seen the halls of the palaces of Agra and Fathpūr Sīkrī), and placed a dish full of jewels and gold on Shāhjahān's head, distributing the whole (as night) among the Amīrs.

written to Mahābat Khān, whereupon he imprisoned him and his son Darab Khan, and sent him to Fort Asir, but released them soon after on parole. Parwiz and Mahābat Khān had, in the meantime, arrived at the Narbadda to capture Shāhjahān. Bayrām Beg, an officer of Shāhiahān's, had for this reason removed all boats to the left side of the river, and successfully prevented the imperials from crossing. At M. SA.'s advice, Shahjahan proposed, at this time, an armistice. He made M. SA. swear upon the Quran not to betray him, and sent him as ambassador to Parwiz. Mahābat Khān, knowing that the fords would not now be so carefully watched as before, effected a crossing, and M. SA., forgetful of his oath, joined Prince Parwiz, and did not return to Shahjahan, who now fled from Burhanpur, marching through Talingana to Orisa and Bengal. Mahābat and M. A. followed him up a short distance beyond the Tapti. M. SA. wrote to Raja Bhim, a principal courtier of the Dawlatshāhī party, to tell Shāhjahan, that he (M. SA.) would do everything in his power to detain the imperial army, if the prince would allow his sons to join him. Raja Bhim replied that the prince had still from five to six thousand followers, and that he would kill M. A.'s sons should it come to a fight. Shahjahan then moved into Bengal and Bihar, of which he made Darab Khan, who had evidently attached himself to the prince, Governor. Mahābat Khān had in the meantime returned to Ilâhābād to oppose Shāhjahān, and had placed M. SA., who looked upon him with distrust, under surveillance.

In the 21st year, Jahängīr ordered Mahābat Khān to send M. A. to court, where he was reinstated in his titles and honours. He afterwards retired to his jāgīr at Lāhor, when Mahābat Khān followed him and sent him back to Dihlī. Soon after the failure of his acheme of retaining possession of Jahāngīr's person, and the return of the monarch from Kābul, Mahābat Khān had to fly. Nūr Jahān now appointed M. A. to follow up Mahābat, and contributed herself twelve lacs of rupecs to the expedition. But before the necessary preparations had been completed, M. A. fell ill at Lāhor, and on his arrival at Dihlī, he died at the age of seventy-two, in the end of Jahāngīr's 21st year (1036). The words Khān Sipahsālār kū (where is the Khān Commander!) are the tārīkh of his death.

M. SA.'s great deeds are the conquests of Gujrāt and Sind and the defeat of Suhayl Khān of Bījapūr. During Jahāngīr's reign, he did nothing remarkable; nor was he treated with the respect which he had enjoyed during the lifetime of Akbar, though he was allowed to retain his rank. For nearly thirty years he had been serving in the Dakhin.

Every grandee, and even the princes, accused him of secret friendship with the rulers of the Dakhin, and Abd 'l-Fazl, on one occasion, gave his fatwa that M. A. was a rebel. Under Jahangir, he was the open friend of Malik Ambar; and Muhammad Massum, one of his servants, once informed the emperor that he would find Malik 'Ambar's correspondence in the possession of Abdu 'r-Rahim of Lakhnau (No. 197), who was much attached to M. A. Mahābat Khān was appointed to inquire into this; but Abdu 'r-Rahim of Lakhnau would not betray his friend. People said, M. SA.'s motto was, "people should hurt their enemies under the mask of friendship," and all seem to have been inclined to blame him for maliciousness and faithlessness. He used to get daily reports from his newswriters whom he had posted at various stations. He read their reports at night, and tore them up. But he was also proverbial for his liberality and love of letters. The Marairi Rahimi is a splendid testimony of his generosity; it shows that he was the Mœcenas of Akbar's age. People, by a happy comparison, called him Mir Ali Sher (vide p. 107, note 6). M. SA. wrote Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and Hindi with great fluency. As poet he wrote under the name of Rahīm.

Though his father had been a Shī'ah, M. 'A. was a Sunnī; but people said he was a Shī'ah, but practised taqiyya."

M. SA.'s most faithful servant was Miyan Fahim. People said, he was the son of a slave girl; but he appears to have been a Rājpūt. He grew up with M. SA.'s sons, and was as pious as he was courageous. He fell with his son Fīrūz Khān and 40 attendants in a fight with Mahābat Khān, who had imprisoned his master. M. SA. built him a tomb in Dihlī, which is now called Nīla Burj, near Humāyūn's tomb. (Āṣār" 'ṣ-ṣanādīd.)

M. SA. outlived his four sons.

1. Mīrzā Īrich (or Īrij), Shahnawāz Khān Bahādur (No. 255). When young he used to be called Khān Khānān-i jawān. He distinguished himself by his courage. In the 40th year of Akbar he was made a Commander of 400. In the 47th year, after a fight with Malik Ambar who got wounded, he received the title of Bahādur. During the reign of Jahāngīr he was called Shahnawāz Khān (vide Tuzuk, p. 95), and was made a Commander of Five Thousand. He died in 1028, from excessive drinking. (Vide Tuzuk, p. 270.)

¹ Called Ma²asir-i Rapimi in allusion to his name M. SAbda-'r-Rahim. Vide Elliot's index (1st edition), p. 377.

Index (1st edition), p 377.

² Wherever Shigahs are in the minority, they practise, if necessary, lagigya (45), fear, caution), i.e., they do as if they were Sunnis. A Shigha may even vilify his own sect, if his personal safety requires it.

[* Near Nänder.—B.]

Two of his sons are mentioned in the *Pādishāhnāma*. 1. Mīrzā <u>Kh</u>ān. He was Fawjdār of Kāngrah, and retired "foolishly" from public life in Rabī[§] II, 1046. But he was re-employed and was a Commander of Three Thousand in 1055 (*Pādishāhnāma* II, pp. 483, 723). 2. Lashkarshikan <u>Kh</u>ān. He got in 1047 a present of 4,000 R., and received an appointment in Bengal.

Historians call Shahnawaz Khan generally Shahnawaz Khan-i Jahangiri, to distinguish him from Shahnawaz Khan-i Şafawi, a grandee

of Shāhjahān.

- 2. Mīrzā Dārāb Dārāb-Khān. He has been mentioned above (p. 337). When Shāhjahān made him Governor of Bengal, he retained his wife, a son and a daughter, and a son of Shahnawāz Khān as hostages (yarghamāl). When the prince after the fight near the Tons (Benares) had again to go to the Dakhin, he wrote to Dārāb Khān to move to Gaḍhī (N.W. entrance of Bengal) and join him. Dārāb wrote him that he could not come, being besieged by the zamīndārs of the place. He fell at last into the hands of Parwīz and Mahābat Khān, and as Jahāngīr had "no objections", Mahābat executed him (1035), wrapped his head in a table cloth, and sent it to his father M. SA. as a present of a "melon". A short time before SAbdus 'llah Khān had killed Dārāb's son and a son of Shahnawāz Khān.
- 3. Mīrzā Raḥmān Dād. His mother belonged to the Sandahas of Amarkot. Though very dissolute, he was the most liked by his father. He died, at Bālāpūr, about the same time as his eldest brother. Vide Tuzuk, p. 315. No one dared to inform his father of the event, till people sent at last the famous saint flagrat Sişā of Sindh to M. SA. on a visit of condolence.
- 4. Mīrzā Amru'llah. He geew up without educatiou, and died when young.

30. Rāja Mān Singh, son of Bhagwan Das.

He was born at Amber, and is the son of Raja Bhagwan Das (No. 27). European historians say that he was the adopted son of Raja Bh. D., but Muhammadan historians do not allude to this circumstance, perhaps because Hindus make absolutely no difference between a real and an adopted son. He is also known under the title of Mirzā Rāja, and Akbar bestowed upon him the title of Farzand (son).

He joined Akbar with Bihārī Mal (p. 329). In 984 he was appointed against Rānā Kīkā, and gained, in 985.1 the great battle near Goganda.3

^{[1} Corrected in No. 109.—B.]

The best account of this battle is to be found in Badā.onī, who was an eye-witness.

Bed. II, 230 to 237. The whole is left out in Briggs.

Rāja Rāmsāh of Gwāliyār was killed with his sons, whilst the Rānā himself in the melée was wounded by Mān Singh. Akbar, however, felt annoyed, because M. S. did not follow up his victory, and so recalled him.

When Bhagwan Dās was appointed governor of the Panjāb, M. S. commanded the districts along the Indus. In the year 993, Prince M. Muḥammad Ḥakīm died, and M. S. was sent to Kābul to keep the country in order. He rejoined Akbar near the Indus with M. Muḥammad Ḥakīm's sons (M. Afrāsyāb and M. Kayqubād); but was soon after sent back to Kābul, where he chastised the Raushānīs who, like other Afghān tribes, were given to predatory incursions. After the death of Rāja Bīr Bar, in the war with the Yūsufzā*īs, M. S. was appointed to the command of the army in Kābul, in supercession of Zayn Khān Koka (No. 34) and Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fatḥ. He was also put in charge of Zābulistān, as Bhagwān Dās had a fit of madness (p. 358). In the 32nd year, M. S. was recalled in consequence of loud complaints of the people against the Rājpūts and M. S.'s indifference to the Kābulīs, and was appointed Governor of Bihār, to which province the tuyūls of the Kachhwāhas had been transferred.

After the death of Bhagwan Das in 998, M. S., who hitherto had the title of Kūwar, received from Akbar the title of Rāja and a Command of Five Thousand. In Bihār he punished several refractory Zamindārs, as Pūrān Mal and Kāja Sangrām, and received their tribute.

The principal events in Mān Singh's life from 997 to 1015 are given in Stewart's History of Bengal (pp. 114 to 121). In the 35th year, M. S. invaded Orisa by way of Jhārkand (Chuttiā Nāgpūr). The result of this expedition was the cession of Pūrī. In the 37th year, when the Afghāns under Khwāja Sulaymān and Khwāja Susmān attacked Pūrī, M. S. again invaded Orisa, and re-annexed, in 1000, that province to the Dihlī empire. In the 39th year, M. S. continued his conquests in Bhātī (the eastern portions of the Sundarban), and built, in the following year, Akbarnagar, or Rājmaḥall, at a place which Sher Shāh, before him, had selected as a convenient spot, as also Salīmnagar, the Fort of Sherpūr Murcha (Mymensing). The whole of Eastern Bengal on the right side of the Brahmaputra was likewise annexed. In the 41st year, M. S. married the sister of Lachmī Narāsin, Rāja of Kūch Bihār, who had

¹ The name of "Sayyid" Khān (سيد عاس) which occurs several times in Stewart, I.c., should be corrected to Sacid Khān (سعيد عاس), the same grandee whose biography was given above (p. 351). Such as take an interest in the History of Bengal and Orisa should make use of the Akbarnāma, which contains many new facts and details not given in Stewart.

declared himself a vassal of the Mughul empire. In the same year, M. S. fell dangerously ill at Ghoraghat, when the Afghans attacked him. They were soon after driven back by Himmat Singh, one of M. S.'s sons,1 into the Sundarban. In the 42nd year, M. S. had to send a detachment under Hijaz Khan into Kuch Bihar for the protection of Lachmi Narasin. In the 44th year M. S., at Akbar's request, joined the Dakhin Thinking that the Afghans, in consequence of the death of their leader, the rich 'Isa of Ghoraghat, would remain quiet, M. S. appointed his son Jagat Singh (No. 160) his deputy, and joined Prince Salim at Aimir. Jagat Singh died after a short time, and was succeeded by Mahā Singh, a grandson of M. S. The Afghans under Usman used this opportunity, defeated, in the 45th year, the imperials near Bhadrak in Orisa, and occupied a great portion of Bengal. M. S. then hastened back over Rahtas, and defeated the Afghans near Sherpur Atai, a town of the Sirkar of Sharifabad, which extended from Bardwan to Fath Singh. S. of Murshibabad. After this victory, which obliged SUsman to retreat to Orisa, M. S. paid a visit to the emperor, who promoted him to a (full) command of Seven Thousand. Hitherto Five Thousand had been the limit of promotion. It is noticeable that Akbar in raising M. S. to a command of Seven Thousand, placed a Hindu above every Muhammadan officer, though, soon after, M. Shahrukh (vide p. 326) and M. SAzīz Koka (No. 21), were raised to the same dignity.

M. S. remained in Bengal till 1013, when the sickness of the emperor induced him to resign his appointment in order to be in the capital. The part which he played at the time of Akbar's death is known from the histories. Jahängīr thought it prudent to overlook the conspiracy which the Rāja had made, and sent him to Bengal. But soon after (1015), he was recalled and ordered to quell disturbances in Rohtās (Bihār), after which he joined the Emperor. In the 3rd year of Jahāngīr's reign, he was permitted to go to his home, where he raised levies, in order to serve with M. SAbda 'r-Rahān (No. 29) in the Dakhin war.

M. S. died a natural death in the 9th year of J.'s reign, whilst in the Dakhin. Sixty of his fifteen hundred wives burned themselves on the funeral pile. At the time of his death, only one of his numerous sons was alive, Bhā,o Singh, regarding whose succession to the title, vide Tuzuk-i Jahāngīrī. p. 130.

The ground on which the Taj at Agra stands, belonged to Man Singh.

31. Muhammad Quli Khān Barlās, a descendant of the Barmaqs (?). He served under Humāyūn, and held Multān as jāgīr. In the beginning of Akbar's reign, he conveyed, together with Shamsu'd-Dīn Atga (No. 15) the princesses from Kābul to India. His tuyūl was subsequently transferred to Nāgor. For a short time he was also Governor of Mālwa.

In the 12th year, he was sent against Iskandar Khān Uzbak (vide No. 48) in Audh. After the death of Khān Zamān, Iskandar fled to Bengal, and Audh was given to Muḥammad Qulī Khān as jāgīr.

He subsequently served under Mun's Mhān in Bīhār and Bengal. In the 19th year when Dā'ūd had withdrawn to Sātgāw (Hūglī) Mun's Mhān dispatched M. Q. Kh. to follow up the Afghāns, whilst he remained with Rāja Todar Mal in Tānda to settle financial matters. When M. Q. Khān arrived at Sātgāw Dā'ūd withdrew to Orīsa, to which country neither M. Q. Khān nor his officers had much inclination to go. From Sātgāw M. Q. Khān invaded the district of Jesar (Jessore), where Ṣarmadī, a friend of Dā'ūd's, had rebelled; but the imperialists met with no success, and returned to Sātgāw. Mun's Mhān at last ordered Todar Mal to join M. G. Khān, and subsequently both moved into Orīsa. Soon after passing the frontier M. Q. Khān died at Mednīpūr (Midnapore), Ramazān, 982. He seems to have died a natural death, though some accused one of his eunuchs of foul play.

His son, Mīrzā Farīdūn Barlās (No. 227). He served under M. Abdu 'r-Raḥīm (No. 29) in Sind, and accompanied, in 1001, Jānī Beg (No. 47) to Court. He was a Commander of Five Hundred. Under Jahāngīr, he was rapidly promoted, and held, in the 8th year, a command of Two Thousand, when he served under Prince Khurram against Rānā Amr Singh. He died during the expedition.

His son Mihr ^cAlī Barlās was made by Jahāngīr a Commander of One Thousand.

32. Tarson Khān, sister's son of Shāh Muḥammad Sayfu 'l-Mulk.

In Histories he is called Tarson Muhammad Khān. Sayfu 'l-Mulk had been an independent ruler in Gharjistān (a part of Khurāsān); but he had to submit to Tahmasp (A.H. 940).

So in the MSS.: but the name Barmaq is very doubtful. Being a "Barläs", he belonged to that Chaghtā, I tribe which traced its descent to المرد مبر عبي الله المعالمة

Tarson Khan was in the service of Bayram Khan (No. 10), and joined Akbar when Bayram fell into disgrace. Akbar sent him, together with Hājī Muḥammad Sīstānī (No. 55), to see Bayrām on his way to Makkah, as far as Nagor, then the frontier of the empire. T. Kh. was subsequently promoted to the post of a Commander of Five Thousand, and was for some time Governor of Bhakkar (vide No. 107), and then of Patan in Gujrāt. In the 21st year he served in Rājpūtānā, vide No. 44. In the 23rd year he was made Fawjdar of Jaunpur, at the same time that Mulla Muḥammad Yazdī (vide p. 198) was appointed Qāziyu 'l-Quzāt and Şadr of the Sirkar. When the Jaunpur Rebellion broke out, T. Kh with other faithful Amīrs moved to Bihār against Bahādur Khān and Arab Khān, who were joined by Massum Khan Farankhūdī (No. 157). In the 27th year he served under M. Azīz Koka in Bihār. When the Qāqshāls (No. 50) left Massum Khan and joined the Imperialists, M. Azīz sent T. Kh. to Ghoraghat, where most of the Qaqshals had jagirs. T. Kh. stayed at Tājpūr (Dinagepore), settling matters, when Massum Khān came with a large army from Bhāṭī (بهائي),1 and plundered Western Bengal, approaching even the environs of Tanda; he also sent a detachment against T. Kh., who was besieged in the fort of Tajpur. The siege was raised by a corps sent by Shahbaz Khan-i Kambu (No. 80) from Patna, and T. Kh. was thus enabled to join Shahbaz and drive away the rebels from Upper Bengal. Massum fled again to Bhātī, and Shāhbāz and T. Kh. planned an expedition against Sīsā, who had afforded Massum shelter. They crossed the Ganges at Khizrpūr, which stands on the frontier of Bhati, took Sunnargaw, plundered Baktarapur (?), where çİşä used to live, and nearly caught Massum. At this juncture, slşä returned from an expedition to Küch Bihar, and attacked the Imperialists near Bhowal (N. of Dacca). The Imperialists had entrenched themselves

Clas a father, according to Abù 'l-Fazl, was a Rājpūt of the Bais clan, if I read correctly my MSS. He came in contact with Salim Khān and Taj Khān of Bengal, was kilied; and has two sons, Clas and IsmāCīl, were sold as slaves. They were subsequently traced by Quibbi 'd-Isin Khān, Clas's uncle, to Tūrān, and brought back. Clas soon became the chief of Bhāṭi, and had tweive great zamīndārs dependent on him. Hence he is generally called by Abū 'l-Fazl Marzhān-i Bhāṭi, ruler of Bhāṭi. He gave the Imperialists no end of trouble. He must not be confounded with Clas, the Vakul of Qutlū Khāu of Orīsā,

who coded Puri to Man Singh.

¹ Abū 'l-Faşi gives this spelling in the Akbarnāma, and says it means lowland (from the Hindūstani and down the river), and extends nearly 400 hos from east to west, and 300 hos from N.S., from Thibet to the ocean. It would thus include the Sundarban and the tracts along the Megna. Grant, in the Vth Report, p. 260, note, defines Bhāṣī as comprising the Sunderban and all the neighbouring low lands, even Hijli, overflowed by the tide.

near the Brahmaputra, and the fighting was continued for a long time both by land and on the river. At one time T. Kh. with a small detachment came too near a position held by the enemy, and was attacked by Macsum Khan and wounded. Immediately afterwards he was caught and killed by Massum (992). For a relation of his, vide No. 400.

33. Qiya Khan Gung.

Qiyā is a Turkish word and means zeb, ornament. Gung, if it is the Persian word, means "dumb". He served under Humayun, and held Kol Jalali. On the approach of Hemū, he joined Tardī Beg (No. 12) in Dihli, and retreated with him. After Hemū's defeat, Qiyā was sent to Agra, and was raised to the dignity of a Commander of Five Thousand. Several parganas in Gwāliār having been given to him as tuyūl, Qiyā Khān, in the 2nd year of Akbar's reign, besieged Gwaliyar, which was held by Bhīl Khān, a general of Salīm Shāh, during whose reign Gwāliyār had been the capital of the empire. Bhīl Khān, thinking it impossible to hold the Fort for a long time, wished 1 to hand it over for a consideration to Rāja Rāmsāh, whose ancestors had held Gwāliār, when Qiyā Khān arrived, and after defeating the Raja, prepared himself to besiege Bhil Khān. When Akbar, in 966, came to Agra, he sent a detachment to assist Qiya, and Bhil Khan submitted.

He was a friend of Bayram, but was the first that left him and joined Akbar.

A few years later, Qiya Khan joined Khan Zaman's rebellion, but repented and was pardoned, at the request of Munfim Khan.

After the first conquest of Bengal, Q. Kh. was sent to Orisa, to settle matters. He remained in Orisa and Bengal during the Bengal rebellion. and when, in the 25th year, the Imperialists withdrew from that country, Qutlu Khan seized upon Orisa, and besieged Qiya Khan in some fort. Deserted by his soldiers, Q. Kh. was killed (989).3

How untrustworthy our printed editions are may be seen from Khāfi Khān's List of Commanders of Five Thousand under Akbar (Ed. Bibl. Indica I, p. 237), where the native

editors have given three wrong names among twelve, viz. :-

P. 237, last line, for Amin Khan Koka, read Zayn Khan Koka (No. 34).

in 984 (?).

So the Ma⁸āgir. The Sawānih says that Rāja Rāmsāh with a large force of Rājpūts, had come to besiege Gwāliyār. Firishts instead of Bhīl Khān (Akbarnāma, Sawānih, Bada,oni) has Suhayl Khan (?), and Iqbal Khan (?) for Qiya Khan, vide Briggs, II, p. 194. The change from منافل is not remarkable; but the alteration of اقبال is more violent, as we have an additional alif and lam.

P. 238, l. l, for Shujd's Khān, read Shujā's at Khān (No. 14).
P. 238, l. 2, for Rasāi Khān, read Tarson Khān (No. 32).
Moreover Khān's list is most incomplete, and does not coincide, although he sys so, with the number of Panjhazārīs given in the Tabaqāt.

* Several copies of the Tabaqāt which I have consulted, say that Qiyā Khān died

Tardī Khān (No. 101), his son, was a Commander of Fifteen Hundred. He accompanied Prince Dānyāl to the Dakhin, but fell later in disgrace. In the 49th year he was restored and promoted to a command of Two Thousand Five Hundred, and got a present of 5 lacs of Rupees.

V. Communders of Four Thousand Five Hundred.

34. Zayn Khán, 1 son of Khwaja Maqsūd of Harāt.

His father, Khwāja Maqsūd Alī, was a servant of Akbar's mother. The name of his mother was Pīcha Jān Anaga; she was one of Akbar's nurses. On Humāyūn's flight to Persia, Maqsūd was always near the howdah of Akbar's mother, and remained attached to her in all her misfortunes. His brother was Khwāja Ḥasan (Zayn Khān's uncle), whose daughter married Prince Salīm. She is the mother of Prince Parwiz.

In 993, Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother, had died, and Akbar crossed the Indus for Zābulistān. Zayu Khān was at that time a Commander of Two Thousand and Five Hundred, and was sent against the Yūsufzā,īs. This tribe, says Abu'l-Fazl, had formerly been in Qarābāgh and Qandahār, and had invaded Kābul, where a great number of them were killed by M. Ulugh Beg. The remainder settled at Lamghānāt, and subsequently at Ishtaghar. For the last one hundred years they had held the territory of Bajor, and were notorious robbers. In Bajor, there was also a tribe of the name of Sultāni. who traced their descent to a daughter of Sultān Sikandar. The Yū ufzā is deprived them treacherously of their district; a few of the Sultānīdes, however, remained in Bājor from attachment to their old country.

On a former occasion, when Akbar had moved against M. Muhammad Hakīm, the chiefs of the Yūsufzā*īs submitted, and one of them, Kālū, went with Akbar to Āgra and was hospitably treated. He fled, however, but was caught by Shamsu 'd-Dīn Khāfī (No. 159) near Aṭak, and was sent back; and although Akbar continued to treat him kindly, he fled

again and stirred up his countrymen.

Zayn Khān moved into the District of Bajor (north of Pashāwar), and punished the Yūsufzā is. Several chiefs asked for pardon. After this he erected a fort in Jakdara, in the middle of the country, and defeated the enemies in twenty-three fights. He had at last to ask

¹ As he was Akbar's foster brother; he is generally called in histories, Zayn Khān Koka.

^{[*} Or Bijar (?). -P.]

for reinforcements, and Akbar sent to him Rāja Bīr Bar and Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fath with some troops. Zayn Khān asked them to attack the Afghans whilst he would occupy the conquered districts, or he would attack the enemies and they should hold the district. But Bir Bar and Hakim Abū 'l-Fath, who were no friends of Zayn Khan, proposed that they should attack the Yūsufzā*īs together and then go back. Z. Kh. said it would not do to return without better results from a country which had cost so many sacrifices; else, the best thing they could do, was to return the same way they had come. But to this they would not listen, and returned by another road (over کراکر). Z. Kh. paid no attention to their insubordination and joined them, chiefly because he was afraid they would denounce him at Court. As soon as the Afghans saw the Imperialists returning, they attacked them in every narrow valley. On passing the Girewa 1 Balandrī (گريبة بلندرى), Z. Kh. who commanded the rear (chandawal), was so severely attacked that he had to face them. Arrows and stones were showered from all sides on the Imperialists, the soldiers got bewildered, and the horses ran into the train of elephants. Many lives were lost. Z. Kh., unable to prevent a rout, rushed among the Afghans seeking death, when Janish Bahadur (No. 235) got hold of the reins of his horse, and led him by force out of the melie. In the greatest disorder the Imperialists reached the next station, when the mere rumour of an approach of the Afghans dispersed the soldiers. In the darkness of night most of them lost their way, and several detachments entered the valleys occupied by the Afghans. Their enemies being engaged in plundering, they were at first safe; but next day were all cut off. This was the occasion when Bir Bar with 500 officers fell (vide p. 214).

In the 31st year (994), Z. Kh. operated successfully against the Mahmands and Ghoris near Pashāwar, who under their chief Jalāla'd-Dīn Rawshāni had committed numerous predations. In the next year, Z. Kh. was made governor of Zābulistān vice Mān Singh, and moved, in the 33rd year, against the Yūsufzā'is. After eight months' fighting they submitted, but Z. Kh. insisted on occupying their territory. He followed the same policy as before, and erected a large Fort on the banks of the river Pajaora 2 (3,95,50), where their district commences. During the festival of the 'ld-i Qurbānī (Baqr 'ld, in Zī Ḥijjah), he surprised the Afghāns and took possession of the whole district, erecting a fort wherever

¹ Girewa means a hill.

Or Panjkora.

he thought necessary, and leaving in each a sufficient number of soldiers 1 (Vide No. 46.)

In the 35th year he was sent to punish several rebellious zamindars in the Himālayas. Most of them, as Rāja Budī (Badhī) Chand of Nagarkot (vide p. 349), Ray Pertab of Mankot, Raja Parisram of Mount Jamu, Rāja Bāsū of Mau, Rāy Baldhadr of Lakhinpūr, etc., submitted and accompanied Z. Kh. to Court, though they had an army of 10,000 horse and a lac of foot soldiers.

After having been made, in the 36th year, a Commander of Four Thousand, Z. Kh. was allowed an Salam and a naggara (vide p. 52), and was appointed, in the following year, governor of the districts beyond the Indus up to the Hindukush, when new opportunities offered for punishing the mountaineers.

In the 41st year he was made a Commander of Five Thousand and governor of Kābul, vice Qulij Khān. In the same year, Prince Salīm fell in love with Z. Kh.'s daughter, and married her soon after, though Akbar was displeased (vide p. 288, l. 1, from below). With the death of Jalal Khan Rawshani the disturbances in Zabulistan came to an end, and Z. Kh. was ordered to Lahor, from where Akbar, on his return from Burhanpur, called him to Agra.

Z. Kh. died in 1010, partly from excessive drinking. He played on several instrumente, and composed poems. As Sasid Khān (No. 25) for his eunuchs, and Qulij Khan (No. 42) for his horses, so was Z. Kh. famous for his elephants.

A son of his, Shukru 'Ullah (No. 373), vide below, was a Commander of Two Hundred. The Masagir mentions another son, Mughul Khan, who served under Jahängir and Shāhjahān (vide Pādishahn. II, p. 641) and died 19th Ramazan, 1067. He commanded for some time Fort Odgir in the Dakhin, where the author of the Macarir later found an inscription referring to his appointment. For a second daughter, vide p. 346.

For Zayn Khān's brother, vide No. 38.

35. Mirza Yusuf Khan, son of Mir Ahmad-i Razawi.

He was a real Sayyid of Mashhad, and was much liked by Akbar. In the 30th year he was a Commander of Two Thousand and Five Hundred.

⁴ Such forts were called Thines, now the common word for a police station.

These means a corps of cavalry, matchlookmen, and archers, stationed within an enclosure. Their duty is to guard the roads, to hold the places surrounding the Thins, and to dispatch provisions (resed) to the next Thins." Padishkhams, I, p. 167.

How old the use of the word Thene is, may be seen from the fact that it occurs frequently on Tribeni and Sitgaw inscriptions of the eighth and minth centuries of the Hijrah.

When Shāhbāz Khān left Bihār for Bengal, M. Yūsuf Khān was sent from Audh to keep Bihār. In the 32nd year (995), when Qāsim Khān (No. 59) resigned, M. Y. was sent to Kashmīr as ruler. He was much liked by the people of that country, conciliated Shams Chak, the claimant to the throne, and sent him to Court. In the 34th year (997), Akbar visited Kashmīr, and issued several orders regarding the taxation of the country. In the districts of Mararāj and Kamrāj, i.e., the upper and lower districts on both sides of the Bahat river, he fixed the taxes at one-fourth.

In Kashmir every piece of ground is called patta, though a patta originally is equal to 1 Bigha, 1 Biswa (Ilāhī) of Akbar. Two and a half pattas and a little more are equal to 1 Kashmīrī Bīgha. Three kinds of grain pay taxes in Kashmīr, and each village is assessed at some kharwārs of shālī. A kharwār is equal to 3 mans, 8 sers of Akbar. The principal weight used in Kashmīr is the tark, which is equal to 8 sers of Akbar (vide p. 90, note 2). At the time of the Rabīs crop, they take 2 tarks from each patta of wheat and vetches (māsh). The country having been recently annexed, was assessed very lightly, at 22 lacs kharwārs, which was 2 lacs more than before, the kharwār being reckoned at 16 dāms. For this sum, Akbar handed over Kashmīr to M. Y. Kh.

In the 36th year, one of M. Y. Kh.'s Mutaşaddis (revenue clerks) fled to Court, and stated that the revenue should be 50 per cent (dah-pānzdah) higher, and the kharwar should be valued at 29 dams. M. Y. Kh. informed Akbar that so high an assessment was an impossibility; but Akbar sent Qāzī Nuru 'llah and Qāzī 'Ālī to Kashmīr to report on the revenue. As M. Y. Khān's people assumed a threatening attitude, Nūru 'llah returned, and Akbar sent Hasan Beg Shaykh Umari (No. 167) to Kashmir. On his arrival, some of M. Y. Kh.'s people made a conspiracy, and stirred up the malcontents of the country, who collected under Yadgar, the son of M. Y. Kh.'s uncle. The disturbances became so serious that Qazī Alī and Hasan Beg returned to Hindustan; but the rebels blockaded the roads and killed Qāzī 'Ālī. Hasan Beg escaped, not without wounds. Yadgar then read the khutba in his name, and had dies prepared for striking coins. Several bad omens foreshadowed his speedy ruin. Without having any knowledge of this rebellion, Akbar revisited Kashmīr; but when he was informed of the state of the country, he put M. Y. Kh. under the charge of Abū 'l-Fazl. Yādgār in vain tried to oppose Akbar at the frontier passes, and fled from Srinagar to Hirapur, where some of M. Y. Kli.'s men spread at night the rumour that Akbar had suddenly arrived. In the confusion which ensued, Yadgar fled outside of the camp,

accompanied by a servant of the name of Yūsuf. His camp was plundered and M. Y. Kh.'s men got hold of Yūsuf, who had returned to get a horse for his master. They tortured him, till he confessed where Yādgār was. Soon after, they caught him and cut off his head.

As M. Y. Kh. refused to remain in charge of Kashmir under the increased revenue, the country was made <u>khālisa</u>, and Shams^u 'd-Dīn <u>Khāfī</u> (No. 159) was appointed Governor with 3,000 troops. Some time

after, at Prince Salim's request, M. Y. Kh. was re-instated.

In the 38th year, M. Y. Kh. was appointed Dārogha of the Topkhāna, and received Jaunpūr as tuyūl, vice Qulij Khān (1002); but in the 41st year his jāgīr was transferred to Gujrāt, to enable him to serve in the Dakhin. In the following year, when Ṣādiq of Harāt (No. 43) died, M. Y. Kh. was appointed atālīq to Prince Murād, whom he joined in Bālāpūr (Barār). After the death of Prince Murād (p. 322), M. Y. Kh. distinguished himself, together with Abū 'l-Fazl, in the Dakhin wars, and later, under Prince Dānyāl, in the conquest of Aḥmadābād, on which occasion M. Y. Kh. is said to have been more energetic than other grandees.

After joining Akbar's Court at Burhānpūr, in the 46th year, M. Y. Kh. went again to Prince Dānyāl, who, in 1010, sent him to assist Abū 'l-Fazl and the Khān-Khānān at Bālāghāt. But soon after, he died of an abscess at Jalnāpūr, in Jumāda II, of the same year. His body was taken to

Mash, had.

M. Y. Kh. generally stayed at Sultanpur, which he looked upon as his Indian home. His contingent consisted exclusively of Rohilas, whose

wages he paid monthly.

His sons. 1. Mīrzā Lashkarī Safshikan Khān (No. 375). He was under Akbar Thānadār of Bir (East of Ahmadnagar), and got from Jahāngīr the title of Ṣafdar Khān, and a tuyūl in Bihār. In the 5th year (of Jahāngīr), he was promoted to the post of a Commander of 1,500, with 700 horse, and was made in the following year Ṣūbadār of Kashmīr. In the 8th year, he was removed from his office. In the 21st year, when Mahābat Khān had fled, he was sent towards Dihli to intercept Mahābat's treasures which were known to have arrived from Bengal. This he did. In the beginning of Shāh Jahān's reign, he was made a Commander of 2,500, and 2,000 horse, received the title of Ṣafshikan Khān, and was

¹ My copy of the Tabaque, as also another MS, which I have seen, contains the following entry.—" At the time he was appointed to operate against Raju, he died at Janus-tabad in the Dak'hin, which is generally called Jainapeir." It is difficult to say how these words have found their way into some MS, of the Tabaque, which was finished in A.M. 1001, or nine years before M. Y. Khan's death.

again sent to Bīr, where he remained for a long time. He withdrew at last from public life, got a pension of Rs. 12,000 per annum, and lived at Lähor. He died in 1055.

He was frank to a fault. Once he invited the Manşabdars of Kābul, and feasted them on pork; and when called to Court, to answer for his conduct, he gave Jahāngīr a lesson by saying that not only pork, but also wine was forbidden in the law. For this answer he fell into disgrace.

2. Mīrzā 'Ivaz (عوض). He was a good prose writer, and wrote a history of the world, entitled Chaman.

3. Mīrzā Aflātūn. "He lived with his brother." He was subsequently

made Mutawalli of Sikandra (Akbar's tomb), where he died.

A relation of M. Y. Kh., Mîr Abdu 'llah, was under Shāhjahān a Commander of 1,500 and 600 horse. He was for some time Governor of Fort Dharūr, E. of Bīr, mentioned above. He died in the 8th year of Shāhjahān.

VI. Commanders of Four Thousand.

36. Mahdī Qāsım Khān.

The Tabaqāt mentions him among the Commanders of Five Thousand. He served under M. Sakarī, Bābar's third son, whose foster brother he was. His brother was Ghazanfar Koka¹ (غننف). Humāyūn, after the conquest of Gujrāt, had appointed Sakarī to Aḥmadābād. One night, when half drunk, M. Sakarī said, "I am king and the shadow of God"; when Ghazanfar gently replied, "Thou art drunk, and hast lost thy senses," at which all who were present laughed. Sakarī got enraged, and imprisoned Ghazanfar; but he escaped, went to Sultān Bahādur, king of Gujrāt, who had retreated to Fort Diu, and betrayed the plans of Sakarī. Bahādur thereupon collected an army, marched to Aḥmadābād and drove the Prince away (vide No. 12).

Mahdī Qāsim Khān joined Humayūn on his return from Persia, and was made in the beginning of Akbar's reign, a Commander of Four Thousand. In the 10th year, 'Abdu'l-Majid Āṣaf Khān (No. 49) had been ordered to pursue Khān Zamān (No. 13); but entertaining doubts regarding his own safety, he fled to Garha (Jabalpūr). M. Q. Kh. was, therefore, sent to Garha, after Akbar had, in 973, returned from Jaunpūr to Āgra, and was ordered to capture 'Abdu'l-Majid. When M. Q. Kh. arrived

^{1 (}Thatanfar means a lion. Bedd.onf (II. p. 125, l. 8) calls him Ghazanfar Beg. The Ed. Bibl. Indics Edition has, by mistake, Ghanasfar.

at Garha, 'Abdu' I-Majid fied to Khan Zaman; but the wretched state of the country displeased M. Q. Kh. so much, that without asking Akbar's permission, he left Garha and went to Makkah. From there he returned over Persia and Qandahar, and arrived, towards the end of the 13th year, at Rantanbhūr (which Akbar besieged), and asked to be forgiven, sending at the same time a fine batch of Persian horses as a present. Akbar pardoned him, restored him to his old rank, and gave him Lakhnau as twyal.

"Nothing else is known of him" (Macāşir). He had been dead for some time in 1001, when the Tabaqāt was completed. Husayn Khān Tukriya (No. 53) was the son of his sister and his son-in-law.

He had a villa at Lähor, which was called Bāgh-i Mahdī Qāsim Khān, vida Badāoni II, 90, 292, and Calcutta Review for October, 1869 (Jahāngir's Death).

37. Muşaffar Khān-i Turbatī.

Turbat is the name of a tribe (ulūs) in Khurāsān. His full name is Khwāja Muzastar Ali Khān -i Turbatī. He was Bayrām's Dīwān. Bayrām delegated him from Dīpālpūr to Sher Muḥammad Dīwāna (p. 332), who sent him in chains to Akbar. Though several courtiers advised the Emperor to kill Muzastar, he pardoned him, and made him Amil (Collector) of the Pargana of Parsaror. Subsequently Akbar made him Dīvān-i Buyūtāt (Collector of the Imperial Stores, etc.), and at last Dīvān of the Empire, with the title of Muzastar Khān (971). Rāja Todar Mal was then under him. According to Badā,onī, the two quarrelled incessantly, though people said that the Rāja was a better financier than Muzastar, whose accession to office was honoured by the short tārikh (201), ¿ālim (2011), or "Tyrant".

In the 11th year he abolished the Jam's-i Raqmi. This is the name of the assessment of the Dihli empire, which had existed since the time of Bayram; but the rent roll showed an assessment very different from the actual state of things; "for, on account of the number of men (kasrat-i mardum, i.e. Jāgīr-holders) and the unsettled state (qalb-i wildyat) of the country, the revenue was increased in name (ba-nām afzūda) for the sake of mere show (barā-yi mazīd-: i'tibār)." This Jam's-i Raymī was now abolished (vide Third Book, Ā'īn-i Dahsāla), and Muzaffar prepared a rent roll according to his experience and the returns of Qānāngos. The new rent roll was called Jam's-i Hāsil-: Hāl, or the roll of the present actual income (vide p. 352). As the Dāgh law (pp. 265, 266, and p. 252) did not then exist, Muzaffar Khān fixed the number of soldiers which the contingents of the Amīre and the Muldzims (friends

of the king) should contain, and the soldiers were divided into three classes.1

In the 12th year it was reported that Muzaffar loved a boy of the name of Qutb. Akbar had the boy forcibly removed, whereupon Muzaffar assumed the garb of a Faqīr, and went into the forest. Akbar was thus obliged to recall him, and restored the beloved.

In the 17th year a mania for Chaupar (p. 315) had seized Akbar's Court. Muzaffar lost not only his gold muhurs, but also his temper, and annoyed the Emperor so much that he was told to go to Makkah. But he was recalled, and joined the Court at Surat, which Akbar then besieged. In the 18th year (981), after having been for some time in Sarangpür in Malwa, he was appointed Vakil of the Empire, with the title of Jumlat" 'l-Midk. But he did several things which Akbar did not approve of, and when the Emperor returned from Patns, from where he had dispatched a corps to take Rahtās in South Bihār, he ordered Muzaffar to join the expedition, without allowing him first to pay his respects (vide Briggs II, 249). Like his companion, Khwaja Shamsu 'd-Din Khāfī (No. 159), M. distinguished himself in the campaign, punished the rebels on several occasions, and took Hājīpūr, of which the Afghāns had again taken possession. For these services, M. was appointed, in the 20th year, Governor of Bihar, from Chausa to Garhi. Soon after the taking of Hajipūr, M. was nearly caught by a party of Afghans, who saw him reconnoitering the banks of the Ghandak.

In the 22nd year, M. returned to Court, where Shāh Manṣūr (No. 122) and Rāja Ṭodar Mal continued, under his superintendence, their financial reforms.

On the death of Khan Jahan (No. 24) in 986, he was made Governor of Bengal.

In the 25th year (988), Shāh Manṣūr subjected the Amīrs of Bīhar and Bengal to strict inquiries, and called on them to refund sums which they had spent without permission. When he insisted on his

¹ The Ma²dgir says, he allowed the first class 48,000 dāms, the second 32,000 d., and the third 24,000 d. per annum. These numbers appear to be very large, when compared with p. 241. But what was the value of a dâm in those days? In the 40th year of Akbar's reign, the following pay regulation was introduced:—

Mughal, Afghān, or Hindī

Sih-aspas . 1,000 d. per mensem.

Du-aspas . 800 d. ,,

Yak-aspas . 600 d. ,, 1st Class Rājputs 800 d. ,, 2nd ditto ditto 600 d. ,,

⁽Akbarnama). But at that time 40 dams were equal to 1 Akbarshahi Rupee, which differed very little from our rupee.

demands, Massüm-i Kābulī and several other grandees that held jāgīrs in Bihar, rebelled. Muzaffar imitated Shah Mansur's policy in Bengal, and when he commenced vigorously to collect outstandings, Bābā Khān Qaqahal and other Jagirdars of Bengal rebelled likewise. M. defeated them on several occasions, but would not listen to proposals of peace. At last the Bihar rebels joined those of Bengal, and mustered a sufficient force to take the field against Muzaffar. Notwithstanding this, the rebels would have gladly come to terms and gone to Orīsā, had not Muzaffar betrayed his weakness by moving to the Fort of Tanda, which, according to Bada, oni, consisted of nothing but four old walls. The rebels thus emboldened demanded full pardon, permission to go to Makkah, and restoration of one-third of their property. At this juncture, Sharafu 'd-Din Husayn (No. 17) escaped from Muzaffar's custody, joined the rebels, and informed them of M.'s miserable condition. They moved, therefore, against Tanda, took it, captured M., and killed him (Rabis I, 988).1

The Jāmi^c Masjid in Āgra was built by Muzaffar. I am told the Masjid is now in ruins, which still go by the name of Nawāb Muzaffar Khān kī Masjid or Kālī Masjid. The Ma^cāṣīr says it stood in the Kaṭra Miyān Raqīq, but this name does not appear to be now-a-days in use. The Masjid now called the Jāmi^c Masjid of Āgra was built, in 1058, by Jahān Ārā Begum, Shāhjahān's daughter, at a cost of five lacs of Rupees.

According to the Mir*at* 'l-CAlam, his youngest daughter was married to Shah Fatha 'llah of Shīrāz.

38. Sayf Khan Koka, elder brother of Zayn Khan Koka (No. 34).

His mother had only daughters, and when she was pregnant with Sayf Khān, her husband threatened to divorce her, should it again turn out to be a daughter. She complained of this to Akbar's mother, and Akbar, though then a child, told her husband that he would incur his displeasure if he should do so; "besides," said he, "it shall be this time a fine boy." The mother looked upon Prince Akbar's words as a prophecy from heaven, and in course of time Sayf Khān was born.

Akbar was very fond of Sayf Khān, and made him, though quite young, a Commander of Four Thousand. He distinguished himself by his bravery, especially in the 17th year, at the taking of Sūrat, where he was wounded by a bullet. In the beginning of the next year (981), he accompanied Akbar on his forced march from Agra to Aḥmadābād (p. 343), and was killed bravely fighting with Muḥammad Ḥusavn Mīrzā.

According to Bādā, on! (II, p. 282), Mugaffar capitalated, left the fort, and was then captured and slain.

How Akbar appreciated his services may be seen from the fact, that having heard that Sayf Khān was heavily involved, he paid, on his return to Āgra, every debt due by him.

His two sons, Sher Afkan (355), and Amānu 'llah (356) are mentioned below as Commanders of Two Hundred and Fifty.

39. Rāja Todar Mal, a Khatrī.

He was born at Lahor. The Ma'asir" 'l-Umara does not record his services before the 18th year of Akbar's reign; but T. M. appears to have entered Akbar's service at a very early period. In 971, he was employed under Muzaffar (Bad. II, 65), and in 972, he served under Akbar against Khan Zaman (vide No. 61). He held the first important post in the 18th year, when after the conquest of Gujrāt he was left there to assess that province. In the 19th year, after the conquest of Patna, he got an calam and a naggara (Arin 19), and was ordered to accompany Muncim Khan to Bengal. He was the soul of the expedition. In the battle with Dā°ūd Khān-i Kararānī, when Khān Alam (vide No. 58) had been killed, and Muncim Khan's horse had run away, the Raja held his ground bravely, and "not only was there no defeat, but an actual victory". "What harm," said Todar Mal, "if Khan Alam is dead; what fear, if the Khan Khanan has run away, the empire is ours!" After settling several financial matters in Bengal and Orisa, Todar Mal went to Court, and was employed in revenue matters. When Khan Jahan (No. 24) went to Bengal, Todar Mal was ordered to accompany him. He distinguished himself, as before, in the defeat and capture of Dasud. In the 21st year, he took the spoils of Bengal to Court, among them 300 to 400 elephants. In the following year, he was again sent to Guirāt, vice Vazīr Khān (No. 41), who had given no satisfaction. Whilst arranging at Aḥmadābād matters with Vazīr Khān, Muzaffar Ḥusayn, at the instigation of Mihr Alī Kolābī, rebelled. Vazīr Khān proposed to retreat to the Fort, but Todar Mal was ready to fight, and defeated Muzaffar in the 22nd year, near Dholgah, which lies 12 kos from Ahmadābād. Vazīr Khān would have been lost in this battle, if Todar Mal had not come to his assistance. Muzaffar, after his defeat, fled to Junagarh.

In the same year Todar Mal was appointed Vazīr. When Akbar left Ajmīr for the Panjāb, the house idols of the Rāja were lost, as mentioned on p. 33, note.

When the news of Muzaffar's death (No. 37) and the occupation of the whole of Bengal and Bihār by the rebels reached Akbar, he sent Todar Mal, Ṣādīq Khān, Tarson Khān, etc., from Fathpūr Sīkrī to Bihār. Muḥibb ʿAlī (No. 107), Governor of Rāhtās and Muḥammad Maʿsūm

Khān-i Farankhūdī (No. 157) were appointed kumakīs, or auxiliaries. The latter joined the Raja with 3,000 well-equipped horse, evidently bent on rebellion. To lar Mal managed to keep him quiet; but he reported the matter to Court. The Bengal rebels, under Macsum-i Kābulī, the Qaqshals, and Mîrza Sharafu 'd-Dîn Ḥusayn, with 30,000 horse, 500 elephants, and many ships and artillery, had collected near Mungir, and Todar Mal, from fear of treachery among his auxiliaries, shut himself up in the Fort of Mungir, instead of risking a general engagement. During the siege, two of his officers, Humāyūn Farmilī and Tarkhān Dīwāna, joined the rebels. Though suffering from want of provisions, Todar Mal held himself bravely, especially as he received timely remittances from Court. After the siege had lasted for some time, Baba Khan Qaqshal died, and Jabari, son of Majnun Khan Qaqshal desired to leave. The rebel army dispersed; Macsum-i Kābulī went to South Bihār, and Arab Bahadur wished to surprise Patna, and take possession of the Imperial treasury, which Pahar Khan (perhaps No. 407) had safely lodged in the Fort of that town. After sending Massum-i Farankhudī to Patna, to assist Pahār Khān, Todar Mal, and Şādīq Khān followed Massum-i Kābuli to Bihār. Massum made a fruitless attempt to defeat Sādīq Khān in a sudden night attack, but was obliged to retreat, finding a ready asylum with Saa Khan, Zamindar of Oyisa. Todar Mal was thus enabled to report to Akbar that South Bihar, as far as Garhi, was re-annexed to the Dihli empire.

In the 27th year (990) Todar Mal was made Dīvān, or rather Vakīl. During this year he introduced his financial reforms which have made him so famous. The third book of the Å in contains his new rent-roll, or Aşl-i Jams-i Tūmār, which superseded Muzastar's assessment (p. 373). His regulations regarding the coinage have been alluded to above, and others may be found in the Akbarnāma.

The most important reform introduced by Todar Mal is the change in the language and the character used for the revenue accounts. Formerly they had been kept in Hindi by Hindu Muharrers. Todar Mal ordered that all government accounts should henceforth be written in Persian. He thus forced his co-religionists to learn the court language of their rulers—a circumstance which may well compare to the introduction of the English language in the courts of India. The study of Persian therefore became necessary for its pecumary advantages.

Todar Mal's order, and Akbar's generous policy of allowing Hindus to compete for the highest honours—we saw on p. 363 that Man Singh was the first Commander of Seven Thousand—explain two facts, first, that before

the end of the 18th century the Hindus had almost become the Persian teachers of the Muhammadans; secondly, that a new dialect could arise in upper India, the Urdu, which without the Hindus as receiving medium, never could have been called into existence. Whether we attach more influence to Todar Mal's order or to Akbar's policy, which once initiated, his successors, willing or not, had to follow, one fact should be borne in mind that before the times of Akbar, the Hindus, as a rule, did not study Persian, and stood therefore politically below their Muhammadan rulers.

In the 29th year, Akbar honoured him by paying him a visit. In the 32nd year, a Khatri, from private hatred, wounded T. M. on a march at night time. The man was at once cut down.

When Bir Bar (No. 85) had been killed in the war with the Yūsufzā*is, T. M. was ordered to accompany Mān Singh, who had been appointed commander-in-chief. In the 34th year, when Akbar went to Kashmir, T. M. was left in charge of Lāhor. Soon after, he applied for leave to go to the banks of the Ganges, as he was old and wished to die. Akbar let him go; but he recalled him from Hardwār, and told him that looking after his duties was more virtuous than sitting on the banks of the Ganges. T. M. unwillingly returned, but died soon after, on the 11th day of the year 998 (vide No. 27, p. 353).

Though often accused of headstrongness and bigotry by contemporaneous historians, Todar Mal's fame, as general and financier, has outlived the deeds of most of Akbar's grandees; together with Abū'l-Fazl and Mān Singh, he is best known to the people of India at the present day.

His son Dhārū (No. 190) was a Commander of Seven Hundred, and was killed during the Sindh expedition, while serving under Khān Khānān (p. 335). People say that he used to shoe his horses with golden shoes.

The name Todar Mal is often spelt in MSS. with the Hindi T, d, and r, which explains the spelling "Torel Mall", which we find in old histories. Under Shāhjahān also there lived a distinguished courtier of the name "Todar Mal".

The Tafrīḥ^u 'l-cImārat' says Todar Mal's father died when T. M. was quite young, and that the widow was in great distress. T. M., at an early

¹ This is the title of a Persian MS. preserved in the Library of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. It was composed by Sil Chand, of the Government College of Agra, and treate of the antiquities of that town. The book gives many valuable and interesting particulars. In the preface an English gentleman is praised, whose Christian names are James Suphen, but the surname is not legible. The name clearly ends in gton, and may be Babington or some other similar name. The style is bombastic, and there is no proper arrangement.

age, showed much clearness and common sense, and received an appointment as writer, from which humble position he rose to the greatest honours.

40. Muhammed Qasim Khan, of Nishapur.

The $Ma^{\varsigma}\bar{a}sir$ calls him $Q\bar{a}sim$ Muḥammad $\underline{Kh}\bar{a}n$, and has put his name under the letter Q; but Abū 'l-Fazl, Badā,onī, and the $Tabaq\bar{a}t$ give his name in the above order.

He was a rich landowner of Nīshāpūr, and sled after the invasion of the Uzbaka to India, where he served under Bayrām Khān. He distinguished himself in the war with Sikandar Sūr, and served as Harāwal, or leader of the van, under Khān Zamān (No. 13) in the battle with Hemū. Immediately after, but still in the first year of Akbar's reign, he was sent against Ḥājī Khān, who had defeated Rānā Udai Sing of Maiwār, and taken possession of Nāgor and Ajmīr. Ḥājī Khān was an old servant of Sher Khān, and was distinguished for his wisdom and bravery. On the appearance of the Imperialists, however, Ḥājī Khāu's army dispersed, and he himself withdrew to Gujrāt. M. Q. Kh. thus took possession of Nāgor and Ajmīr, which for a long time remained the south-western frontier of Akbar's empire.

In the 5th year, he left Bayram's party, and joined the Chaghtasi nobles. He commanded the left wing of Shamsu 'd-Din Atga's corps in the fight in which Bayram was defeated (p. 332) After the victory,

he received Multan as jagir.

He was next sent to Sārangpūr in Mālwa, where, in the 9th year, he was visited by Akhar on his sudden hunting expedition to that province, the object of which was to get hold of 'Abdu'llah Khān Uzbak (No. 14). M. Q. Kh. assisted in the pursuit.

According to the Tabaqat, M. Q. Kh. died soon after at Sarangpur.

41. Vazīr Khān, brother of 'Abda 'l-Majīd-i Āṣaf Khān (I), of Harāt (No. 49).

When Vazīr <u>Kh</u>ān escaped with his brother (vide below, No. 49) from Bahādur <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 21), he fled to Kara, and obtained subsequently, through the mediation of Muzaffar <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 37), free pardon for himself and Asaf <u>Kh</u>ān.

In the 21st year, when Azīz Koka (p. 344) had incurred Akbar's displeasure. V. Kh. was sent to Gujrāt to govern in Azīz's name, and when that chief had been called to Court, he was appointed governor (sipahsālār) of the province. But he did not distinguish himself, and Akbar, in the 22nd year, sent Todar Mal (No. 39) to Gujrāt, to take the administration out of V. Kh.'s hands. It happened that about the

same time, Mihr 'Alī Gulābī, a friend of M. Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn, rebelled and set up as king Muzaffar Ḥusayn Ibrāhīm's young son, whom he had brought from the Dakhin. As mentioned above, the rebellion was crushed through Todar Mal's bravery. When the Rāja left, Mihr 'Alī appeared again, and V. Kh., most of whose soldiers had joined the rebel, shut himself up in the fort of Aḥmadābād. In one of the assaults, Mihr 'Alī was killed by a bullet, and Muzaffar Ḥusayn Mīrzā, from timidity, raised the siege. Notwithstanding this success, matters in Gujrāt did not improve, and oppressions became so numerous, that Akbar deposed V. Kh. and called him to Court.

In the 25th year, Akbar appointed him vazīr in the place of Shāh Mansūr of Shīrāz (No. 122), and soon after governor of Audh.

In the 27th year, when M. Azīz (No. 21) had been sent to Bīhār, V. Kh. was ordered to join him with his contingent, and as after the flight of Masam Khān sickness obliged Azīz to return to Bihār, he left V. Kh. in charge of the province, till a new Sūbadār should be appointed. V. Kh. made use of the opportunity, and moved against Qutlū Khān, ruler of Orīsā, whom he defeated (vide p. 356). Qutlū, in the following (29th) year, sent tribute, and was left in possession of Orīsā. V. Kh. returned to Tānda, and applied himself, with the assistance of Sādiq Khān (No. 43) and Shāhbāz Khān-i Kambū (No. 80) to financial matters.

In the 31st year, Akbar ordered that each suba should, in future, be ruled by two Atnīrs, and Vazīr Khān was appointed Subadār of Bengal, with Muḥibb Alī Khān (No. 107) as assistant. In the following year, 995, V. Kh. died.

Shāhbāz Khān, who was Bakhshī of Bengal, allowed Mīrzā Muḥammad Ṣāliḥ, V. Kh.'s son, to take command of his father's contingent. But M. M. Ṣāliḥ showed much inclination to rebel, and Akbar sent Mīr Murād (282, or 380) to bring him and his contingent to Court. On the route, at Fatḥpūr Hanswah, he behaved so rebelliously, that Mīr Murād imprisoned him with the assistance of the jāgīrdārs of the district, and took him fettered to Akbar. He was kept imprisoned for some time.

42. Qulij Khan.

He is called Andajānī, from Andajān, a province of Farghāna, south of the Sayhūn. His ancestors had been for many years serving under the Timūrides. His grandfather was a noble at Sultān Ḥusayn Mīrzā Bāyqrā's court.

The principal facts of his life have been mentioned on p. 35, note 2. In mentioning his appointment to Sürat, the "iron fort", which Akbar, in the 17th year, conquered in one month and seventeen days, Abū 'l-Fagl

says that the Fort had been built in 947 (A.D. 1540-41), by Safar Aghā, alias Khudawand Khan, a Turkish slave of Sultan Mahmud of Gujrat. The tarikh of its construction is characteristic (metre long Ramal).

سد بود برسینه وجان فرنگی این بنای

"May this structure prove a barrier for the chest and the life of the Firingi." 1

Qulij Khān died at the age of eighty, on the 10th Ramazān 1022 (end of A.D. 1613), at Peshawar. He was at his death a Commander of Six Thousand, Five Thousand horse.

The Matair and Bada, oni (III, p. 188) say that he belonged to the tribe of جاني قرباني Jānī Qurbanī (?); but for the latter word the MSS. have different readings, as Qurbani Farbani, Faryani, etc.

The Ma'agir copies from the Zakhīrat" lkhawānīn the following story which is said to have taken place in A.H. 1000, when Jaunpur was Q.'s jagir. "Q. was building a house, when the working men in digging came to a cupolalike-structure. Q. and several other respectable men were called, and they remained on the spot till the newly discovered building was fully dug out. It had a door with an immense lock attached to it. weighing one man. When forced open, an old man made his appearance, who asked the bystanders in Sanscrit, whether Ram Chandr's avatar (incarnation) had taken place; whether he had got back his Sītā; whether Krishna's autar had taken place at Mathura; and, lastly, whether Muhammad had appeared in Arabia. On receiving affirmative answers to these questions, the old man further wished to know, whether the Clauges still flowed. This also being affirmed, he expressed a wish to be taken out. Q. then put up seven tents, joined to each other, in each of which the sage remained for a day. On the 8th day he came out, and said prayers according to the way of Muhammadans. In sleep and

For Hussys in the last line of the note on p. 35, which is given in inferior MSS., hetter copies have Chin Qulij, which is to be substituted for it.

His takhallus "Ulfati" has been mentioned above. The Takaquat mys that another post of the same takhallus was in the service of Zayn Khan Koka (No. 34), and Bada, oni

(III, 198, 189) mentions two other poets of the same takhallur.

Qulij, properly qulij, means in Turkish a second, and "Qulij Khān" is the same as
Shamsher Lhan. The word is variously spelled in MSS., sometimes with long vowels and a final ch.

[!] The numbers added give 947. The last ya, though somewhat irregular, cannot be left out.

So according to the Tuzuk-i Jahangiri (ed. Sayvid Ahmad, p. 123, l. l).
Misled by bad MSS.. I mentioned on p. 35, note, the year 1035 as the year of his death. The Mire des 'l-S Alam and the MaSayir give as tarth of his death the Arabic words, Almant jacron yugar al habibu its al-habib; "Death is the bridge which joins the beloved to the Beloved;" but the letters added give 1023, not 1022, as in the Turnk.

eating he differed from other men; he spoke to no one, and died after six months."

Qulij Khān's sons. 1. Mīrzā Sayfu 'llah (No. 292). 2. Mīrzā Chin Qulij (No. 293), regarding whom vide below.

43. Sadiq Khan, son of Bagir of Harat.

Other historians call him Sadiq Muhammad Khan.1 His father, Muhammad Bäqir, had been vazīr to Qarā Khān Turkmān, ruler of Khurāsān. Qarā had rebelled against Shāh Tadmāsp, and fled to India. Şādiq entered Bayrām's service as Rikābdār (spur-holder), and got soon after a mansab, and was made, after Bayram's death, an Amir. Bada, oni (II, 220) alludes to his services under Humāyūn in Qandahār, and the Tabagāt says that he had been since his youth in Akbar's service.

After the conquest of Patna, Akbar returned by boat to Jaunpur. On the road, in crossing the river at Chausa, a valuable elephant perished through S.'s carelessness. Akbar confiscated his jagir, excluded him from Court, and told him to go to Bhath (Bhath Ghorā, or Banda-Rewa), to get another elephant. After passing over "the heights and the low places" of fortune, Sadiq, in the 20th year, returned to Court with 100 elephants, and was restored to favour. He was made governor of Garha, vice Rāi Sarjan (No. 96). In the 22nd year (985), S., with several other grandees, was ordered to punish Raja Madhukar, should he not submit peacefully. Passing the confines of Narwar, S. saw that kindness would not do; he therefore took the fort of Karharā (اکرهرا), and cutting down the jungle, advanced to the river Dasthara, close to which Undchha lay. Madhukar's residence. A fight ensued. Madhukar was wounded and fled with his son Ram Sah. Another son of his, Horal Deo (Matarir, Horal Rão), and about 200 Rājpūts were killed. S. remained encamped in the Raja's territory. Driven to extremities, Madhukar sent Ram Chand (No. 248), a relation of his, to Akbar at Bahīra, and asked and obtained pardon. On the 3rd Ramazan, 986, Sadiq with the penitent Raja arrived at Court.

Soon after S.'s agiāc were transferred to the Eastern Districts of the empire, so that he might take part in the suppression of the revolt in Bengal. In the 27th year, during the temporary absence of Aziz Koka

as a spur.—P.1

Akbar disliked the names Mujammad and Ahmad; hence we find that Abū' l-Fayl teaves them out in this list. Similar omissions occurred above, as Muncim Khān (No. 11), Mīrzā ÇAzīz (No. 21), for Muḥammad Muncim and M. M. hammad ÇAzīz; or, Shihāb Khān (No. 26), for Shihāb d-Din Ahmad Khān. More examples will be found below.

[a Rikabdar "stirrup-holder, one that runs at the stirrup of a great man, retinue." The pointed corner of the plate that forms the foot-rest of the Indian stirrup is used

(No. 21), Sådiq and Muhibb Alī Khān (No. 107), defeated Khabīţa, one of Massum's officers, on the Ghandak near Ḥājīpūr, and sent his head to Akbar. In the beginning of the 28th year, he paid his respects at Court, but was immediately ordered to rejoin Mīrzā Koka, who had again left for Bihār.

In the beginning of the 29th year, he was ordered to move to Vazīr Khān (No. 41), who at s place six kos from Bardwān was treating with Qutlū. Through Ş.'s skill, a sort of peace was concluded, which confirmed Qutlū in the possession of Orīsā. Ş. then returned to his tuyūl at Patna.

When Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) returned from his expedition to Bhātī, the tuyūldārs of Bengal and Bihār were ordered to move to him. S., however, was no friend of Shāhbāz. The mutual dislike rose to the highest pitch, when once S.'s elephant ran against Shāhbāz, who believed the accident premeditated: and Akbar sent Khwāja Sulaymān (No. 327) to Bengal to settle their differences. One was to remain in Bengal, the other to go to Bihār; but S., in the 30th year, left Bengal without permission, and went to Court, where he was not admitted. But when Shāhbāz went from Bihār to Bengal, S. went again to Court, and was appointed governor of Multān.

When the Rawshānīs in the District of Mount Terāh ('i','), "which lies west of Pashāwar, and is 32 kos long, and 12 kos broad," commenced disturbances, \$\overline{S}\$, in the 33rd year, was ordered to bring them to obedience, which he did with much tact and firmness. After the return of Zayn Khān (No. 34) from Bijor, \$\overline{S}\$, was sent there, to subjugate the Yūsafzā,īs.

In the 36th year, Prince Mürad was sent from Mālwa to Gūjrāt, and as Ismā'il Qulī Khān (No. 46) had not given satisfaction as Vakīl, Ş. was appointed atālīq to the Prince, whom in the 40th year he accompanied to the Dakhin. Shāhbāz Khan, being one of the auxiliaries, the old enmity broke out again. After the siege of Ahmadnagar had been raised, S. distinguished himself in protecting the frontiers of Barār.

In the beginning of the 41st year he was made a Commander of Five Thousand. In the same year he defeated Saráwar Khān, and made much

Khabija (da...) was a Mughui, and had risen by bravery under Macaum-i Kābuli from a humble position to the post of a Commander. In Bade, one (Ed. Bibl. Indica, p. 310), he is called Khabiga Bahādur (a....) and Khasia (a....) in my MS. of the Tobught, where, moreover, the event, according to the erroneous chronology of that history, is put in the 28th year.

^{*} The spelling Quili is perhaps preferable to Quili if this name is a shortened form of

Quillegh.

* From several passages in the Affording it is clear that stilling (pr. a tutor) means the same as Valid or Vasir. The imperial princes kept up Courts of their own, and appointed their Vasire, their Dirans, Böjjakis, etc. The appointment of the Vasil, however, appears to have rested with the emperor.

booty. He was then made governor of Shāhpūr, which town Prince Murād had founded six kos from Bālāpūr.

Şādiq died at Shāhpūr in the beginning of 1005. At Dholpūr, which "lies 20 kos from Agra, near the left bank on the Chambal river," Ş. had erected splendid buildings and a mausoleum. He had also done much for the cultivation of the surrounding country.

He was one of the best officers Akbar had.

His sons. 1. Zāhid <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 286), a Commander of Three Hundred and Fifty. In the 47th year, he was made a <u>Khān</u>, and, on the accession of Jahāngīr, a Commander of Two Thousand.

2. Dost Muhammad (No. 287). 3. Yār Muhammad (No. 288). "Neither of them was alive at the time of Shāhjahān." Maçāṣir.

44. Ray Raysingh, son of Ray Kalyan Mal (No. 93).

Rāy Singh belonged to the Rāthors of Bīkānīr, and is the fourth descendant from Rāy Māldeo: His father, Kalyān Mal, was a friend of Bayrām (p. 316), and paid, in the 15th year, his respects to Akbar at Ajmīr, when he together with his son entered the emperor's service. He also sent his brother's daughter to Akbar's harem. Kalyān Mal was in the 40th year a Commander of Two Thousand.

Rāy Singh, in the 17th year, when Akbar made preparations to crush the rebellion in Gujrāt, occupied Jodhpūr, the old seat of Māl Deo, in order to prevent the rebels from invading the Dihlī territory; but Ibrāhīm, after his defeat at Sarnāl, invaded Akbar's territory, and besieged Nāgor, which at that time was the tuyūl of Khān-i Kalān (No. 16), and was defended by his son, Farrukh Khān (p. 339). R. came to his relief, and the Mīrzā had not only to raise the siege, but was pursued and defeated by R. In the following year also, R. distinguished himself in the engagement with Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā (p. 343).

In the 19th year, R. and Shāh Qulī Maḥram (No. 45) were ordered to punish Chandr Sen, son of Rāja Māl Deo; but as they were unable to take Siwāna, Chandr Sen's stronghold, notwithstanding the auxiliaries which Akbar had sent them at R.'s request, R., in the 21st year, was called to Court, and Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) took the command. Before the end of the same year, however, R. and Tarson Muḥammad Khān (No. 32) were sent against the refractory zamīndārs of Jālor and Sarohī; but as they applied to Akbar for pardon, R. and Sayyid Hāshim of Bārha (No. 143) garrisoned Nādot to watch the Rānā of Udaipūr, and bring the rebels of those districts to obedience. As at this time Saltān Deoda, the zamīndār of Sarohī, from distrust again assumed a hostile attitude, R. marched against Sarohī and besieged it. During the siege,

R. called his family to his camp; but Saltan Deods fell upon the caravan, killed several relations of R., and then withdrew to Abugarh. 1 R. in the measitime took Sarohi, and hastened to Abugarh, which Saltan surrendered. R. left a garrison there, and took Saltan to Court.

In the 26th year, when Mirza Muhammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother, threatened to invade the Panjab, R. together with several other grandees was sent in advance. They were soon followed by Prince Murad. When the imperial army, in the end of the same year, returned to Agra, R. and several others were sent as tuyuldars to the Panjab. In the 28th year he served in Bengal.

In the 30th year R. and Ismā il Quli Khan (vide No. 46) led successfully an expedition against the Balüchis. In the following year (19th Rajab, 994), R.'s daughter was married to Prince Salim. In the 35th year he went for some time to Bikanir, and served, in the end of the 36th year, in Sindh under M. Abdu 'r-Rahim (No. 29).

In the 38th year Akbar paid R. a visit of condolence. The son of Rāja Rāmchand Baghela of Bāndhū died suddenly on his way to Bāndhū, to which he had only lately, after the death of his father, been appointed. The young Raja had married a daughter of R. Akbar interceded for their young children, and prevented R.'s daughter from burning herself. Soon after, R. stayed away from Court for some reason, during which time one of his servants complained of him to Akbar. The emperor called the man to Court; but R. concealed him, and gave out he had run away. Akbar was annoyed, and excluded R. for some time from the darbars; but after some time he restored him and sent him as governor to Sürat, with the order to assist in the Dakhin wars. R., however, delayed in Bikanir, and when he had at last left, delayed on the road to Sürat. Akbar advised him to be obedient; but seeing that he would not go, called him to Court, but without allowing him to attend the darbars. After some time he was pardoned.

In the 45th year, R. was ordered to accompany Abū 'l-Fazi to Nāsik; but as his son Dalpat 2 (No. 252) had caused disturbances in Bikanir

name have Str Singh (pp. 297, 302, at the and of the first decade.)

[&]quot;Abugarh is a fort near Sarohi, and not far from the frontier between Gujrat and Ajmir." Abd 'l. Fast says in the Akbarnama (events of the 21st year) that the old April." Abd 'l-Faşi says in the Akbarnāma (events of the Fist year) that the old name of Abügarh was Arbudā Achal, Arbudā being the name of a spirit, who, diagnised as a female, shows wanderers the way, and schol meaning mountain. The fort on the top of this high mountain was difficult of access; it could, moreover, hold out for a long time, as there were several springs and fields within it. My copies of the Saudani, and the Abbarnāma have Sulfan Deore (**pi with**) for Saltān Deoda (**pi with**) of the McCāgir.

** For Delpet, the Turnk-i Jahāngiri (pp. 36, 106, and 126) has wrongly Delip.

The Turnk and the second volume of the Pādishāhaāma (Edit. Bibl. Indica. p. 635) have Biraj Singh, for Sür Singh. But the McCāgir and the first volume of the Pādishāhaāma have Sār Singh (pp. 297–302 at the end of the first decade.)

(vide p. 386), R. got leave to go home. In the following year, he went again to Court. In the 48th year he served under Prince Salīm against the Rānā of Udaipūr.

At the death of the emperor, R. was a Commander of Four Thousand. Jahängir, on his accession, made him a Commander of Five Thousand. When the emperor set out for the Panjāb to pursue Khusraw, R. was put in charge of the travelling harem; but on the road he left without order and went to Bikānīr. In the second year, when Jahāngīr returned from Kābul, R., at the advice of Sharif Khān, presented himself before the emperor with a fūļa round his neck, to show his willingness to suffer punishment for his crimes, and was again pardoned. He died in 1021.

His sons. 1. Dalpat (No. 252). He was a Commander of Five Hundred. In the 36th year, he served in the Sindh war, but was looked upon as a coward. In the 45th year, when Akbar was in the Dakhin, Muzaffar Husayn Mīrzā, in consequence of his differences with Khwājagī Fathu'llah had fled; and Dalpat, under the pretext of following him up, had gone to Bīkānīr and created disturbances. In the 46th year, his father brought him to his senses. D. asked to be pardoned, and was ordered again to come to Court.

In the third year of Jahangir's reign (1017), he appears to have offended the emperor; but at the request of Khan Jahan Lodi he was pardoned. After the death of his father, D. came from the Dakhin to Court, was appointed successor, and got the title of $R\bar{a}y$, although his younger brother (by another mother), Sür Singh, claimed the right of succession, which Ray Singh had promised him from affection to his mother. Sür Singh, however, disgusted Jahangir by the bold way in which he preferred his claim.

D. was then ordered to join M. Rustam-i Şafawī (No. 8), the governor of Sindh. In the 8th year, it was reported to Jahāngīr that Sūr Singh had attacked and defeated his brother, who in consequence had created disturbances in Ḥiṣār. Hāshim, the Fawjdār of the Sarkār, caught him and sent him fettered to court, where he was executed as a warning to others.

For Dalpat's son, Mahes Das, and grandson, Ratan, vide Padishahnama, pp. 635, 723; 684, 729.

2. Sür Singh. After the death of his brother he rose to favour. In Histories he is generally called Rão Sür Singh, a title which he received from Shāhjahān. He died in 1040. He had two sons, Karan and Satr Säl, the former of whom inherited the title of Rão (vide Pādishāhnāma II, p. 727).

VII. Commanders of Three Thousand Five Hundred.

Shah Quii Mahram-i Baharlu.

He was in Bayram's service, and distinguished himself in the war with Hemū. It was Shāh Qulī that attacked Hemū's elephant, though he did not know who his opponent was. The driver, however, made him a sign, and he led the elephant with Hemu, whose eye had been pierced by an arrow, from the battle-field, and brought the wounded commander to Akbar, 1 Soon after, before the end of the first year, Sh. Q. served with Muhammad Qasim Khan (No. 40) against Haji Khan in Nagor and Aimîr.

In the third year, it was brought to Akbar's notice, that Sh. Q. was passionately attached to a dancing boy of the name of Qabul Khan; and as the emperor had the boy forcibly removed, Sh. Q. dressed as a Jogi, and went into the forests. Bayram traced him with much trouble, and brought him back to court, where the boy was restored to him.

Like Bāhā Zambūr, he remained faithful to Bayram to the last, and

was pardoned together with his master in Tilwara (p. 332).

After Bayram's death, he was rapidly promoted and made an Amir. In the 20th year, when Khan Jahan (No. 24) was sent from the Panjab to Bengal, Sh. Q. was appointed Governor of the Panjab, rising higher and higher in Akbar's favour.

It is said that the Emperor, from goodwill towards him, admitted him to his female apartments. After the first time he had been allowed to enter the Harem, he went home, and had his testicles removed (majbub). From the circumstances, he was everywhere called Mahram,3

i.e., one who is admitted to the Harem and knows its secrets.

In the 34th year, Akbar, after his return from Zābulistān, crossed the Bahat (Jhelum) near Rasulpur, and encamped at Hailan. During his stay there, he mounted a female elephant, and was immediately attacked by a mast male elephant. Akbar was thrown down and sustained severe contusions. A rumour of his death spread over the whole country; in some provinces even disturbances broke out. The Rajputs of Shaykhawat, especially, plundered the districts from Mewat to Rewari; and in the

Before the end of the first year, Pir Muhammad was dispatched against Haji Khān in Alwar, and as he withdrew, the imperalists took possession of the Sarkār of Alwar as far as Daoli Sājārī (or Sāchārī) the birth-place of Hemü, and performed many hrave as far as Daoli Sājārī (or Sāchārī) the birth-place of Hemü, and performed many hrave deads. They also caught Hemü's father alive, and brought him to Pir Muhamn ad, who asked him to embrace lalām. As he would not, he was killed by him. After gathering his spoils, Pir M. returned to Akbar." Sanāniā from the Albaradma.

Tor similar examples, vide p. 335, which also happened in the third year, and No. 37,

D. 374. 1 (or Mahrim.

35th year, Akbar had to send Sh. Q. against them. He soon restored order.

In the 41st year, he was made a commander of Four Thousand, and soon after of Five Thousand. The *Tabaqāt* says that in 1001 he had been a commander of Three Thousand for thirty years.

He died at Agra in 1010. At Nārnaul, where he chiefly lived, he erected splendid buildings, and dug large tanks. When he felt death approaching, he gave the soldiers of his contingent two years' pay in advance, and left, besides, many legacies. As he had no heirs, his remaining property lapsed to the state (Tuzuk, p. 22).

46. Ismā'sīl Quli Khān, brother of Khān Jahān (No. 24).

He must not be confounded with No. 72. He was caught in the battle near Jālindhar (p. 317). He joined Akbar's service with his brother, under whom he mostly served. When his brother had died in Bengal, he came with the immense property he had left behind him to Court, and was favourably received. In the 30th year, he was sent against the Balüchis (vide No. 44). On his arrival in Balüchistān the people soon submitted, and their chiefs, Ghāzī Khān Wajhiya and Ibrāhīm Khān, repaired to Court, and were allowed to retain the country. In the 31st year, when Bhagwan Dās (No. 27), on account of his madness, had not been allowed to go to Zābulistān, I. Q. was sent there instead. But he committed certain improprieties and fell into disgrace, and was ordered to go from Bhakkar to Makkah. He begged hard to be forgiven; but he was not allowed to see the Emperor, and was sent against the Yūsufzā°is.

At that time epidemics were raging in Bijor, and the chiefs of the Yüsufzä is came forward and submitted to I. Q., whilst Zayn Khān (No. 34), governor of Zābulistān pressed hard upon Jalāla Rawshānī, who had left Terāh and entered Bijor. Zayn Khān therefore entered the district, determined to use the opportunity to wipe off the disgrace of his former defeat. The arrival of Şādiq Khān (No. 43), however, who had been sent from Court, to occupy the district, and capture Jalāla, annoyed I. Q. still more, as he thought that that duty might have been left to him as Thānadār of the district. I. Q. forgot himself so far as to allow Jalāla to escape. He then went to Court, where he was severely reprimanded for his conduct.

In the 33rd year, he was made Governor of Gujrāt. In the 36th year, when Prince Murād had been made Governor of Mālwa, I. Q. was appointed his stālīq or Vakil; but he gave no satisfaction, and was called to Court, \$5diq Khān having been appointed in his stead.

In the 39th year, he was sent to Kälpi, to look after his jägir. In the 42nd year (1005), he was made a Commander of Four Thousand.

He was given to luxury, and spent large sums on carpets, vessels, dress, etc. He kept 1,200 women, and was so jealous of them, that whenever he went to Court, he put his seal over the strings attached to their night drawers. The women resented this and other annoyances, made a conspiracy, and poisoned him.

Three sons of his are mentioned below—1. Ibrāhīm Qulī (No. 322), a commander of Three Hundred: 2. Salīm Qulī (No. 357), and 3, Khalīl Qulī (No. 358), both commanders of Two Hundred. They do not appear to have distinguished themselves.

VII. Commanders of Three Thousand.

47. Mirai Jani Beg, ruler of Thatha.

He belonged to the Arghūn clan, and therefore traced his descent to Chingis Khān. Abū'l-Faṣl in the Akbarnāma gives his tree as follows:—Chingis Khān

Tuli Khan.

Hulägu Khān (the brother Of his ancestors Atku Timur had been [of Mangu killed in the war with Tuqtamish Khān, and [Qāān). the Emperor Timur took care of Shankal Beg, Abāgh (or, Abāghā) Khān, and made him a Tarkhān (vide the note at [d. 663. the end of this biography).

Arghūn Khān, d. 690.

Four generations inter-[vening.

Atka Timur

Shankal Beg Tarkhan

Several generations not

(known. Abd^a 'l-Kháliq Tar<u>kh</u>án

Mirai 'Abd" 'l-'Ali

[Tarkhān.

Mirsa 'Abde'l 'Ali, fourth ancestor of M. Jani Beg, had risen to high dignities under Sultan Mahmud, son of M. Abu Savid, and received the government of Bukhārā. He was treacherously killed, together with his five eldest sons, by Shaybani Khan Uzbak; only his sixth son, M. Muhammad Classescaped. The Arghūn clan in Bukhārā. thus left without a head, emigrated to Khurasan, where they attached themselves to Mir Zũ 'l-Nûn Beg Arghun, who was the Amira 'l-Umara and Sipahealar of Sultan Husain Myrsa. He also was atalia and father-in-law to Prince Badi^{qu} 'z-Zamān Mirzā, and held Qundahār as M. Muḥammad 'I'ṣā jāgir. When the prince's career ended, his [Tarkhān, d. 975. two sons, Badī's 'z-Zamān and Muzaffar Mīrzā,

M. Muhammad Bāqī proclaimed themselves kings of Khurāsān. [Tarkhān, d. 993. Anarchy prevailed; and matters grew worse,

Mīrzā Pāyanda Muham- when Shaybān Khān invaded the country.

| mad Tarkhān. Zu 'l-Nūn Beg fell in battle against him.

Mīrzā Jānī Beg Tar<u>kh</u>ān.

Mîrzā Ghāzî Beg Tarkhān.

Shujā's Beg, better known as Shāh Beg, Zū'l-Nūn's son, held Qandahār during the absence of his father, and succeeded him in the government. He was bent on conquest. In 890, he took Fort Sewe from Jām Nizām'a'd-Dīn (generally called in Histories Jām Nandā), king of Sindh. He continued to interfere, as related by Abū'l-Fazl below in the Third Book, (Ṣūba of Sindh), and managed, at last, in 929, to conquer the country, thus compensating himself for the loss of Qandahār, which had been occupied by Bābar. A short time before his death, which took place in 950,1 he invaded Multān, then in the hands of the Langāhs.

Shāh Beg Arghūn was succeeded by his son Mīrzā Shāh Ḥusayn Arghūn, who took Multān from Sultān Ḥusayn Langāh (vide Third Book, Ṣūba of Multān). M. Shāh Ḥusayn Arghūn was afficted with a peculiar fever, which only left him when he was on the river Indus. He therefore used to travel down the Indus for six months of the year, and upwards for the remaining portion. On one occasion, he went towards Bhakkar, when some of the nobles deserted him, and elected Mīrzā Muḥammad ʿIsa, third ancestor of M. Jānī Beg, as their chief. M. Shāh Ḥusayn, assisted by his foster brother, Sultān Maḥamūd, Governor of Bkakhar, opposed him; but he had at last to come to terms, and ceded a large part of Sindh to M. ʿIsa. On Shāh Ḥusayn's death, in 963, the whole country fell to ʿIsa.

In this manner the older branch of the Arghuns came to the throne of Thaths.

"Isa died in 975, and was succeeded by his son M. Muḥammad Bāqī, who successfully crushed the revolt of his younger brother, M. Jān Bābā. M. Bāqī, in 993, committed suicide during an attack of insanity; and as his son, M. Pāyanda Muḥammad, was also subject to fits of madness, the government passed into the hands of M. Jānī Beg, the son of M. Pāyanda.

¹ Shah Begwas a leatned man, like his renowned opponent Babar. He wrote a Commentary to the well-known Arabic grammer Kaftys (غرج كانيه), and commentaries to the Magalic (غرج مانايد نسفي) and the CAqa Lid-i Nasafi (غرج مانايد نسفي).

Akbar had often felt annoyed that, notwithstanding his frequent stays in the Panjāb, M. Jānī Beg had shown no anxiety to pay him a visit. In the 35th year therefore (999), when the Khan Khanan was ordered to invade Qandahār, he was told to send some one to M. J. B., and draw his attention to this neglect; if no heed was paid, he was to invade Sindh on his return. Multan and Bhakkar being the tuyul of the Khan Khanan, he did not move into Qandahār by way of Ghaznīn and Bengash, but chose a round-about way through his jagir. In the meantime the conquest of Thatha had been determined upon at Court, and the Khan Khanan set out at once for Sindh (vide p. 356, and Brigg's Firishta). After bravely defending the country, M. J. B. had at last to yield. In the 38th year (1001), accompanied by the Khan Khanan, he paid his respects to Akbar at Lähor, was made a Commander of Three Thousand, and received the Süba of Multan as tuyül, Sindh itself being assigned to M. Shahrukh (No. 7). But before this arrangement was carried out, a report reached Akbar that the Arghun clan, about 10,000 men, women, and children, moved up the river, to follow M. J. B. to his new tuyul, and that great distress had thereby been caused both among the emigrants and those who were left behind. Akbar felt that under such circumstances policy should yield to mercy, and M. J. B. was appointed to Sindh. Lähari Bandar, however, became khālisa, and the Sarkar of Siwistan which had formerly paid pishkash, was parcelled out among several grandees.

In the 42nd year, M. J. B. was promoted to a command of Three Thousand and Five Hundred. He was much liked by Akbar for his character, religious views (vide p. 218-9), pleasing manners, and practical wisdom. It is perhaps for this reason that Abū 'l-Fazl has placed him first among the Commanders of Three Thousand, though names much more renowned follow. From his youth, M. J. B. had been fond of wine, but had not indulged in excesses: his babitual drinking, however, undermined his health, and brought on delirium (sarsam), of which he died, in 1008, at Burhanpur in the Dakhin, after the conquest of Asir.

A short time before his death, he offended Akbar by declaring that had he had an Asir, he would have held it for a hundred years.

M. J. B. was fond of poetry; he was himself a poet and wrote under the takhallus of Halimi.1

1 Here follows in the Masagirs 'l-Umara, a description of Sundh taken from the

[&]quot;Mere follows in the Ma"āgir" 'l-Umarā, a description of Sindh taken from the Third Book of the Ā"ān, concluding with the following remark:—
"At present (when the author of the Ma"āgir, wrote), the whole of Sindh is under Khadā Yār Khān Latī (La). From a long time he had farmed (ijārs herā) the Sābe of Thothah, and the Sarkars of Siwistān and Bhakkar. Subsequently when the district on the other side of the Indus were coded to Nādir Shāh, Khādā Yār Khān administered them for Nādir Shāh."

Mirsā Ghāsī Beg, son of M. Jānī Beg. At the death of his father, he was only 17 years old; and though not at Court, Akbar conferred Sindh on him. He was opposed by Mīrzā clas Tarkhān, son of Mīrzā Jān Bābā (brother of M. Muhammad Bāqī, grandfather of M. Jānu Beg); but Khusraw Khan Chirgis, an old servant of the Arghuns and Vakul to his father, espoused his cause, and M. Sisa Tarkhan fled from Sindh. The army which M. Ghazi Beg and Khusraw Khan had at their disposal, seems to have made them inclined to rebel against Akbar; but the Emperor sent promptly Sacid Khan (No. 25) and his son Sacdu'llah 1 to Bhakkar, and M. Ghazi Beg came to Court, and was confirmed in the government of Sindh.

After the accession of Jahangir, M. Ghazi Beg received Multan in addition to Sindh, was made a Commander of Seven Thousand, and was sent to relieve Qandahār (Tuzuk, pp. 33, 72, 109), which had been besieged by Husayn Khan Shamlu, the Persian Governor of Harat. He also received the title of Farzand (son). Shah Abbas of Persia often tried to win him over, and sent him several khiclate.

He died suddenly at the age of twenty-five in 1018, the word Ghāzī being the Tarikh of his death. Suspicion attaches to Lutfu'llah, his Vakil and son of Khusraw Khan Chirgis, who appears to have been treated unkindly. M. Ghāzī does not appear to have had children.

Like his father, he was a poet. He wrote under the takhallus of Vacari, which he had bought of a Qandahar poet. He played nearly every instrument. Poets like Tālibī of Amul, Mullā Murshid-i Yazdiirdī. Mir Ni^cmat^a 'lläh Vacili, Mullä Asad Qissa-khwan, and especially Fughfüri of Gilan enjoyed his liberality. The last left him, because his verses were too often used for dakhl (vide p. 198, note 8). In his private life, M. Ghazi was dissolute. Not only was he given to wine, but he required every night a virgin; girls from all places were brought to him, and the

¹ Sa²da 'llik has been omitted to be mentioned on p. 351. He received the title of Nancirial Khān in 1020; vide Turuk, pp. 34, 96.

² So the Ma²āsir. The Turuk (p. 109), perhaps more correctly, places the death of M. Ghāsi in the 7th year of Jahāngir's reign, 1021.

After M. Ghāsi Bog's death, Sindh was taken away from the Tarkhāns, and

M. Restam was appointed Governor (vide p. 314).

Kharaw Chirgle tried to set up some \$\(\text{Abd}^{\mathbb{a}} \) '!-\$\(\text{All Tarkhan}\$, whose pedigree is not known; but Jakkagir bestewed his favours on Miraš \$\(\text{Isa} \) Tarkhan, son of M. Jan Bābā (uncle of M. Jānī Beg). He rose to the highest honours under Shāhjahān, and died more than a hundred years old, in 1962, at Sambhar. He had four sons—1. Mirzā Çināyat", who died in the 21st year of Shāhjahān; 2. Mirzā Muhammad Şālih, who played some part during Awrangaeb's war with Dārā Shikoh; 3. Fath" 'liāh, 4. M. Çāqil. Mirzā Biliphā, M. Muhammad Şalih's son, is mentioned as a Commander of Five Hundred under Shāhjahān.

women of the town of Thatha are said to have been so debauched, that every bad woman, even long after his death, claimed relationship with the Mirza.

Note on the meaning of the title of "Tarkhan".

Abū 'l-Fazl, in the Akbarnama (38th year) has a valuable note regarding the meaning and the history of this ancient title. The title was hereditary, and but rarely given. Chingiz Khan conferred it on Qishliq and Bata for having given him correct information regarding the enemy. The title in this case, as in all others, implied that the holder was excused certain feudal services, chiefly attendance at Court taklif-i bar).1 Chingiz Khan, moreover, did not take away from the two nobles the royal share of the plunder. Under Timur, a Tarkhan had free access to every place of the palace, and could not be stopped by the macebearers; nor was he or his children liable to be punished for any crime, provided the number of his or their crimes did not exceed the number nine *

Some say, a Tarkhan had seven distinctions and privileges—1. a tabl; 2, a tümäntogh; 3, a naggāra; 4, he can confer on two of his men a quehun togh, or chatr togh; \$ 5, his Qur (p. 116) was carried (qur-i u nīz bardarand). Among the Mughuls no one but the king was allowed to use a quiver. 6. He could enclose (qurq) a forest as his private hunting ground, and if any one entered the euclosure, he forfeited his personal liberty. 7. He was looked upon as the head of the clan to which he belonged. In the state hall the Amirs sat behind him to his right and left arranged in form of a bow (kamānwār).

When Tughlug Timur conferred this title upon an Amir,4 he put all financial matters (dad o sitad) as far as a Hazari (?) in his charge; nor were his descendants, to the ninth generation, liable to be called to account; but should their crimes exceed the number nine, they were to be called to account. When a Tarkhan had to answer for blood shed by him (pādāsh-i khūn), he was placed on a silver-white horse two years old, and a white cloth was put below the feet of the animal. His statement was made by a chief of the Barlas clan (vide p. 364 note), and the

^{[1} Takiff duty.- -P.]
None was looked upon as an important number by the Mughule. Thus kings received " N'INE WEB 100KEU UPON AS AN IMPORTANT NUMBER DY THE MURNIE. THUS KINGS received sine presents, or the present consisted of nine pieces of the asme article. Hence also the Chaptes I tugus (or tugus or tugus), nine came to mean a present, in which sense it seems in the Padishthadma and the Chiangir-nama, especially in reference to presents if studie, as haft tugus parche, " a present of seven pieces of cloth."

9 Vide p. 52.

4 The MES. call him Land or Land with every variety of discritical points.

sentence was communicated to him by a chief of the Arkiwat (اركيوت) clan. His neck vein was then opened, the two chiefs remaining at his side, and watching over him till he was dead. The king was then led forth from the palace, and sat down to mourn over him.

Khizr Khwāja in making Mīr Khudādād a Tarkhān, added three new privileges. 1. At the time of wedding feasts (tūī), when all grandees have to walk on foot, and only the yasāwal (chief mace-bearer) of the king on horseback to keep back the crowds, the Tarkhān also proceeds on horseback. 2. When during the feast the cup is handed to the king from the right side, another cup is at the same time handed to the Tarkhān from the left. 3. The Tarkhān's seal is put on all orders; but the seal of the king is put to the beginning of the last line and below his.

Abū 'l-Fazl, in concluding these remarks, says that these distinctions are extraordinary enough; he believes it possible that a king may grant a virtuous man immunity for nine crimes; but he thinks it absurd to extend the immunity to nine generations.

48. Iskandar Khan, a descendant of the Uzbak Kings.

He distinguished himself under Humāyūn, who on his return to India made him a <u>Khān</u>. After the restoration, he was made Governor of Agra. On Hemū's approach, he left Agra, and joined Tardī Beg at Dihlī. Both opposed Hemū, Iskandar commanding the left wing (jūranghār). His wing defeated the right wing (burunghār) and the van (harāwal) of Hemū, and hotly pursued them, killing many fugitives. The battle was almost decided in favour of the Imperialists, when Hemū with his whole force broke upon Tardī Beg, and put him to flight. The victorious Iskandar was thus obliged to return. He afterwards joined Akbar at Sarhind, fought under <u>Kh</u>ān Zamān (No. 13) against Hemū, and received after the battle for his bravery, the title of Khān Alam.

As Khizr Khwāja Khān,1 the Governor of the Panjāb, had retreated

I Khizr had descended from the kings of Müghulistän; but according to the Tabash from the kings of Kāshghar. He was a grander of Humāyūn, left him on his flight to Persia, and was with M. SAskarī in Qandahār, when Humāyūn on his return besieged that town. Before the town surrendered, Khizr Khwāja threw himself down from the wall, managed to reach Humāyūn's tent, and implored forgiveness. He was restored to favour, was made Amūra'l-Umarā, and married Gulbadan Begam, H.'s sister. When Akbar marched against Hemū. Khizr Khān was made Governor of the Pānjāb and ordered to operate against Sikandar. Sūr, who during Humāyūn's lifetime had retreated to the Sawāliks. Leaving Hājī Khān Sistānī in Lahor, Khizr Khān moved against Sikandar, whom he met near a place called in the MSS. Alber. Kh. selected two thousand horsemen to reconnoitre; but Sikandar was on the alert, fell upon the detachment, and defeated the Imperialists. Kh. without further fighting retreated to Lāhor. Sikandar used the respite, and collected a large army, till Akbar himself had to move against him. Finding Akbar's army too strong, Sikandar shut himself up in Mānkot. After a siege of six months, Sikandar bribed Shamsa'd-Dīn Atgah (No. 15) and Pīr Muḥammad (No. 20) who prevailed

before Sikandar Khan Sur, and fortified himself in Lahor, leaving the country to the Afghans, Akbar appointed Iskandar to move to Siyalkot and assist Khizr Khwaia.

Afterwards he received Audh as tuyül. "From want of occupation," he rebelled in the tenth year. Akbar ordered Ashraf Khan (No. 74) to bring him to Court but Isk. joined Khan Zaman (No. 13). Together with Bahadur Khan (No. 22), he occupied Khayrabad (Audh), and attacked Mir Musizzu 'l-Mulk (No. 61). Bahadur ultimately defeated the Imperialists; but Isk. had in the first fight been defeated and fled to the north of Audh.

When in the 12th year Khan Zaman and Bahadur again rebelled, Isk. in concert with them occupied Audh. He was attacked by Muhammad Oult Khan Barlas (No. 31), and besieged in Avadh. When Isk. heard that Khan Zaman and Bahadar had been defeated and killed, he made proposals of peace, and managed during the negotiation to escape by boat with his family to Gorakhpur, which then belonged to Sulayman, king of Bengal. He appears to have attached himself to the Bengal (burt, and accompanied, in 975, Bāyazīd, Sulaymān's son, over Jhārkand to Orisa. After Sulayman's return from the conquest of Orisa, 1 lsk.'s presence in Bengal was looked upon as dangerous, as Sulayman wished at all hazards to be at peace with Akbar, and the Afghans waited for a favourable opportunity to kill Iskandar. He escaped in time, and applied to Mun'im Khan, who promised to speak for him. At his request, Isk. was pardoned. He received the Sarkar of Laksinau as tuyul, and died there in the following year (980).

49. Asaf Khan 'Abd" 'l-Majid (of Hirat), a descendant of Shaykh

Abū Bakr-i Taybadī.

His brother Vazir Khan has been mentioned above (No. 41). Shaykh Zayn" 'd-Din Abû Bakr-i Taybadî " was a saint (sāḥib kamāl) at the time of Timur. When Timur, in 782, set out for the conquest of Hirat, which was in the hands of Malik Chiyasa 'd-Din, he sent, on his arrival at

He died A.H. 791. His biography is given in Jami's Nafhate 'l-Uns. Taybid belongs to Jam-i Khurdsin.

25

upon Akbar to pardon him. Sikandar sent his son SAbdu 'r-Rahman with some elephants as piekkash, and was allowed by Akbar to occupy Bihar as tuyul (wide p. 236). Mankot surrendered on the 27th Ramasan 964. Sikandar died two years later. It is difficult to say why Abe'l Fast had not entered Khizr Khan in the List of Grandess.

His name is given in the Tabaşak. Similarly Khwaja Musagim and Mir Shah ÇAbda 'l-MaCali are left out. For Kh.'s son, wide No. 153.

1 On Sulsyman's return from Orisa, he appointed Khan Jahan Lodhi, his Amir-ul-Umara, Governor of Orisa, Qutin Ehan, who subsequently made himself king of Orisa, was then Governor of Püri (Jagganath) Bad. II, 174.

1 Ha died A. N. 791. His biography is given in Jant's Machan in Tabatha Machan i

Tāybād, a messenger to the Shaykh, to ask him why he had not paid his respects to the conqueror of the world. "What have I." replied the Shavkh. "to do with Timur?" Timur, struck with this answer, went himself to the Shaykh, and upbraided him for not having advised Malik Ghiyas. "I have indeed done so," said the Shaykh, "but he would not listen, and God has now appointed you over him. However, I now advise you, too, to be just, and if you likewise do not listen, God will appoint another over you." Timur afterwards said that he had seen many dervishes; every one of them had said something from selfish motives, but not so Shaykh Abū Bakr, who had said nothing with reference to himself.

Khwaja Abdu 'l-Majīd was a Grandee of Humāyūn, whom he served as Dīwān. On Akbar's accession, he also performed military duties. When the Emperor moved to the Panjab, to crush Bayram's rebellion, Abdu 'l-Majīd received the title of Aşaf Khān, regarding which vide the note after this biographical notice. Subsequently Asaf was appointed Governor of Dihli, received a flag and a drum, and was made a Commander of Three Thousand. When Fattu, a servant of Adli, made overtures to surrender Fort Chanadh (Chunar), A., in concert with Shaykh Muhammad Ghaws, took possession of it, and was appointed Governor of Kara-Mānikpūr on the Ganges. About the same time, Ghāzī Khān Tannūrī, an Afghān noble who had for a time been in Akbar's services. fled to Bhath Ghora, and stirred up the Zamīndars against Akbar. A., in the 7th year, sent a message to Raja Ram Chand, the ruler of Bhath, to pay tribute to Akbar, and surrender the enemies. But the Raja prepared for resistance. A. marched against the Raja, defeated him, and executed Ghāzī Khān. The Rāja, after his defeat, shut himself up in Bāndhū,1 but obtained Abbar's pardon by timely submission, chiefly through the influence of several Rāja's at Court. A. then left the Rāja in peace; but the spoils which he had collected and the strong contingent which he had at his disposal (vide p. 251, l. 29), made him desirous of further warfare and he planned the famous expedition against Gadha-Katangah,²

¹ Abū 'l-Fazl in the events of the 42nd year of the Akbarnāma, says that ÇAlā⁶u 'd-Dîn-i- Khiljî besieged Bāndhū in vain.

Gadha (Gurh, Gurhah, Gurrah) lies close to Jabalpür in Central India. Katangah is the name of two small places, one due south of Jubalpür below lat. 22, as on the map is the name of two small places, one due south of Jubaipur below lat. 22, as on the map in Journal A. S. B., Decr. 1837, pl. lvii; another apparently larger place of the same name lies N.W. of, and nearer to, Jabaipur and Gadha, about lat. 23° 30', as on the map of Central India in Sir J. Malcolm's Malwa; but both are called on the maps Katangi. In Muhammadan Histories, the country is generally called Gadha-Katangah. Abū 'l-Farl says, it had an extent of 150 kee by \$0 kee, and there were in ancient times 80,000 flourishing cities. The inhabitanta, she says, are all Gonds, who are looked upon by Hindūs as very low. The Rājas of Gadha-Katangah are generally called the Gadha-Mandlā Rājas. Mandlā lies S.E. of Jabaipūr, on the right side of the Narbaddah.

or Gondwänah, south of Bhath, which was then governed by Durgäwati, the heroine of Central India. Her heroic defence and suicide, and the death of her son, Bīr Sāh, at the conquest of Chaurāgadh (about 70 miles west of Jabalpūr) are well-known. The immense spoils which Å. carried off, led him temporarily into rebellion, and of the 1,000 elephants which he had captured, he only sent 200 to Court. But when Khān Zamān (No. 13), in the 10th year, rebelled and besieged Majnūn Qāqshāl (No. 50) in Mānikpūr, Ā. came with 5,000 troopers to his relief, presented himself before Akbar, who had marched against Khān Zamān, and handed over the remainder of the Gadha spoils. He thereby regained Akbar's confidence and was appointed to follow up the rebels. At this juncture the imperial Mutaṣaddīs, whom Ā. before had handsomely bribed, reported, from envy, his former unwillingness to hand over the spoils, and exaggerated his wealth. Hypocritical friends mentioned this to Ā.; and afraid of his personal safety, he fled to Gadha (Ṣafar, 973).

Akbar looked upon his flight as very suspicious, and appointed Mahdi Qasim Khan (No. 36) to Gadha. A, then left Central India " with a sorrowful heart", and joined, together with his brother (No. 41), Khan Zamān at Jaunpūr. But he soon saw that Khān Zamān only wanted his wealth and watched for a favourable moment to kill him. A. therefore made use of the first opportunity to escape. Khan Zaman had sent his brother Bahādur (No. 22) against the Afghans, and A. was to accompany him. Vazir Khān, whom 'Khān Zamān had detained, managed likewise to escape, and was on the road to Manikpur, which A. had appointed as place of rendezvous. No sooner had A. escaped than Bahadur followed him up, defeated his men, and took A. prisoner. Bahadur's men immediately dispersed in search of plunder, when suddenly Vazīr Khān fell over Bahådur. Bahådur made some one a sign to kill A., who sat fettered on an elephant, and A. had just received a wound in his hand and nose, when Vazir in time saved his life, and carried him away. Both reached, in 973, Karah, and asked Muzaffar Khan (No. 37) to intercede for them with the emperor. When Muzaffar, in 974, was called by the emperor to the Panjab, he took Vazīr with him, and obtained full pardon for the two brothers. A. was ordered to join Majnun Qaqshal at Kara-Manikpur. His bravery in the last struggle with Khan Zaman induced Akbar, in 975, to give him Piyag as tuyul, vice Haji Muhammad Sistani (No. 55), to enable him to recruit a contingent for the expedition against

¹ Cagé. Sleeman in his "History of the Gurha Mandala Réjas", Journal A.S. Bengal, vol. vi, p. 627, spells her name Durghoutes. He calls her son Bir Nardin. Vide also Badd,onf, ii, 66.

Rānā Udai Singh. A. was sent in advance (mangalā). In the middle of Rabīs I, 975, Akbar left Agra for Chitor. The Rana had commissioned Jay Mal, who had formerly been in Mirtha, to defend the fort, whilst he himself had withdrawn to the mountains. During the siege, which lasted four months and seven days, A. distinguished himself, and when, on the 25th Shasban 975, the fort fell A, was made Governor of Chitor.

Neither the Matasir, nor the Tabagat, mentions the year of his death. He must have been dead in 981, because the title of Asaf Khan was bestowed upon another noble.1

Note on the Title of " Asaf Khan".

Asaf was the name of the Vazīr of Sulaymān (Solomon), who like his master is proverbial in the East for his wisdom. During the reign of Akbar three grandees received this title. Bada,oni, to avoid confusion. numbers them Asaf Khan I, II, and III. They are :-

Abdu 'l-Majīd, Āṣaf Khān I, d. before 981 (No. 49).

Khwaja Mirza Ghiyasu 'd-Dîn SAli Asaf Khan II, d. 989 (No. 126). Mīrzā Ja^cfar Beg Āsaf Khān III (No. 98).

The three Asafs were Diwans or Mir Bakhshis. The third was nephew to the second, as the following tree will show:-

Aghā Mulla Dawatdar.

1. Ghiyaşu 'd-Dîn 'Ali, 2. Mîrza Badî (u-z-Zaman 3. Mîrza Ahmad Beg. Asaf Khān II.

Mîrzā Nüru 'd-Dîn. A daughter Mîrzā Jacfar Beg, Aşaf Khān III.

> Mumtaz Mahall, (Shāhiahān's wife).

Jahangir conferred the title of "Aşaf Khan" (IV) on Abu 'l-Hasan, elder brother of Nür Jahan, and father of Mumtaz Mahall (or Tāj Bībī, Shāhjahān's wife), whose mother was a daughter of Asaf Khān II. During the reign of Shāhjahān when titles containing the word Dawla * were

of Mahwad of Ghami when prince. The kings of the Dakhin occasionally conferred titles

¹ Stewart (History of Bengal, p. 120) says, \PAbd^u 'l-Majid Āsaf Khān officiated in 1013 for Mān Singh in Bengal. This is as impossible as his statement on p. 112, that Faridu'd-Din Bukhāri [No. 30] is the author of the History of the Emperor Jahāngir.

3 They had been in use among the Khalifas and the Ghaznawis. Thus Yomfas'd-Devis which title Shāhjahān bestowed on Abū 'l-Hasan Āsaf Khān IV, had also been the title of Mahmād of Ghazni when wrings. The kings of the Dakhin consequently conferred titles.

revived, Asaf Khan was changed to Asaf "'d-Daula, and this title was conferred on Asafu 'd-Dawla Jumlatu 'l-Mulk Asadjang (Shahjahan-Awrang-zeb), a relation of Asaf Khan IV. Under Ahmad Shah, lastly, we find Asafu 'd-Dawla Amīru 'l-Mamālik, whose name like that of his father. Nizāmu 'l-Mulk Asaf Jāh, occurs so often in later Indian History.

50. Majnun Khān-i Qāgshāl.1

He was a grandee of Humāyūn, and held Nārnaul as jāgīr. When Humayun fled to Persia, Hājī Khan besieged Narnaul, but allowed Majnun Khan to march away unmolested, chiefly at the request of Rajs Bihāri Mal, who, at that time, was with Hāji Khān (vide p. 347).

On Akbar's accession, he was made Jāgīrdār of Mānikpūr, then the east frontier of the Empire. He remained there till after the death of Khān Zamān (No. 13), bravely defending Akbar's cause. In the 14th year, he besieged Kālinjar. This fort was in the hands of Rāja Rām Chand, ruler of Bhath, who during the Afghan troubles had bought it for a heavy sum, from Bijli Khān, the adopted son of Pahār Khān. When, during the siege, the Raja heard of the fall of Chitor and Rantanbhur, he surrendered Kälinjar to M. (29th Safar, 997). Akbar appointed M. Commander of the Fort, in addition to his other duties.

In the 17th year (980), he accompanied Muncim Khān (No. 11) on his expedition to Gorakhpur. At the same time the Guirāti war had commenced, and as Baba Khan Qaqshal had words with Shahbas Khan (No. 80), the Mir Tozak, regarding certain arrangements, he was reproved by Akbar. But the rumour spread in Muncim's army that Baba Khan Jabári (Majnūn's son), Mīrzā Muhammad, and other Qaqshals, had killed Shahbaz Khan, and joined the rebellion of the Mirzas in Gujrat; and that Akbar had therefore ordered Muncim to imprison Majnun. In consequence of these false rumours, M. and others of his clan withdrew from Munsim, who in vain tried to convince them of the absurdity of the rumours; but

The title Malik, so common among the Pathans, was never conferred by the Muchail (Cheghtai) Kings of Delhi.

Titles with Jang, as Firszjang, Nurratjang, etc., came into fashion with Jahangir.

Name of a Turkish clan. Like the Uzbaks, they were disliked by Akbar, and rebelled.

with Dawle. This is very likely the reason why Axbar conferred the title of Āzād*
'd-Dawle on Mir Fath* 'llah of Shīrāz, who had come from the Dakhin.

Majnun Khān was certainly the best of thems.

² Baba Khān Qāqsādi also was a grandee of Akbar, but Abū 'l-Fagl has left him out in this list. Like Majnun he distinguished himself in the war with Khān Zamān and the Mirzāc. During Muncim's expedition to Bengal, the Qāqahāls received extensive jāgirs in Ghorāghāt. Bābā Khān was looked upon as the head of the clan after Majnūn's death. He rebelled with Macaūm Khān-i Kābull, partly in consequence of Mūzaffar Khān's (No. 87) exactions, and assumed the title of Khān Khānān. He died in the same year in which Mugaffar died, of cancer in the face (Khāra), which he said he had brought on himself by his faithlessness. [Thurs chancre !-- P.]

when M. soon after heard that Baba Khan and Jabari had been rewarded by Akbar for their brave behaviour in the Guirāti war, he was ashamed of his hastiness, and rejoined Muncim who, in the meantime, had taken Gorakhpür.

'M. accompanied Mun'im on his Bengal expedition. When, in 982, Dā, ūd, retired to Orīsā, and Kālā Pahār, 1 Sulaymān Manklī and Bābū Mankli had gone to Ghoraghat, Muncim sent M. against them. conquered the greater part of Northern Bengal, and carried off immense spoils. On the death of Sulayman Mankli, the acknowledged ruler of Ghorāghāt, a great number of the principal Afghān nobles were caught, and M. with the view of securing peace, married the daughter of Sulayman Mankli to his son Jabari. He also parcelled out the whole country among his clan. But Bābū Manklī and Kālā Pahār had taken refuge in Kūch Bihar, and when Muncim was in Katak, they were joined by the sons of Jalālu 'd-Dīn Sūr, and fell upon the Qāqshāls. The latter, without fighting, cowardly returned to Tanda, and waited for Muncim, who, on his return from Orisa, sent them with reinforcements to Ghoraghat. The Qaqshals re-occupied the district. Majnun died soon after at Ghoraghat.

The Tabagat says that he was a Commander of Five Thousand, and had a contingent of 5,000 troopers.

His son Jabari, distinguished himself by his zeal and devotion. The enforcing of the Dagh law led him and his clan into rebellion. Jabari then assumed the title of Khān Jahān. When the Qāshāls left Massum (p. 344), Jabari went to Court. Akbar imprisoned him, but pardoned him in the 39th year.

51. Shujāsat Khān, Muqim-i SArab.

He is the son of Tardī Beg's sister (No. 12). Hümäyün made Muqim-a Khān. On the emperor's flight to Persia, he joined Mīrzā Askarī. When Humayun took Qandahar on his return, Muqim, like most old nobles,

Babū Mankii subsequently entered Akbar's service (vide No. 202). European historians generally spell his name Bābū Mangali, as if it came from the Hindi mangal, Tuesday. This may be correct; for common people in India do still use such names. But monkii is perhaps preterable. Two of Timūr's ancestors had the same name. The Tuesdah monkii means julia, khāidār, spotted.

The best MSS. of the Akbaraāma, Badā,oni, and the Masāsir have galay. Stewart (n. 100) selle him Jakasing (2).

(p. 100) calls him Jobbaburdy (1).

¹ The renowned conqueror of the temple of Jagannath at Pürl in S. Orisā. Vide below Third Book, Subse of Bengal and Orisa. A minute description of his conquest is given in the Makham-i Afgham and by Stirling in his Account of Orissa, Asiatic Researches. vol. zv. But Stirling's account, taken as it is from the Püri Vynsavali (a chronicle kept for the last six hundred years in the temple of Pürl) differs considerably from the Akbarnāma. Kālā Pahār was killed by a gun-shot in one of the fights between Maceum and Qutlü of Orisā, and CAzīz Koka (vide p. 344) which, in 990, took place between Khalgaw (Colgong) and Gadhī (near Rajmahall).

presented himself before the emperor with a sword hanging from his neck, and was for a short time confined. After his release, he remained with Muncim Khān (No. 11) in Kābul, and followed him to India, when Akbar called Muncim to take Bayrām's place.

In the 9th year, Muqim distinguished himself in the pursuit of Abdu 'llāh Khān Uzbak (No. 14), "the king of Mandi," and received the title of Shujāsat Khān, which Akbar had taken away from the rebellious Abdu 'llāh.

In the beginning of the 15th year, Akbar honoured him by being his guest for a day.

In the 18th year, he accompanied the Emperor on his forced march to Ahmadābād (p. 343). Once he slandered Mun'sim, and Akbar sent him to the Khān Khānān to do with him what he liked; but Mun'sim generously forgave him, and had him restored.

In the 22nd year, he was made a Commander of Three Thousand, and Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Malwah.

In 988, when troubles in Bihār and Bengal had broken out, Shujā at Khān, at Akbar's order, left Sārangpūr for Fathpūr (Badā,onī II, 284). At the first stage, Iwaz Beg Barlās who complained of arrears of pay and harsh treatment of the men, created a tumult, made a man of the name Hājī Shihāb Khān leader, fell upon Shujā at's tent, and killed his son Qawim Khān. Shujā at himself was mortally wounded. Some of his adherents, at last, managed to put the dying Sh. on an elephant, and led him off to Sārangpūr. Though Sh. had expired before they reached the town, they did not spread the news of his death, and thus kept the greater part of the soldiers together, and joined Akbar in Sārangpūr.

Akbar punished the rebels severely. According to p. 294, Akbar once saved Shujāsat's life in the jungles.

From Badā, onī (II, 284), we learn that Qawim Khān was a young man, renowned for his musical talents.

Muqim Khān (No. 386) is Shujā at Khān's second son. He was promoted under Akbar to a Commandership of seven hundred.

Qā im Khān was the son of Muqim Khān. Qā im's son, Abdu 'r-Rāḥīm, was under Jahāngīr a Commander of seven hundred and 400 horse, got the title of Tarbiyat Khān, and was made in the 5th year, Fawjdār of Alwar. Qā im's daughter, Ṣāliḥa Bānē, was received (3rd year) by Jahāngīr in his harem, and went by the title of Pādishāk Maḥall. She adepted Miyān Joh, son of the above, Abdu 'r-Raḥīm. Miyān Joh was

¹ No the Ma⁸ igir and the Akbarnāma. Radā,oni (ii, 284) has Qt⁶ im <u>K</u>hēn; but this is perhaps a mistake of the native editors of the Bibl. Indica.

killed by Mahābat Khān when near the Bahat (Jhelam) he had taken possession of Jahangir's person.

No: 52. Shah Budagh Khan, a descendant of Uymaqs 1 of

Miyankal, Samargand.

The Turkish Budagh means "a branch of a tree". He distinguished himself under Humäyün and was made by Akbar a Commander of Three Thousand.

In the 10th year he accompanied Mīr Mucizzu 'l-Mulk (No. 61) against Bahadur (No. 22). Though the imperialists were defeated, B. Kh. fought bravely, and was captured. His son Abdu 'l-Matlab (No. 83) ran away. In the 12th year, B. Kh. went with Shihabu 'd-Din Ahmad (No. 26) against Mīrzās in Mālwah, received Sārangpūr as tuyūl, fought under Axiz Koka (No. 21) in the battle of Patan (18th Ramazan 980), and was for a long time Governor of Mandu, where he died. The Tabaqat says, he had the title of Amīr" 'l-Umarā. He was alive in 984, when he met Akber at Mohini.

Inside Fort Mandu, to the south, close to the walls, he had erected a building, to which he gave the name of Nilkanth, regarding the inscriptions on which the Matasir gives a few interesting particulars.

53. Husayn Khân (Tukriya), sister's son of Mandī Qāsim Khān (No. 36.)

"He is the Bayard and the Don Quixote of Akbar's reign." jihads he was sans peur, and his private life sans reproche; he surpassed all grandees by his faithfulness and attachment to his masters, but his contingent was never in order; he was always poor, though his servants, in consequence of his liberality, lived in affluence. He slept on the ground, because his Prophet had enjoyed no greater luxuries; and his motto in fight was "death or victory"; and when people asked him why he did not invert the order and say "victory or death", he would reply, "O! I so long to be with the saints that have gone before."

He was the patron of the historian Bada,oni, who served Husayn as almoner to his estate (Shamsābād and Patyālī).

¹ There were two tribes of the Qarā Turks called [Jaj] or [Jaj] tymāq. They were renowned in India as horsemen. Hence [Jaj] as the word is generally spelt by Mughul Historians, means a kind of superior cavalry; vide Tusuk, p. 147, l. 17. How this Turkish word lost its original meaning in India, may be seen from p. 57, l. 1 of the second volume of my Asin text, where Abā 'l-Fazl applies the word to Rājpūt cavalry of the Rāthor clan. The word is prenounced aimāq in India.

The meaning of Migān Kāl is still unclear to me. To judge from Abū 'l-Fazl's phrase it must be the name of the bead or founder of a clan. The adjective Miyān Kālā occurs frequently. Two Miyān Kālās may be found below among the list of learned men (Qāzī Çābda 's-Samīc) and the poets (Qāsīm-i Kāhī).

**Vide my Essay on Badā, oni and his Works in J:A.S. Bengal, for 1869, p. 120.

Husayn Khān was not only sister's son, but also son-in-law to Mahdī Qāsim Khān (No. 36). He was in Bayrām's service. In the second year, after the conquest of Mānkot, Akbar made him Governor of Lāhor, where he remained four months and four days. When Akbar in Şafar 965, marched to Dihlī, he appointed H. Kh. Governor of the Panjāb. During his incumbency, he showed himself a zealous Sunnī. As the Christians did with the Jews, he ordered the Hindüs as unbelievers to wear a patch (Hind. tukrā) near the shoulders, and thus got the nickname of Tukriya "Patcher".

Like Shāh Qulī <u>Kh</u>ān Maḥram (No. 45), he stuck to Bayrām to the last, and did not meet Akbar at Jhūjhar; but after Bayrām had been pardoned, he entered Akbar's service. When Mahdī Qāsim <u>Kh</u>ān, from dislike to Gadha, went by way of the Dakhin to Makkah, Ḥ. Kh. accompanied him a short distance on the road. On his return, he reached Satwās in Mālwah, when the rebellion of the Mīrzās broke out, and in concert with Muqarrib <u>Kh</u>ān, the tuyūldār of that place, he tried to fortify himself in Satwās. But Maqarrib lost heart and fled; and Ḥ. Kh. was forced to leave the Fort, and asked Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn Mīrzā for an interview. Though urged to join the Mīrzā, Ḥ. Kh. remained faithful to Akbar.

In the 12th year, when Akbar moved against Khan Zaman, H. Kh. was to take a command, but his contingent was not ready. In the 13th year his jägir was transferred from Lakhnau, where he and Badā,oni had been for about a year, to Kanto Gola. His exacting behaviour towards Hindus and his religious expeditions against their temples annoyed Akbar very much. In the 19th year, when the Emperor went to Bihar, H. Kh. was again absent; and when Akbar returned after the conquest of Hajipur, he confiscated H.'s jagir; but on satisfying himself of his harmlessness, he pardoned him, restored his jagir, and told him to get his contingent ready. His mania, however, again overpowered him. He made an expedition against Basantpur in Kama,on, which was proverbially rich, and got wounded by a bullet in the shoulder. Akbar was almost convinced that he had gone into rebellion, and sent Sadiq Khan (No. 43) to him to bring him by force to Court H. Kh. therefore left Garh Muktesar, with the view of going to Muncim Khan, through whose influence he hoped to obtain pardon. But he was caught at Barhs, and was taken to Fathpur Sikri, where in the same year (963) he died of his wounds.

¹ Elliot (Index, p. 235, First Edition) has by mistake Lakhner (on the Rämganga) instead of Lakhner (in Audh), and he calls Hussyn Khān a Kashmiri. This must be an oversight.

The Tabaqat says, he was a Commander of Two Thousand; but according to the Akbarnama, he had since the 12th year been a Commander of Three Thousand.

His son, Yüsuf Khan, was a grandee of Jahangir. He served in the Dakhin in the corps of Azīz Kokā (No. 21), who, in the 5th year, had been sent with 10,000 men to reinforce Prince Parwiz, the Khan Khanan, and Man Singh, because on account of the duplicity of the Khan Khanan (Tuzuk p. 88) the imperialists were in the greatest distress (vide pp. 344 and 357). Yüsuf's son, Sizzat Khan, served under Shahjahan, (Padishahn. II. 121).

54. Murad Khan, son of Amir Khan Mughul Beg.

His full name is Muhammad Murad Khan. In the 9th year he served under Asaf Khan (No. 48) in Gadha Katanga. In the 12th year, he got a jägir in Mälwa, and fought under Shihābu 'd-Din Ahmad against the Mīrzās. After the Mīrzās had returned to Guirāt, M. got Ujjain as tuyūl.

In the 13th year, the Mîrzās invaded Mālwa from Khandesh, and Murad Khan, together with Mir 'Azizu' Ilah, the Diwan of Malwah, having received the news two days before the arrival of the enemies, shut themselves up in Ujjain, determined to hold it for Akbar. The Emperor sent Qulij Khan (No. 42) to their relief, when the Mirzas retreated to Mandu, Followed up by Qulij and Murad they retreated at last across the Narbeddah.

In the 17th year, the Mīrzās broke out in Gujrāt, and the jāgīrdārs of Malwah assembled under the command of M. Aziz Koka (No. 21). Murad held a command in the left wing, and took part, though not very actively, in the confused battle near Patan (Ramazan, 980).

In 982, he was attached to Mun'im's expedition to Bengal. He conquered for Akbar the district of Fathabad, Sarkar Bogla (S.E. Bengal), and was made Governor of Jalesar (Jellasore) in Orisa, after Dasud had made peace with Muncim.

When in 983, after Muncim's death, Dācūd fell upon Nazar Bahādur, Akbar's Governor of Bhadrak (Orisa), and treacherously killed him, Murad wisely retreated to Tanda.1

Subsequently M. was again appointed to Fathabad, where he was when the Bengal rebellion broke out. Murad at Fathabad Qiya Khan in

two frontier towns of his empire were to have similar names. Akbarnama.

As Muncim left Thanshdars in Bhadrak and Jalesar, Dasud must have been restricted to Katak proper. Muncim's invasion of Orisa was certainly one of the most daring exploits performed during Akbar's reign.

Maving mentioned Katak, I may here state that the name "Atak" (Attock, in the Panjab) was chosen by Akbar who built the town, because it rhymes with Katak. The

Orīsā, Mirzā Najāt at Sātgāw, were almost the only officers of Akbar's Bengal corps that did not take part in the great military revolt of 988. Qiyā was killed by Qutlū (p. 366), and Murād died at Fathābād immediately after the first outbreak of the revolt in 988, "before the veil of his loyalty was rent".

After his death, Mukand, the principal Zamindar of Fathabad, invited Murad's sons to a feast, and treacherously murdered them.

Vide No. 369.

55. Hājī Muhammed Khān of Sistan.

He was in the service of Bayram, who was much attached to him. In 961, when Bayram held Qandahar, rumours of treason reached Humayun. The Emperor went from Kabul to Qandahar, and personally investigated the matter, but finding Bayram innocent, he went back, taking Haji Muhammad with him, who during the investigation had been constantly referred to as inclined to rebellion.

After the conquest of Hindustan, H. M. at Bayram's request, was made a Khan, and was rapidly promoted.

In the 1st year of Akbar's reign, H. M. was ordered to accompany Khizr Khwāja'n (p. 365, note 2) on his expedition against Sikandar Sūr. Tardī Beg's (No. 12) defeat by Hemū had a bad effect on the Emperor's cause; and Mullā 'Abdu'llāh Makhdūma'l-Mulk who, though in Akbar's service, was said to be devoted to the interests of the Afghān's, represented to Sikandar that he should use this favourable opportunity and leave the Sawāliks. As related above Khisr Khwāja moved against Sikandar, leaving H. M. in charge at Lāhor. Being convinced of Makhdūm's treason, H. M. tortured him, and forced him to give up sums of money which he had concealed.

In 966, Bayram fell out with Pir Muhammad (No. 20), and deprived him of his office and emoluments which were given to H. M. When Bayram fell into disgrace, he sent H. M. with several other Amirs to Dihli with expressions of his humility and desire to be pardoned. But H. M. soon saw that all was lost. He did not receive permission to go back to Bayram. After Bayram had been pardoned (p. 318) H. M. and Muhammad Tarsō Khān (No. 32) accompanied him on his way to Hijāz as far as Nāgor, then the frontier of the Empire. Once, on the road, Bayram charged H. M. with faithlessness, when the latter gently reminded him that he had at least never drawn his sword against his master.

¹ Hell Muhammad is the same to whom Erskine's remark refers quoted by Elphinstone (Fifth Edition), p. 470 note.

H. M. was present in almost every campaign, and was promoted to the post of Sih-hazārī. In the 12th year, when Akbar set out for the conquest of Chitor, he sent H. M. and Shibābu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad (No. 26) from Gāgrūn against the sons of Sulṭān Muḥammad Mīrzā, who had fled from Sambhal and raised a revolt in Mālwah. H. M. then received the Sarkār of Mandū as jāgīr.

In the 20th year, H. M. accompanied Mun'im Khān on his expedition to Bengal and Orīsā, and got wounded in the battle of Takaroī (20th Zī Qa'da, 982). He then accompanied the Khān Khānān to Gaur, where

soon after Munsim's death he, too, died of malaria (983).

Note on the Battle of Takaroi, or Mughulmäri, in Orisä.

This battle is one of the most important battles fought by Akbar's generals. It crushed the Afghāns, and decided the possession of Bengal and Upper Orīsā. The MSS. of the Akbarnāma and the Ma'āṣir have Takarohī, and Takarohī. My copy of the Sawāniḥ has the former spelling. A few copies of the Akbarnāma have Nakrohī. In Badā,onī and the Tabaqāt the battle of Takaroī is called the battle of signal (vide p. 334) which may be Bajhorah, Bachhorah, Bajhorh, or Bachhorh. Stewart's account of Mun'im's Orīsā expedition (5th Section), differs in many particulars from the Akbarnāma and the Tabaqāt. He places the battle in the environs of Katak, which is impossible, and his "Bukhtore" is a blunder for ba-chittū,ā, "in Chittuā," the final alif having assumed the shape of a re, and the that of the Lucknow lithograph of the Akbarnāma, which challenges in corruptness the worst possible Indian MS., has ba-chitor, "in Chitor."

The Akbarnama, unfortunately, gives but few geographical details. Todar Mal moved from Bardwan over Madaran into the Pargana of Chittua (عَنَوَهُ), where he was subsequently joined by Muncim. Daud had taken up a strong position at هر برب, Harpur or Haripur, "which lies intermediate (barzakhe) between Bengal and Orisa." The same phrase (barzakhe), in other passages of the Akbarnama, is applied to Chittua itself. Daud's object was to prevent the Imperialists from entering Orisa into which led but few other roads; "but Ilyas Khan Langah

Madäran lies in Jahänäbäd, a Pargana of the Hügli district, between Bardwän and Mednipër (Midnapore). Regarding the importance and history of this town, vide my Phone of Historical Interest in the Hügli District", in the April Proceedings of the As. Soc. of Bengal for 1876.

showed the victorious army an easier road," and Mun'im entered the country, and thus turned Dā'ūd's position. The battle then takes place (20th Zī Qa'da, 982, or A.D., 3rd March, 1575). After the battle Todar Mal leads the pursuit and reaches with his corps the town of Bhadrak. Not long after, he writes to Mun'im to come and join him, as Dā'ūd had collected his troops near Kaṭak, and the whole army moves to Kaṭak. where a peace was concluded, which confirmed Dā'ūd in the possession of Kaṭak.

Now from the facts that the battle took place soon after the Imperialists had left Chittuā, which lies a little E.E.N. of Midniper (Midnapore), and that after the victory Rāja Todar Mal, in a pursuit of several days, pushed as far as Bhadrak, I was led to conclude that the battle must have taken place near Jalesar (Jellasore), and probably north of it, as Abū 'l-Fazl would have mentioned the occupation of se large a town. On consulting the large Trigonometrical Map of Orisā lately published, I found on the road from Midnipūr to Jalesar the village of Mogulmaree ¹ (Mughulmārī, i.e., Mughul's Fight) and about seven miles southwards, half way between Mughulmārī and Jalesar, and two miles from the left bank of the Soobanreeka river, the village of Tookaroe.

According to the map the latitude of Mughulmārī is 22°, and that of Tookaroe, 21° 53 nearly.

There can be no doubt that this Tookaroe is the تكرونى, Takaroi, of the Akbarnāma.

The battle extended over a large ground Bada, oni (II, p. 195, l. 3) speaks of three. four kos, i.e. about six miles, and thus the distance of Takaroï from Mughulmäri is accounted for.

I can give no satisfactory explanation of the name 1, 300, by which the battle is called in the Tabaqat and Bada, oni (II, 194, 1. 2). It looks as if the name contained the word chaur which occurs so often in the names of Parganas in the Jalesar and Balesar districts.

In Badā,onī (Edit. Ribl. Indica, p. 196) and the Tabaçãt, it is said that Todar Mal on his pursuit reached كلكاكي Kalkalghāṭā (1), not Bhadrak.

List of Officers who died in 983, after their return from Orisi, at Gour, of malaria.

t. Mun^cim Khān, Khān Khānān, 2. Ḥājī Khān Sistānī (No. 56). (18th Rājab). Vide p. 334. 3. Ḥaydar Khān (No. 66).

¹ Another "Mughulmäri" lies in the Bardwin district between Bardwin and Jahanahad (Hügli district) on the old high road from Bardwin over Madiran to Hidalphy.

- 4. Mīrzā Qulī Khān, his brother. 10. Hāshim Khān.
- 5. Ashraf Khān (No. 74). 11. Muḥsin Khān.
- 6. Musinu 'd-Dîn Ahmad (No. 128). 12. Qunduz Khan.
- 7. La^cl Khān (No. 209). 13. Abū'l-Ḥusayn.
- . 8. Hājī Yūsuf Khān (No. 224). 14. Shāh Khalīl.
- 9. Shah Tahir (No. 236).
 - 56. Afral Khan, Khawja Sultan Ali 1 -yi Turbati.

Regarding Turbati vide No. 37. He was Mushrif (accountant) of . Humayun's Treasury, and was, in 956, promoted to the post of Mushrif-i Buyūtāt (store accountant). In 957, when Mīrzā Kāmrān took Kābul, he imprisoned A. Kh., and forced him to pay large sums of money. On Humāvūn's return to India, A. Kh. was made Mīr Bakhshī, and got an Salam. He was together with Tardi Beg (No. 12) in Dihli, when Humayun died. In the battle with Hemü, he held a command in the centre (qol), and his detachment gave way during Hemū's charge. A. Kh., together with Pir Muhammad (No. 20) and Ashraf Khan (No. 74), fled from the battlefield, partly from hatred towards Tardi Beg-the old hatred of Khurāsānīs towards Uzbaks-and retreated to Akbar and Bayrām. As related above, Tardi Beg was executed by Bayram for this retreat, and A. Kh. and Ashraf Khan were convicted of malice and imprisoned. But both escaped and went to Makkah. They returned in the 5th year, when Bayram had lost his power, and were favourably received at Court. A. Kh. was made a Commander of three thousand.

"Nothing else is known of him." $Ma^*\bar{a}_5ir$.

57. Shahbeg Khan, son of Irbahim Beg Harik (?).2

He is sometimes called Beg <u>Khān</u> (p. 327). He was an Arghūn; hence his full name is Shāh Beg <u>Kh</u>ān Arghūn. Under Jahāngīr he got the title of Khān Dawrān.

He was in the service of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm of Kābul, Akbar's brother, and was Governor of Peshāwar. When after the Prince's death, Mān Singh, in 993, crossed the Nīlāb (p. 362) for Kābul, Shāh Beg took M. M. Ḥakīm's two sons, Kay Qubāb and Afrāsiyāb, to Akbar, and received a manşab. Sh. B. distinguished himself in the war with the Yūsufsā is, and got Khashāb as jāgīr. He then served under the Khān Khānān in Sindh, and was for his bravery promoted to a command of 2,500. In the 39th year Akbar sent bim to Qandahār (p. 327), which,

¹ The word CAll has been omitted in my text edition on p. 224.
^a So the Ma^aagir. My MSS. of the A^ain have حربك, which may be Harik, Harmak, Harbak, etc. Some MSS. read clearly Harmak.

Mugaffar Husayn had ceded. During the time of his Governorship Sh. B. succeeded in keeping down the notorious Kākar 555 tribe. In the 42nd year, he was made a Commander of 3,500. In the 47th year, Chaznin was placed in his charge (vide No. 63).

Immediately after the accession of Jahängir, Husayn Khān Shāmlü, the Persian Governor at Hirāt, thinking Akbar's death would lead to disturbances, made war upon Sh. B. and besieged Qandahār, which he haped to starve out. To vex him, Sh. B. gave every night feasts on the top of the castle before the very eyes of the enemies (Tuzuk, p. 33). One day Husayn Khān sent an ambassador into the Fort, and Sh. B., though provisions had got low, had every available store of grain spread out in the streets, in order to deceive the enemies. Not long after, Husayn Shāh received a reprimand from Shāh Abbās for having besieged Qandahār "without orders", and Husayn Khān, without having effected anything, had to raise the siege.

When Jahangir in 1016 (18th Şafar) visited Kābul, Sh. B. paid his respects, was made a Commander of 5,000, and received the title of Khān Dowrān. He was also made Governor of Kābul (in addition to Qandahār), and was ordered to prepare a financial settlement for the whole of Afghānistān. After having held this office till the end of 1027 he complained of the fatigues incident to a residence in Kābul, horse-travelling and the drizzly state of the atmosphere of the country, paid in the beginning of 1028 his respects at Court (Tuz., p. 257), and was appointed Governor of Thatha. He resigned, however, in the same year (Tuz., p. 275) and got the revenue of the Pargana of Khushāb assigned as pension (75,000 Rs.).

Before he went to Thatha, he called on Asaf to take leave and Asaf recommended to him the brothers of Mulla Muhammad of Thatha, who had been a friend of Asaf. Shahbeg had heard before that the Mulla's brothers, in consequence of Asaf's support, had never cared for the Governors of the province; hence he said to Asaf, "Certainly, I will take an interest in their welfare, if they are sensible (serhistb); but if not, I shall flay them." Asaf got much annoyed at this, opposed him in everything, and indirectly forced him to resign.

a confusion of its and at.

According to the Tuzuk (p. 53), Sh. R. then held the Pargana of Shor as jügir, regarding which wide Efficit's Index, first edition, p. 198.

The text has easy, which is mentioned as a peculiarity of Kābul. I do not know

whether I have correctly translated the term.

• Sayyid Ahmed in his edition of the Tuens (p. 206) makes him governor of Pates....

Sh. B. was a frank Turk. When Akbar appointed him Governor of Qandahār, he conferred upon him an salam and a naqqāra (p. 52); but on receiving the insignia, he said to Farīd (No. 99); "What is all this trash for? Would that His Majesty gave me an order regarding my manṣab, and a jāgīr, to enable me to get better troopers for his service.' On his return, in 1028, from Kābul, he paraded before Jahāngīr his contingent of 1,000 picked Mughul troopers, whose appearance and horses created much sensation.

He was much given to wine drinking. He drank, in fact, wine, cannabis, opium, and kūknār, mixed together, and called his beverage of four ingredients Chār Bughrā (p. 63, l. 2), which gave rise to his nickname Chār Bughrā Khur.

His sons. 1. Mīrzā Shāh Muḥammad Ghaznīn Khān, a well educated man. Jahāngīr, in 1028, made him a Commander of One Thousand, six-hundred horse.

- 2. Yaqūb Beg, son-in-law to Mīrzā Jaqfar Āṣaf Khān (III), (No. 98), a Commander of Seven Hundred, 350 horse. The Madair says, he was a fatalist (azalparast), and died obscure.
- 3. Asad Beg (Tuz., p. 275), a Commander of Three Hundred, 50 horse. The Ma²āṣir does not mention him.

The Tuzuk, p. 34, mentions a Qāsim Beg Khān, a relation of Sh. B. This is perhaps the same as No. 350.

Shahbeg Khan Arghan must not be confounded with No 148.

58. Khān 'Alam Chalma Beg,' son of Hamdam who was Mīrzā Kāmrān's foster brother.

Chalma Beg was Humāyūn's safarchī, or table attendant. Mīrzā Kāmrān had, in 960, been blinded, and at the Indus asked for permission to go to Makkah. Before he left, Humāyūn, accompanied by some of his courtiers, paid him a visit, when the unfortunate prince, after greeting his brother, quoted the verse—

"The fold of the poor man's turban touches the heaven, when a king like thee casts his shadow upon his head."

--- And inmediately afterwards he said the following verse extempore بر جانم از تو هرچه رسد جاي منت است گرناوک جفاست وگر خانجر ستم

In the Edit. Bibl. Indica of Bada, onl, Khan Galam is wrongly called مانها مام, instead of

. شمامه عالم

¹ For Chalma, the MSN of the Å*in have, at this place, Halim. In No. 100, the same name occurs. The Ma*asir and good MSS, of the Athername have Chalmah. Turkish dictionaries give chalmah (ada-) in the meaning of wild gost's dung and chalma (ada-) in that of dastar, a turban.

"Whatever I receive at thy hands is kindness, be it the arrow of oppression or the dagger of cruelty."

Humāyūn felt uncomfortable and tried to console him. He gave next day orders that any of Kāmrān's old friends might accompany him free to Makkah; but as no one came forward, he turned to Chalmah Beg, and said, "Will you go with him, or stay with me?" Chalmah Beg, though he knew that Humāyūn was much attached to him, replied that he thought he should accompany the Prince in the "gloomy days of need and the darkness of his solitude". The Emperor approved of his resolution, and made liberal provisions for Kāmrān and his companion.

After Kämrän's death, Chalma Beg returned to India, and was favourably received by Akbar, who made him a Commander of 3,000, bestowing upon him the title of <u>Khān Alam</u>. He served under the emperor against the Mīrzās in Gujrāt, and was present in the fight at Sarnāl (p. 353, No. 27).

In the 19th year, when Akbar moved against Dā*ūd in Patna, Khān Alam commanded a corps, and passing up the river in boats towards the mouth of the Ghandak, effected a landing, though continually exposed to the volleys of the enemies. Akbar praised him much for his daring. In the same year he was attached to Muncim's corps. In the battle of Takaroi (p. 406), he commanded the harāwal (van). He charged the Afghans, and allowing his corps to advance too far, he was soon hard pressed and gave way, when Muncim sent him an angry order to fall back. But before his corps could be brought again into order, Güjar Khan, Dasad's best general, attacked the Imperialists with his line of elephants, which he had rendered fierce locking by means of black Yak tails (quias) and skins of wild beasts attached to them. The horses of the Imperialists got frightened, nothing could make them stand. and their ranks were utterly broken. Kh. 'A's' horse got a sword cut, and reared, throwing him on the ground. He sprang up, and mounted it again, but was immediately thrown over by an elephant, and killed by the Afshans who rushed from all sides upon him (20th Zi Qasda, 982).

It is said that before the battle he had presentiment of his death, and begged of his friends, not to forget to tell the Emperor that he had willingly sacrificed his life.

Kh. SA. was a poet and wrote under the Takhallus of Hamdami (in

allusion to the name of his father).

A brother of his, Mugassar, is mentioned below (No. 301) among the Commanders of Three Hundred, where for اعظم, in my Text edition, p. 229, read

59. Qāsim Khān, Mīr Bahr Chamanārāī (?) Khurāsān.1

He is the son of Mīrzā Dost's sister, who was an old servant of the Tīmūrides. When Mīrzā Kāmrān was, in 954, besieged in Kābul, Humāyūn had occupied Mount Aqābīn, which lies opposite the Fort of Kābul. Whilst the siege was going on, Qāsim Khān and his younger brother, Khwajagi Muhammad Husayn (No. 241) threw themselves down from a turret between the Ahanin Darwaza and the Qasim Barlas bastion, and went over to Humayun, who received them with distinction.

Soon after Akbar's accession, Q. Kh. was made a Commander of Three Thousand. He superintended the building of the Fort of Agra, which he completed "after eight years at a cost of 7 krors of tankas, or 35 lacs of rupees. The Fort stands on the banks of the Jamna river, E. of the town of Agra, on the place of the old Fort, which had much decayed. The breadth of the walls is 30 yards, and the height from the foundation to the pinnacles 60 gaz. It is built of red sandstone, the stones being well joined together and fastened to each other by iron rings which pass through them. The foundation everywhere reaches water ". "

In the 23rd year, Q. was made Commander of Agra. In the beginning of Shasban 995 (32nd year), he was ordered to conquer Kashmir, "a country which from its inaccessibility had never tempted the former kings of Dihli." Though six or seven roads lead into Kashmir, the passes are all so narrow that a few old men might repel a large army. The then ruler of Kashmir was Yacqub Khan, son of Yusuf Khan Chak. He had fortified a pass; * but as his rule was disliked, a portion of his men went over to Q., whilst others raised a revolt in Srinagar. Thinking it more important to crush the revolt, Yaqub left his fortified position, and allowed Q. to enter the country. No longer able to oppose the Imperialists, he withdrew to the mountains, and trusted to an active guerilla warfare;

to looking after arrangements during trips, hunting expeditions, etc.

² The old Fort of Agra was called Badalpark (Bad. I, 429). It suffered much during the earthquake of 911 (3rd Safar), and was nearly destroyed during an explosion which happened in 962.

happened in 962.

The Fort Boselgach عثرانا, not عثرانا, which Elliot (Index, First Edit., p. 229) identifies with the Fort of Agra, cannot be the old Fort of Agra, because Badā, oni (I, 327) clearly says that it was a lofty structure at the foot of the Fort of Gwāli, ār, not ene of the Forta dependent on Gwāli, ār .

For Udantgir, on the same page in Elliot, read Ütger (عربار). It was a Fort in the Sarkār of Mandiā.ir, on the left side of the Chambal. Our maps have Ootgir or Deopurk.

Called in the MSS.

Called in the MSS.

(Bad. II. 353, المربار).

¹ I am doubtful regarding the true meaning of the odd title chaman-ārāyi Khurāsān, "Ruler of Khurāsān." The Ma^aāṣir, not knowing what to do with it, has left it out. Mir Baḥr means "admiral". If chamanārāi Kh. be a genitive, the words mean. "Admiral of the ruler of Khūrāsān," which from his biography does not appear to be correct. His brother (No. 241) is styled Mīr Bar, an officer whose duties seem to have been confined

but disappointed even in this hope, he submitted and became "a servant of Akbar". The Kashmiris, however, are famous for love of mischief and viciousness, and not a day passed without disturbances breaking out in some part of the country. Q., tired of the incessant petty annoyances, resigned his appointment (vide No. 35). In the 34th year he was made Governor of Kābul. At that time a young man from Andajān (Farghāna) gave out that he was a son of Shāhrukh.1 He met with some success in Badakhshan, but was defeated by the Tūran Shah. The pretender then made friendship with the Zābulī Hazāras, and when Q. on one occasion, had repaired to Court, he entered Akbar's territory giving out that he was going to pay his respects to the Emperor. But Hashim Beg, Q.'s son, who officiated during the absence of his father. sent a detachment after the pretender, who now threw himself on the Hazāras. But Hāshim Beg followed him, and took him a prisoner to Kābul. Q., on his return from India, let him off and even allowed him to enter his service. The pretender, in the meantime, rearranged his old men, and when he had five hundred together, he waited for an opportunity to fall on Q. At this juncture, Akbar ordered the pretender to repair to Court. Accompanied by his ruffians, he entered at noon Q.'s sleeping apartments, when only a few females were present, and murdered his benefactor (1002). Häshim Beg soon arrived, and fired upon the pretender and his men. In the melée, the murderer was killed.

For Qāsim's brother, vide No. 241, and for his son, No. 226.

60. Bāqī Khān (elder), brother of Adham Khan (No. 19).

His mother is the same Māhum Anaga, mentioned on p. 340. "From Badā, on! (II, 340) we learn that Bāqī Khān died in the 30th year as Governor of Gadha-Katanga." This is all the Ma*āşir says of him.

His full name is Muhammad Baqī Khan Koka. From Bada, oni II, 81, we see that Baqī Khan took part in the war against Iskandar Khan and Bahadur Khan (972-3), and fought under Musizzu'l-Mulk (No. 61)

In 1016 another false son of Mirzā Shāhrukh (p. 326) created disturbances and asked Jahāngir for assistance against the Türänis.

The fate of Mirzā Shāhrulh's second son, Mirzā Ḥusayn, is involved in obscurity, "He ran away from Burhānpūr, went to see and to Persia, from where he went to Badalinshān. People say that he is still alive (1016); but uo one knows whether this new pretender is Shāhrulh's son or not. Shāhrulh left Badalhahān about twenty-five years ago, and since then the Badalhahis have set up several false Mirzās, in order to shake off the yoke of the Ushaka. This pretender collected a large number of Cymāgs (p. 371, note 2) and Badalhahi Mountaineers, who go by the name of Cherjas [arg., whence Cherjietin], and took from the Ushaka a part of the country. But the cusmics pressed upon him, caught him, and out off his head, which was carried on a spear all ever Badalhahān. Several false Mirais have since been killed; but I really think their race will continue as long as a trace of Badalhahās remain on earth." Tuzuk i-Jahlagīri, p. 57.

in the battle of Khayrabad, in which Budagh Khan (No. 52) was captured. The battle was lost, chiefly because Baqi Khan, Mahdi Qasim Khan (No. 36), and Husayn Khān Tukriya (No. 53) had personal grievances -their Uzbak hatred-against Musizzu 'l-Mulk and Raja Todar Mal.

61. Mir Mucizzu l'-Mulk-i Müsawi of Mashhad.

He belongs to the Müsawi Sayyids of Mashhad the Holy, who trace their descent to Ali Mūsā Razā, the 8th Imām of the Shīcahs. A branch of these Sayvids by a different mother is called Razawi.

In the 10th year, Akbar moved to Jaunpur to punish Khan Zaman (No. 13), who had dispatched his brother Bahadur and Iskandar Khan Uzbak (No. 48) to the district of Sarwar. 1 Against them Akbar sent a strong detachment (vide No. 60) under Musizzu 'l-Mulk. Bahadur, on the approach of the Imperialists, had recourse to negotiations, and asked for pardon, stating that he was willing to give up all elephants. M. M., however, desired war, and though he granted Bahadur an interview, he told him that his crimes could only be cleaned with blood. But he reported the matter to Akbar, who sent Lashkar Khān (No. 90) and Rāja Todar Mal to him, to tell him that he might make peace with Bahadur, if he was satisfied with his good intentions. But here also the rancour of the Khurāsānīs towards the Uzbaks decided matters, and Todar Mal only confirmed M. M. in his resolution. Although a few days later the news arrived that Akbar had pardoned Khan Zaman, because he sent his mother and his uncle Ibrāhīm Khān (No. 64) to Court as guarantees of his loyalty, M. M. attacked Bahadur near Khayrabad. Muhammad Yar, son of Iskandar Khān's brother, who commanded the van of the rebels, fell in the first attack, and Iskandar who stood behind him, was carried along and fled from the field. The Imperialists, thinking that the battle was decided, commenced to plunder, when suddenly Bahadur, who had been lying in wait, fell upon M. M.'s left wing and put it to flight. Not only was Budāgh Khān (No. 52) taken prisoner but many soldiers went over to Bahadur. Flushed with victory, he attacked the

A Most MSS. have المراد The Edit. Bibl. Indica of Badā,onī, p. 78, has مرواد but again مرواد on p. 83. There is no doubt that the district got its name from the Sarso River (أباسرو أراسرو أباسرو أراسرو أر

centre, where the grandees either fled or would not fight from malice (vide No. 60). Todar Mal's firmness was of no avail, and the day was lost.

After the conquest of Bihār, M. M. got the Pargana of Āra (Arrah) as jāgw. In the 24th year, the nobles of Bihār under Massum-i Kābulī, tuyūldār of Patna, rebelled. They won over M. M., and his younger brother Mīr salī Akbar (No. 62); but both soon left the rebels, and M. M. went to Jaunpūr recruiting, evidently meditating revolt independently of the others. In the 25th year, Akbar ordered Asad Khān Turkmān, jāgūrdār of Mānikpūr, to hasten to Jaunpūr and convey M. M. with all his suspicious adherents to Court. Asad Khān succeeded in catching M. M., and sent him by boat to the Emperor. Near Itāwah, however, the boat "foundered", and M. M. lost his life.

62. Mir 'Ali Akbar (younger), brother of the preceding.

When his brother was sent to Bihār, M. SA. A. was ordered to accompany him. He established himself at Zamānıya, which "lies 6 kos from Ghāzīpūr (vide p. 336), and rebelled like his brother in Jaunpūr. After the death of his brother, Akbar ordered M. SAzīz (No. 21), who had been appointed to Bihār, to send M. SA. A. fettered to Court. Notwithstanding his protests that he was innocent, he was taken to the Emperor, who imprisoned him for life.

63. Sharif Khān, brother of Atga Kbān (No. 15).

He was born at Ghaznīn. After Bayrām's fall, he held a tuyūl in the Panjāb, and generally served with his elder brother Mīr Muḥammad Khān (No. 16).

On the transfer of the Atga Khayl from the Panjah, Sh was appointed to the Sarkar of Qannawj. In the 21st year, when Akbar was at Mohini, he sent Sh., together with Qāzī Khān-i Badakhahi (No. 144), Mujāhid Khān, Subhān Qulī Turk, against the Rānā. He afterwards distinguiahed

¹ Called in the Matair was (though it cannot be Nuddes in Bengal); in my copy of the Sement, ages; but Nadinah in Sambhal appears to be meant.

himself in the conquest of Köbhalmir. In the 25th year, he was made atōliq to Prince Murād, and was in the same year sent to Mālwah as Governor, Shujā at Khān (No. 51) having been killed. His son Bāz Bahādur (No. 188) was ordered to join his father from Gujrāt. In the 28th year, he served against Muzaffar, and distinguished himself in the siege of Bahröch, which was held for Muzaffar by Chirkis-i Rūmī and Naṣīrā, brother of Muzaffar's wife. The former having been killed, Naṣīrā escaped in the 7th month of the siege, through the trench held by Sharīf, and the Fort was taken. In the 30th year, he was sent with Shihābu 'd-Dīn (No. 26) to the Dakhin, to assist Mīrzā 'Azīz (No. 21).

In the 35th year he went from Målwah to Court, and was made in the 39th year Governor of <u>Ghaznīn</u>, an appointment which he had long desired. There he remained till the 47th year, when Shåh Beg (No. 57) was sent there.

"Nothing else is known of him." Ma'āgir.

His son, Bāz Bahādur (No. 188), held a jāgīr in Gujrāt, and was transferred to Mālwah as related above. He served in the siege of Āsīr, and in the Aḥmadnagar war. In the 46th year, he was caught by the Talingahs, but was released, when Abū 'l-Fazl made peace, and the prisoners were exchanged.

IX.—Commanders of Two Thousand and Five Hundred.

64. Ibrāhīm Khān-i Shaybānī (uncle of Khān Zamān, No. 13).

He served under Humāyūn. After the conquest of Hindūstān, Humāyūn sent him with Shāh Abū 'l-Ma^cālī to Lāhor, to oppose Sikandar Sūr, should he leave the Sawāliks. After the fall of Mānkot, he received the Pargana of Sarharpūr, near Jaunpūr, as jāgūr, and remained with Khān Zamān. During Khān Zamān's first rebellion, Ibrāhīm Khān and Khān Zamān's mother repaired at Mun^cim Khān's request to Court as hostages of his loyalty. Ibrāhīm appearing, as was customary, with a shroud and a sword round his neck, which were only taken off when the Emperor's pardon had been obtained.

In the 12th year, however, <u>Kh</u>ān Zamān again rebelled, and Ibrāhīm went with Iakandar (No. 48) to Audh. When the latter had gone to Bengal, Ibrāhīm, at Mun^cim's request, was pardoned, and remained with the <u>Khān Khānān</u>.

¹ It is difficult to reconcile this statement with Badā,oni II, 23, where Sarharpūr, which "lies 18 hos from Jaunpūr", is mentioned as the jāgir of Abda 'r-Rahmān, Sikandar Sūr's son, who got it after the surrender of Mānko;.

In the Tabaqat, Ibr. is called a Commander of Four Thousand.

His son, Isma^cil <u>Kh</u>ān, held from <u>Kh</u>ān Zamān the town of Sandelah in Audh. In the 3rd year, Akbar gave this town to Sultān Husayn <u>Khān</u> Jalā,ir. Ismā^cil opposed him with troops which he had got from <u>Khān</u> Zamān; but he was defeated and killed.

65. Khwaja Jalalu 'd-Din Mahmud Bujüq, of Khurāsān.

The MSS. of the A'in have Muhammad, instead of Mahmud, which other histories have, and have besides a word after Muhammad which reads like in and increase. This should be no doubt bujuq, the scriptio defective of the Turkish pujuq, "having the nose cut," as

given in the copy of the Masaeir.

Jalālu 'd-Din was in the service of M. 'Askarī. He had sent him from Qandahār to Garmsīr, to collect taxes, when Humāyūn passed through the district on his way to Persia. The Emperor called him, and Jalāl presented him with whatever he had with him of cash and property, for which service Humāyūn conferred on him the title of Mīr Sāmān, which in the circumstances was an empty distinction. On Humāyūn's return from Persia, Jalāl joined the Emperor, and was ordered, in 959, to accompany the young Akbar to Ghaznīn, the tuyūl of the Prince. His devotion to his master rendered him so confident of the Emperor's protection that he treated the grandees rudely, and incessantly annoyed them by satirical remarks. In fact, he had not a single friend.

Akbar on his accession made him a Commander of Two Thousand Five Hundred, and appointed him to Chaznin. His enemies used the opportunity and stirred up Mun'im Khān, who owed Jalāl an old grudge. Jalāl soon found his post in Chaznin so disagreeable that he determined to look for employment elsewhere. He had scarcely left Chaznin, when Mun'im called him to account. Though he had promised to spare his life, Mun'im imprisoned him, and had a short time after his eyes pierced. Jalāl's sight, however, had not been entirely destroyed, and he meditated a flight to India. Before he reached the frontier, Mun'im's men caught him and his son, Jalāl' 'd-Dīn Mas'ūd.' Both were imprisoned and shortly afterwards murdered by Mun'im.

This double murder is the foulest blot on Muncim's character, and takes us the more by surprise, as on all other occasions he showed himself generous and forbearing towards his enemies.

If it is must not be confounded with the Jakile 'd-Din Marcild mentioned in Turns, p. 67, who " are option like choose out of the hands of his mother".

66. Haydar Muhammad Khan, Akhta Begi.

He was an old servant of Humāyūn, and accompanied him to Persia. He gave the Emperor his horse, when, in the defeat near Balkh, Humāyūn's horse had been shot. On the march against Kāmrān, who had left Kābul for Afghānistān, the imperialists came to the River Surkhāb, Haydar, with several other faithful Amīrs, leading the van. They reached the river Siyāh-āb, which flows near the Surkhāb, before the army could come up. Kāmrān suddenly attacked them by night; but Haydar bravely held his ground. He accompanied the Emperor to Qandahār and to India, and was appointed to Bayānah (Bad. I, 463), which was held by Ghāsī Khān Sūr, father of Ibrāhīm Khān. After the siege had lasted some time, Haydar allowed Ghāsī to capitulate; but soon after, he killed Ghāsī. Humāyūn was annoyed at this breach of faith, and said he would not let Haydar do so again.

After Akbar's accession, H. was with Tardī Beg (No. 12) in Dihlī, and fought under Khān Zamān (No. 13) against Hemū. After the victory, he went for some reason to Kābul. At Mun'im's request he assisted Chanī Khān (vide p. 333) in Kābul. But they could not agree, and H. was called to India. He accompanied Mun'im in the 8th year, on his expedition to Kābul and continued to serve under him in India.

In the 17th year, H. served with <u>Kh</u>ān-i Kalān (No. 16) in Gujrāt. In the 19th year, he was, together with his brother Mirzā Quli, attached to the Bengal Army, under Mun^cim. Both died of fever, in 983, at Gaur (vide p. 407).

A son of H. is mentioned below (No. 326).

Mērzā Qulē, or Mērzā Qulē Khān, Ḥaydar's brother, distinguished himself under Ḥumāyūn during the expedition to Badakhshān. When Kāmrān, under the mask of friendship, suddenly attacked Humāyūn, M. Q. was wounded and thrown off his horse. His son, Dost Muḥammad, saved him in time.

According to the *Tabaqāt*, M. Q. belonged to the principal grandees (umarā-i kibār), a phrase which is never applied to grandees below the rank of Commanders of One Thousand. His name occurs also often in the *Akbarnāma*. It is, therefore, difficult to say why his name and that of his son have been left out by Abū 'l-Fazl in this list.

67. Istimād Khān, of Gujrāt.

He must not be confounded with No. 119.

Istimed Khan was originally a Hindu servant of Sultan Mahmud, king of Gujrat. He was "trusted" (istimed) by his master, who had allowed him to enter the harem, and had put him in charge of the women.

It is said that, from gratitude, he used to eat camphor, and thus rendered himself impotent. He rose in the king's favour, and was at last made an Amir. In 961, after a reign of 18 years, the king was foully murdered by a slave of the name of Burhan, who besides killed twelve nobles. Istimad next morning collected a few faithful men, and killed Burhan. Sultan Mahmud having died without issue, Ist. raised Raziyu 'l-Mulk, under the title of Ahmad Shah, to the throne. Razī was a son of Sultan Ahmad, the founder of Ahmadabad; but as he was very young, the affairs of the state were entirely in Ist.'s hands. Five years later, the young king left Ahmadabad, and fled to Sayyid Mubarak of Bukhara 1 a principal courtier; but Ist. followed him up, defeated him, and drove him away. Sultan Ahmad then thought it better to return to Ist., who now again reigned as before. On several occasions did the king try to get rid of his powerful minister; and Ist. at last felt so insecure that he resolved to kill the king, which he soon afterwards did. Ist. now raised a child of the name of Nathu (نتهه) 2 to the throne, "who did not belong to the line of kings"; but on introducing him to the grandees, Ist. swore upon the Quran that Nathū was a son of Sultan Mahmūd; his mother when pregnant had been handed over to him by Sultan Mahmud, to make her miscarry; but the child had been five months old, and he had not carried out the order. The Amīrs had to believe the story, and Nathū was raised to the throne under the title of Sultan Muzasiar.

This is the origin of Sultan Muzaffar, who subsequently caused Akbar's generals so much trouble (vide pp. 344, 354–355).

Ist was thus again at the head of the government; but the Amīrs parcelled out the country among themselves, so that each was almost independent. The consequence was that incessant feuds broke out among them. Ist himself was involved in a war with Chingiz Khān, son of Istimādu 'l-Mulk, a Turkish slave. Uningiz maintained that Sultān Muzaffar, if genuine, should be the head of the state; and as he was strengthened by the rebellious Mīrzās, to whom he had afforded protection against Akbar, Ist saw no chance of opposing him, left the Sultān, and went to Dūngarpūr. Two nobles, Alif Khān and Jhujhār Khān took Sultān Muzaffar to him, went to Chingiz in Ahmadābād and killed him (Chingiz) soon after. The Mīrzās, seeing how distracted the country was, took possession of Bahrūch and Sūrat. The general confusion only increased, when Sultān Muzaffar fled one day to Sher Khān Fūlādī and

<sup>Regarding this distinguished Gujrāti noble, vide the biography of his grandson,
Hāmid (No. 78).
Some MSS, read Nakië.</sup>

his party, and I^ct. retaliated by informing Sher <u>Kh</u>ān that Nathū was no prince at all. But Sher <u>Kh</u>ān's party attributed this to I^ct.'s malice, and besieged him in Aḥmadābād. I^ct. then fled to the Mīrzās and soon after to Akbar, whose attention he drew to the wretched state of Guirāt.

When Akbar, in the 17th year, marched to Patan, Sher <u>Kh</u>ān's party had broken up. The Mīrzās still held Bahrōch; and Sultān Muzaffar, who had left Sher Khān, fell into the hands of Akbar's officers (vide No. 361). Istimād and other Gujrātī nobles had in the meantime proclaimed Akbar's accession from the pulpits of the mosques and struck coins in his name. They now waited on the Emperor. Baroda, Champānīr, and Sūrat were given to Ist. as tuyūl; the other Amīrs were confirmed, and all charged themselves with the duty of driving away the Mīrzās. But they delayed and did nothing; some of them, as Istimādu'l-Mulk, even fled, and others who were attached to Akbar, took Ist. and several grandees to the Emperor, apparently charging them with treason. Ist. fell into disgrace, and was handed over to Shāhbāz <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 80) as prisoner.

In the 20th year, I^ct. was released, and charged with the superintendence of the Imperial jewels and gold vessels. In the 22nd year, he was permitted to join the party who under Mīr Abū Turāb (vide p. 207)

went to Makkah. On his return he received Patan as jāgūr.

In the 28th year, on the removal of Shihābu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad (No. 26), he was put in charge of Gūjrāt, and went there accompanied by several distinguished nobles, though Akbar had been warned; for people remembered Ist.'s former inability to allay the factions in Gujrāt. No sooner had Shihāb handed over duties than his servants rebelled. Ist. did nothing, alleging that Shihāb was responsible for his men; but as Sultān Muzaffar had been successful in Kāthīwār, Ist. left Aḥmadābāb, and went to Shihāb, who on his way to Court had reached Karī, 20 kos from Aḥmadābād. Muzaffar used the opportunity and took Aḥmadābād, Shihāb's men joining his standard.

Shihāb and I^ct. then shut themselves up in Patan, and had agreed to withdraw from Gujrāt, when they received some auxiliaries, chiefly a party of Gujrātīs who had left Mugaffar, to try their luck with the Imperialists. I^ct. paid them well, and sent them under the command of his son Sher Khān, against Sher Khān Fūlādī, who was repulsed. In the meantime, M. ^cAbd^u 'r-Raḥīm (No. 29) arrived. Leaving I^ct. at

Patan, he marched with Shihab against Muzaffar.

Istimad died at Patan in 995. The Tabaqat puts him among the Commanders of Four Thousand.

In Abū 'l-Fazl's opinion, Gujrātīs are made up of cowardice, deceit, several good qualities, and meanness; and I timād was the very type of a Gujrātī.

68. Pāyanda Khān, Mughul, son of Ḥājī Muḥammad Khān Koki's brother.

Hājī Muḥammad and Shāh Muḥammad, his brother, had been killed by Humāyūn for treason on his return from Persia. Hājī Muḥammad was a man of great daring, and his value, when he was faithful, was often acknowledged by the Emperor.

Pāyanda, in the 5th year of Akbar's reign came with Mun'im from Kābul, and was ordered to accompany Adham Khān (No. 19) to Mālwa. In the 19th year, he accompanied Mun'im to Bengal. In the 22nd year, he served under Bhagwān Dās against Rānā Partāb. In the Gujrāt war, he commanded M. 'Abdu' 'r-Raḥīm's (No. 29) harāwal.

In the 32nd year, he received Ghorāghāt as jāgīr, whither he went.

This is all the Matair says regarding Payands.

His full name was Muhammad Pāyands. He had a son Walī Beg who is mentioned below (No. 359).

From the *Tuzuk*, p. 144, we see that Pāyanda died in 1024 A.H., Jahāngīr, in 1017, had pensioned him off, as he was too old. *Tuz.*, p. 68.

69. Jagannäth, son of Raja Bihari Mai (No. 23).

He was a hostage in the hands of Sharafu 'd-Din Husayn (No. 17; vide p. 339). After some time he regained his freedom and was well received by Akbar. He generally served with Man Singh. In the 21st year, when Rana Partab of Maiwar opposed the Imperialists, Jagannat'h during an engagement when other officers had given way, held his ground, and killed with his own hands the renowned champion Ram Das, son of Jay Mal. In the 23rd year, he received a jagir in the Panjab, and was, in the 25th year, attached to the van of the army which was to prevent Mirse Muhammad Hakim from invading the Panjah. In the 29th year, he again served against the Rana. Later he accompanied Mirza Yusuf Khān (No. 35) to Kashmir. In the 34th year, he served under Prince Murad in Kabul, and accompanied him, in the 36th year, to Malwa, of which the Prince had been appointed Governor. In the 43rd year, after several years' service in the Dakhin, he left Murad without orders, and was for some time excluded from Court. On Akbar's return from the Dakhin, J. met the emperor at Rantanbhür, his jägir, and was then again seat to the Dakhin.

In the 1st year of Juhangir, he served under Prince Parwiz against

the Rānā, and was in charge of the whole army when the emperor, about the time Khusraw had been captured, called Parwīz to Court (*Tuzuk*, p. 33). In the same year, J. suppressed disturbances which Dalpat (p. 386) had raised at Nāgor.

In the 4th year, he was made a Commander of Five Thousand, with

3,000 horse.

Rām Chand, 1 his son. He was under Jahāngīr a Commander of Two Thousand, 1,500 horse.

Rāja Manrūp, a son of Rām Chand. He accompanied Prince Shāhjahān on his rebellion, and got on his accession a Command of Three Thousand, with 2,000 horse. He died in the 4th year of Shāhjahān. He had a son Gopāl Singh.

70. Makhşüs Khan (younger), brother of Sasid Khan (No. 25).

He served under his brother in Multān. In the 23rd year, he served under Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) against Gajpatī, and three years later he accompanied Prince Murād to Kābul, where he also served under Akbar, who had gone thither and pardoned his brother, M. Muḥammad Ḥakīm.

Subsequently, Makhṣūṣ served under Prince Salīm. In the 49th

year, he was a Commander of Three Thousand.

He was alive in the beginning of Jahangir's reign. The author of the $Ma^* \bar{a}gir$ has not recorded the date of his death.

He had a son Maqşūd who did not get on well with his father, for which reason Jahāngīr would not give him a manşab.

71. The author of the A*in, Abū 'l-Fazl, son of Shaykh Mubarak of Nagor.

Abū 'l-Fazl's biography will be found elsewhere.

X. Commanders of Two Thousand.

72. Isma'il Khān Dulday.

Dulday, or Dulday, is the name of a subdivision of the Barlas clan (vide p. 364, note).

The Ma*āṣir calls him Ismā'sīl Qulī Beg Dūlday. A similar difference was observed in the name of Ḥusayn Qulī Khān (No. 24), and we may conclude that Beg, at least in India, was considered a lower title than Khān, just as Beglar Begī was considered inferior to Khān Khānān.

Ismāçīl Qulī was a grandee of Bābar and Humāyūn, distinguished in the field and in council. When Humāyūn besieged Qandahār, and the grandees one after the other left M. SAskarī, Ism. also joined the Emperor, and was appointed, after the conquest of Qandahār, Governor of Dāwar.

¹ The Tucuk, p. 74, calls him Karm Chand. Vide also Padishahnama, I, b. 318.

When Kābul was besieged, Ism. and Khisr Khwāja (vide p. 394, note) attacked Sher SAlī, an officer of Mīrzā Kāmrān, who at the prince's order had followed up and plundered the Persian caravan (qāfila-yievilāyst) on its way to Chārīkān; but as the roads were occupied by the Imperialists, Sher SAlī could not reach Kābul, and marched towards Chaznīn, when he was overtaken and defeated. Ism. and Khisr spoiled the plunderer, and went again to Humāyūn. A short time after, Ism. and several other grandees left the emperor, because they resented the elevation of Qarācha Khān, and followed Mīrzā Kāmrān to Badakhshān. Humāyūn followed them up and caught them together with Kāmrān, Ism. among them. Ism. was, however, pardoned at Munsim's request.

Ism. accompanied the emperor on his march to India, and was sent, after the capture of Dihli together with Shah Abū 'l-Macali to Lahor.

"Nothing else is known of him." Matagir.

73. Mir Babus (?), the İghur (Uighur?).

The Ighurs are a well known Chaghtā,ī tribe. The correct name of this grandee is a matter of doubt, as every MS. has a different lectio; vide my Text edition, p. 224, note 6. The Macagir has left out the name of this grandee; nor do I find it in the List of the Tabaqāt.

74. Ashraf Khan Mir Munshi, Muhammad Asghar. of Sabswar (1).

He was a Husaynī Sayyid of Mashhad (Maçāgir, Mireātu 'l-Çālam). The author of the Tabaqāt says, he belonged to the Arabshāhī Sayyids; "but people rarely make such fine distinctions." Abū 'l-Faşl says, he was of Sabzwār; but in the opinion of the Maçāgir, this is an error of the copyists.

Ashraf Khān was a clever writer, exact in his style, and a renowned calligrapher, perhaps the first of his age in writing the Taskq and Nastaskq character (pp. 107-8). He also understood jafar, or witchcraft.

Ashraf was in Humāyūn's service, and had received from him the post and title of Mīr Munshī. After the conquest of Hindūstān, he was made Mīr Arz and Mīr Mal. At Akbar's accession, he was in Dihlī, and took part in the battle with Hemū (p. 394, No. 48). He was imprisoned by Bayrām, but escaped and went to Makkah. He returned in 968, when Akbar was at Māchhīwāra on his way to the Siwālika where Bayrām

¹ So the Matagir. Our maps have Chariter (let, 35°, long. 69), which lies north of Kābul, and has always been the centre of a large caravan trade. Istalif (Lab.), or Lifa.) lies half-way between Kābul and Charikar. [Dowson, v., 236, has Chārihārān.—B.]
[* Jafr divination, etc.—P.]

was. He was well received and got a manyab. In the 6th year, when the emperor returned from Malwa, he bestowed upon him the title of Ashraf Khan.

In the 19th year, he went with Mun^cim to Bengal, was present in the battle of Takarol, and died in the twentieth year (983) 1 at Gaur (vide p. 407).

Ashraf was a poet of no mean pretensions.

His son, Mir Abū 'l-Muzaffar (No. 240) held a Command of 500. In the 38th year, he was Governor of Awadh.

Ashraf's grandsons, Ḥusaynī and Burhānī held inferior commands under Shāhjahān.

75. Sayyid Mahmud of Barha (Kundliwal).

"Sayyid Mahmüd was the first of the Bārha Sayyids that held office under the Tīmūrides." He was with Sikandar Sūr (Badā, onī II, 18) in Mānkot, but seeing that the cause of the Afghāns was hopeless, he left Sikandar and went over to Akbar. He was a friend of Bayrām, and served in the first year under 'Alī Qulī Khān Zamān (No. 13) against Hemū. In the second year, he took part in the expedition against Hājī Khān in Ajmīr (vide Nos. 40, 45). In the 3rd year, he conquered with Shāh Qulī Maḥram (No. 45) Fort Jaitāran, and served in the same year under Adham Koka against the Bhadauriyahs of Hatkānth (vide p. 341, 1. 8).

After Bayrām's fall, Sayyid Maḥmūd got a jāgīr near Dihlī. In the 7th year, he brought Mun'im Khān to Court (vide p. 333). In the 17th year, he served under the Khān-i Kalān (No. 16) and the emperor in Gujrāt, was present in the battle of Sarnāl, and followed up Mīrzā Ibrāhīm Husayn. On every occasion he fought with much bravery. Towards the end of the 18th year, he was sent with other Sayyids of Bārha, and Sayyid Muḥammad of Amroha (No. 140) against Rāja Madhukar, who had invaded the territory between Sironj and Gwāliyār. S. Maḥmud drove him away, and died soon after, în the very end of 981.

Sayyid Mahmud was a man of rustic habits, and great personal courage and generosity. Akbar's court admired his valour and chuckled at his boorishness and unadorned language; but he stood in high favour with the emperor. Once on his return from the war with Madhukar he gave in the State hall a verbal account of his expedition, in which his

¹ The Miriat mys in the tenth year (973), as stated on p. 101, note 6. This is clearly a mistake of the author of the Miriat.

The best MSS, have where. The name is doubtful. Akbar passed it on one of his marches from Ajmir over Pali to Jalor.

"I" occurred oftener than was deemed proper by the assembled Amīrs. "You have gained the victory," interrupted Āṣaf Khān, in order to give him a gentle hint, "because His Majesty's good fortune (iqbāl-i pādishāhī) accompanied you." Mistaking the word "Iqbāl" for the name of a courtier, "Why do you tell an untruth?" replied Maḥmūd, "Iqbāl-i Pādishāhī did not accompany me: I was there, and my brothers; we licked them with our sabres." The emperor smiled, and bestowed upon him praise and more substantial favours.

But more malicious were the remarks of the Amīrs regarding his claim to be a Sayyid of pure blood. Jahāngīr (Tuzuk, p. 366) also says that people doubt the claim of the Bārha family to be Sayyids. Once Maḥmūd was asked how many generations backwards the Sayyids of Bārha traced their descent. Accidentally, a fire was burning on the ground near the spot where Maḥmūd stood. Jumping into it, he exclaimed, "If I am a Sayyid, the fire will not hurt me; if I am no Sayyid, I shall get burnt." He stood for nearly an hour in the fire, and only left it at the earnest request of the bystanders. "His velvet-slippers showed, indeed, no trace of being singed."

For Sayyid Mahmud's brother and sons, vide Nos. 91, 105, and 143.

Note on the Sayyids of Barha (Sadat-i Barha).

In MSS. we find the spelling بارهه bārha, and بارهه barāh. The lexicographist Bahār-i 'Ajam (Tek Chand) in his grammatical treatise, entitled Javāhiru 'l-Ḥurūf, says that the names of Indian towns ending in s form adjectives in بري, as عنه, Tatta or تهجه المعالمة (عنه المعالمة but of عليه المعالمة), no adjective is formed, and you say sādat-i bārha instead of sādāt-i bārhavī.

The name Bārha has been differently explained. Whether the derivation from the Hindī numeral bārah, 12, be correct or not, there is no doubt that the etymology was believed to be correct in the times of Akbar and Jahāngīr; for both the Tabaqāt and the Tuzuk derive the name from 12 villages in the Du,āb (Muzafiarnagar District), which the Sayyids held.

Like the Sayyids of Bilgram, the Barha family trace their origin to one Sayyid Abū'l-Farah of Wāsiṭ¹; but their nasabnāma, or genealogical tree, was sneered at, and even Jahangīr, in the above-quoted passage from the Tusuk, says that the personal courage of the Sayyids of Barha—but

^{1 &}quot;From him are descended the most renowned Mussiman families in Northern India, the Barha and Belgram Sayyids, and in Khyrabid, Puttebpore Huswa, and many other places, branches of the same stem are found." C. A. Elliot, The Chronicles of Onco, Allahabad, 1802, p. 98.

nothing else—was the best proof that they were Sayyids. But they clung so firmly to this distinction, that some of them even placed the title of Sayyid before the titles which they received from the Muchul emperors, as Sayyid Khān Jahān (Sayyid Abū 'l-Muzaffar) and several others.

But if their claim to be Sayyids was not firmly established, their bravery and valour had become a by-word. Their place in battle was the van (harāwal); they claimed to be the leaders of the onset, and every emperor from the times of Akbar gladly availed himself of the prestige of their name. They delighted in looking upon themselves as Hindūstānis (vide p. 336). Their military fame completely threw to the background the renown of the Sayyids of Amrohah, of Mānikpūr, the Khānzādas of Mewāt, and even families of royal blood as the Şafawis.

The Sayyids of Bārha are divided into four branches, whose names are 1. Tihanpūrī; 2. Chatbanūrī or Chātraurī; 3. Kūndlīwāl; 4. Jagnerī. The chief town of the first branch was Jānsaṭh; of the second, Sambalhaṛa; of the third, Majhaṛa; of the fourth Bidaulī on the Jamns. Of these four lines Muhammadan Historians, perhaps accidentally, only mention two, viz., the Kūndlīwāl (كوندلي والـ) to which Sayyid Maḥmūd (No. 75) belonged; and the Tihanpūrī (تهنبوري), of which Sayvid Khān Jahān was a member.

The Histories of India do not appear to make mention of the Sayyids of Bārha before the times of Akbar; but they must have held posts of some importance under the Sūrs, because the arrival of Sayyid Maḥmūd in Akbar's camp (p. 424) is recorded by all historians as an event of importance. He and other Sayyids, were moreover, at once appointed to high mansabs. The family boasts also traditionally of services rendered to Humāyūn; but this is at variance with Abū 'l-Fazl's statement that Sayyid Maḥmūd was the first that served under a Timuride.

The political importance of the Sayyids declined from the reign of Muḥammad, Shāh (1131 to 1161) who deposed the brothers Sayyid SAbdu 'llah Khān and Sayyid Husayn SAli Khān, in whom the family reached the greatest height of their power. What a difference between the rustic and loyal Sayyid Maḥmūd and Akbar, and the above two

¹ Vide Sir H. Elliot's Glossary (Beames' Edition) I, p. 11 and p. 297. On p. 12 of the Glossary read Sayyid Mahmad twice for Sayyid Muhammad; Sayyid SAli Asaf Dille Khan for Debi Khan. Instead of Chatbanari (or Châtrauri), which Mr. B. J. Leeds, C.S., gives in his valuable Report on the Castes and Races of the Muzaffarnagar District (Glossary, p. 297 fl.), Sir R. Elliot has Chantraudi.

brothers, who made four Timurides emperors, dethroned and killed two and blinded and imprisoned three.1

The Sayvids of Barha are even nowadays numerous and "form the characteristic element in the population of the Muzaffarnagar district " (Leeds' Report).

Abu 'l-Fazl mentions nine Sayyids in this List of grandees, viz. :-

- 1. Sayyid Mahmud (No. 75).
- 6. Sayyid Jamālu 'd-Dīn (No.
- 2. Sayyid Ahmad, his brother (No. 91).
- 217), son of 2.
- 3. Sayyid Qasim (No. 105). sons of 1. 4. Savvid Häshim (No. 143).
 - 7. Sayyid Chajhū (No. 221). 8. Sayvid Bāyazid (No. 295).

5. Sayyid Rājū (No. 165).

9. Sayvid Lad (No. 409). The Akbarnama mentions several other Sayvids without indicating

to what family they belong. Thus S. Jamalu 'd-Din, a grandson of S. Mahmud (vide under 91); S. Salim; S. Fath Khan (Bad. II, 180); etc.

The following trees are compiled from the Tuzuk, Pādishāhnāma, and Masanir.

(a) Sayyid Mahmud of Barha, Kundliwal. - Sayyid Ahmad, his brother. (No. 91). S. Qāsim. 2. S. Hāshim. 3. S. C Ali Asghar, 4. Sayyid Jahangir (No. 105.) (No. 143.) (Pad. 1, 439.) Sayf Khan. d. 1025. 4. Jamālu 'd-Din S. Nüru'l S. Jacfar Shujacat Khan, (No. 217.) 1. S. Adam, Tus. S. Bayazid. 80, 102 (twice). (No. 295 ?) d. 1052. ÇÎYÂR. I. S. Sulayman, Pad. 11, 735. Pad. I. b. 320. 8. Sultān Salābat 1. S. Mugaffar, Himmat Khan, Pad II.735 Khān, alias Ikhti-2. S. Queb. Pod. II, 746. sās Khān. 3. S. Najābat. Pād. 11, 749. (h) Sayyid Dilîr Khan (CAbda 'l-Wahhab), d. 1042. i. S. Hasen, Pad. I, b. 323. 2. S. Khalila 'linh, Pad. I. 5, 323. (c) Sayyid Hizabr Khān, d. 1047.----- Sayyid CAlam, his brother. Perished with Prince Shujas in Rakhang 8. Zabardast. (Arracan).

¹ They made Farrukh Siyar, Rafiça'd-Darajāt, Rafiça'd-Dawla and Muhammad Shāh emperors; they dethroned and killed Jahandar Shah and Farruth Siyar, whom they had moreover blinded; and they blinded and imprisoned Princes Açaza" 'd-Din, ÇAli Tabar, aad Humäyün Ba<u>kh</u>t.

The Pādishāhnāma (I, b., 312, 319; II, p. 733, 734, 735, 741, 752) mentions also S. Mākhan, d. 9th year of Shāhjahān; S. Sīkhan; S. ʿAbdu 'llāh; S. Muḥammad, son of S. Afgal; S. Khādim; S. Sālār; S. Shihāb.

(c) Sayyid Qāsim, Shahāmat Khān [Chātraurī]— (was alive in the 24th year of Awrangzīb).

1. S. Nusrat Yar Khan (under Muhammad Shah).

a brother

(f) Sayyid Husayn Khan, d. 1120.

1. S. Abu Sacid Khan.

2. Ghayrat Khan.

3. Hasan Khan.

(g) Sayyid SAbda 'llah Khān [Tihanpūri]. alias Sayyid Miyān (under Shāh SĀlam I.)

1. S. Hasan SAli Khān; title Qutbu 2. Amīrs 'l-Mamālik S. Husayn SAli Khān.
'l-Mulk S. SAbdu 'llah Khān. (killed by Muhammad Shāh).

3. Şayf^u 'd-Din Husayo ÇAli Khân. 4. S. Najm^u 'd-Din ÇAli <u>Kh</u>ân

For the following notes, I am indebted to R. J. Leeds, Esq., C.S., Mirzapore, who kindly sent me two Urdū MSS. containing a short family history of the Sādāt-i Bārha, composed in 1864 and 1869 by one of the Sayyids themselves. As Mr. Leeds has submitted together with his Report "a detailed account in English of the history of the Sayyids," the following extracts from the Urdū MSS. will suffice.

The date of the arrival in India of the above-mentioned Abū'l-Farah from Wāsit is doubtful. The two MSS, mention the time of Iltitmish (Altamsh), and trace the emigration to troubles arising from Hulāgū's invasion of Baghdād and the overthrow of the empire of the Khatīfas; while the sons of Abū 'l-Farah are said to have been in the service of Shihābu 'd-Dīn Chorī—two palpable anachronisms.

Abū 'l-Farah is said to have arrived in India with his twelve sons, of whom four remained in India on his return to his country. These four brothers are the ancestors of the four branches of the Sayyids. Their names are:—

1. Sayyid Darud, who settled in the mawras of Tihanpur.

2. Sayyid Abū 'l-Fazl, who settled in the qaşba of Chhatbanūrā (اجهت بنورا).

- 3. Sayyid Abū 'l-Faza'il, who settled in the mawza' of Kūndlī.
- 4. Sayyid Najmu 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn, who settled in the mawzas of Jhujar. These four places are said to lie near Patiyālā in the Panjāb, and have given rise to the names of the four branches. Instead of Chhatbanūrī, the name of the second branch, the MSS have also Chhātraudī, جهاتروتي, and Jagnerī (جگنيري) instead of Jhujarī (جهاتروتي), although no explanation is given of these alterations.

From Patiyala the four brothers went to the Du, ab between the Ganges and Jamna, from where a branch was established at Bilgram in Audh.

The etymology of bārha is stated to be uncertain. Some derive it from bāhir, outside, because the Sayyids encamped outside the imperial camp; some from bārah imām, the twelve Imāms of the Shīsahs, as the Sayyids were Shīsahs; some derive it from twelve (bārah) villages which the family held, just as the district of Balandshahr, Taḥṣīl Anūpshahr, is said to contain a bārha of Paṭhāns, i.e. 12 villages belonging to a Paṭhān family; and others, lastly, make it to be a corruption of the Arabic abrār, 1 pious.

The descendants of S. Dāsūd settled at *Dhāsrī*; and form the *Tihan-pūri* branch, those of S. Abū 'l-Fazl at Sambalhara, and form the Chhatbanūri or Chhātrauri branch; those of S. Abū 'l-Fazāsil went to Majhara, and are the Kūndlīwāls; and those of S. Najmu 'd-Dīn occupied Biḍaulī, and form the Jhujarī, or Jagnerī branch.

A. The Tihanpūrīs.

The eighth descendant of S. Dāsūd was S. Khān Qîr (?) (خان قبر)²
He had four sons: -

1. Sayyid 'Umar Shahid, who settled in Jansath, a village then inhabited by Jats and Brahmins. To his descendants belong the renowned brothers mentioned on p. 428 (g).

The occurrence of the name of mar shows that he, at any rate, was no Shisah.

2. Sayyid Chaman, who settled at Chatora (چتورټ), in the Pargana of Jolī-Jānsath. To his descendants belongs S. Jalāl, who during the reign

^{[1} Plural.--P.]

The word من occurs also in the lists of Pathān nooles in the Tārīḥḥ-i Firāzshāh.

The title of نبرنک qīrbak, which is montioned in the same work, appears to be the same as the later فبرنگ or نبر بیک qurbeşi, the officer in charge of the qūr (p. 116). But the name Ahān Qīr is perhaps wrong, the MS. calls him خواستیر, or خواستیر, Khyen Fir or Khyen Qīr (?).

of Shāhjahān is said to have founded Kharwa Jalālpūr in the 'Ilāqa of Sirdhana, district Mīrath. His son S. Shams left the imperial service; hence the family declined. He had two sons, Asad 'Alī and 'Alī Asghar, whose descendants still exist in Chatora and Jalālpūr respectively. They are very poor, and sold in 1843–44 the bricks of the ruined family dwelling, in Chatora for Rs. 10,000 to the Government for the construction of works of irrigation. The buildings in Chatora are ascribed to S. Muḥammad Ṣalāḥ Khān, who served in Audh, and died childless.

- 3. Sayyid Hunā (هنا). He settled at Bihārī, Muzaffarnagar. He had six sons:—
- I. Sayyid Quib, whose descendants occupy the village of Bilāspūr in the Muzaffarnagar District. From this branch come the Ratheri Sayyids.
 - II. S. Sultān, whose descendants hold Sirdhāoli.
- III. S. Yūsuf, whose posterity is to be found in Bihārī and Vhalna (one MS. reads Dubalna).

IV and V. S. Jan and S. Man, had no offspring.

- VI. S. Naṣīr*'d-Dīn. To his descendants belongs S. Khān Jahān-i Shāhjahānī, p. 428 (d). On him the Sayyids appear to look as the second founder of their family. His first son, S. Manṣūr, built Manṣūrpūr and his descendants hold nowadays Manṣūrpūr and Khataulī; his second son Muzaffar Khān [Sher Zamān] built Muzaffarnagar, where his descendants still exist, though poor or involved.
- 4. Sayyid Ahmad. He settled at I in Joli-Jansath, where his descendants still are. The MSS. mention Tatar Khan, and Diwan Yar, Muḥammad Khan as having distinguished themselves in the reign of Awrangzib.

B. The Chhatbanūrī, or Chhātraurī, Clan.

One of the descendants of S. Abū 'l-Fazl is called S. Ḥasan Fakhru 'd-Dīn who is said to have lived in the reign of Akbar at Sambalhara, the rājas of which place were on friendly terms with the family. His son, S. Nadhah, is said to have had four sons:—

- I. Sayyid S.Ah.
- II. Sayyid Ahmad, a descendant of whom, S. Rawshan Alī Khān, served under Muhammad Shāh.

¹ The Pādishāknāma, though very minute, does not mention S. Jalāl and S. Shams. A S. Jalāl is mentioned Tuz., p. 30. He died of his wounds received in the fight at Bhaironwāi (vide No. 99).

[* Sandhā, olt ?—P.]

III. S. Taju 'd-Dīn, whose son, S. 'Umar settled at Kakrauli.

IV. S. Sälär (perhaps the same on p. 428d, last line of) who had two sons S. Ḥaydar Khān, and S Muḥammad Khān. The descendants of the former settled at Mīrānpūr, which was founded by Nawab S. Shahāmat Khān, evidently the same as on p. 428. S. Muḥammad Khān settled at Khatora ("a village so called, because it was at first inhabited by Kā,iths"). Among his descendants are S. Nuṣrat Yār Khān (p. 428) and Puknu 'd-Dawla.

C. The Kundliwals.

S. Abū 'l-Fazāil settled at Majhara,¹ which is said to have been so called because the site was formerly a jungle of mūnj¹ grass. The MSS say that many Sayyids of the branch are mafqūd⁴ khabar, i.e. it is not known what became of them. The Kūndlīwāls which now exist, are said to be most uneducated and live as common labourers, the condition of Majhara¹ being altogether deplorable.

The Kündlīwāls are now scattered over Majhara, Hāshimpūr, Tisang.

Tandera, etc.

D. The Jagneris.

The son of S Najmu 'd-Dīn, S. Qamaru 'd-Dīn, settled at Bidaulī. A descendant of his, S. Fakhu 'd-Dīn, left Bidaulī and settled at μ in Jolī-Jānsath, and had also zamīndārīs in Chandaurī Chandaura, Tulsīpūr, and Kharī. Nowadays many of this branch are in Bidaulī, 'Ilāqa Pānīpat, and Dihlī.

The chief places where the Sayyids of Barha still exist are Mīrānpūr, Khatauli, Muzassarnagar, Joli, Tis-ha, Bakhera, Majhara, Chataura, Sambalhara, Tisang, Bilāspūr, Morna, Sandhā, olī, Kailā, odha, Jānsath.

There is no doubt that the Sayyids owe their renown and success under the Timurides

to the Kundliwals, who are the very opposite of Mafquid 1-khabar.

¹ On maps Munjherah.—B.]

2 As this place is said to have been founded by Hizabr Khān [p. 427 (c.)] it would seem as if this Sayyid also was a Kundliwäl. His brother, S. GÅlam perished with Prince ShujāÇ in Arracan; and it is noticeable that of the 22 companions of the unfortunate prince, ten were Bārha Sayyids, the remaining twelve being Mughula.

The value of the above-mentioned two Urdii MSS, lies in their geographical details and traditional information. A more exhaustive History of the Sadat i Rarha, based upon the Muhammadan Historians of India—now so accessible—and completed from inscriptions and sanads and other documents still in the possession of the clan, would be a most welcome contribution to Indian History, and none are better suited for such a task than the Sayyids themselves.

After the overthrow of the Tihanpūrī brothers (p. 428, (g)), many emigrated. Sayyids of Bārha exist also in Lakhnau, Barelī, Awla, in Audh; also in Nagīna, Maiman, and Chāndpūr in the Bijnor district. A branch of the Jolī Sayyids is said to exist in Pūrnia (Bengal), and the descendants of the saint 'Abdu 'llāh Kirmānī of Bīrbhūm claim likewise to be related to the Bārha Sayyids.

During the reign of Awrangzib, the Sayyids are said to have professed

Sunni tendencies.

The political overthrow of the Sādāt-i Bárha under Muḥammad Shāh (vide Elphinstone, Vth edition, p. 693) was followed by the disastrous fight at Bhainsī (بهينسي), which lies on the Khataulī road, where the Sayyids were defeated by the Imperialists, and robbed of the jewels and gold vessels which their ancestors, during their palmy days, had collected.

76. Abdu 'llah Khan Mughul.

I cannot find the name of this grandee in the Ma^cāsir or the Tabaqāt. He has been mentioned above, p. 322, l. 10. Akbar's marriage with his daughter displeased Bayrām, because chodu 'llāh's sister was married to Kāmrān, of whose party Bayrām believed him to be. When Bayrām, during his rebellion (p. 332) marched from Dīpālpūr to Jālindhar, he passed over Tihāra, where Abdu 'llāh defeated a party of his friends under Walī Beg (No. 24).

'Abdu 'llah Khan Mughul must not be confounded with 'Abdu 'llah Khan Uzbak (No. 14).

77. Shaykh Muhammad-i Bukhārī.

He was a distinguished Hindustani Sayyid, and maternal uncle (tughāi(?)) to Shaykh Farīd-i Bukhāri (No. 99). Akbar liked him for his wisdom and faithfulness. Fattu Khāsa Khayl Afghān handed over the Fort of Chanar to Akbar, through the mediation of Shaykh Muhammad.

In the 14th year, Akbar gave him a tuyūl in Ajmīr, and ordered him to take charge of Shaykh Mu^cīn-i Chishtī's tomb, as the khādems were generally at feud about the emoluments and distribution of vows presented by pilgrims. Nor had the efficacy of their prayers been proved, though they claimed to possess sufficient influence with God to promise offspring to the barren and childless.

In the 17th year, Shaykh M. was attached to the corps under Mirzā 'Azīz (No. 21), whom Akbar had put in charge of Ahmadābād. After the Emperor's victory at Sarnāl, Ibrāhīm Mīrzā joined Ḥusayn Mīrzā, Shāh Mīrzā, and 'Āqil Mīrzā, at Patan (Gujrāt); but having quarrelled with them, he left them, and invaded the District of Āgra. The other

three Mirzas remained in Patan and entered into a league with the Fülädi party (vide No. 67). Mīrzā Azīz had been reinforced by the Mālwa contingent under Qutbu 'd-Din (No. 28), Shāh Budāgh (No. 52), and Matlab Khan (No. 83). His army was further increased by the contingent of Shaykh M., whom Akbar had ordered to move from Dholga to Sūrat. Mīrzā Azīz Koka left Sayyid Hāmid (No. 78) in Ahmadābād, and moved against the Mīrzās in Patan. The Mīrzās and Sher Khān Fülädi, however, wished to delay the fight, as their reinforcements had not arrived, and Sher Khan sent proposals of peace through Shaykh M. to M. SAzīz. Shāh Budāgh advised M. SAzīz not to listen to them, as the enemies only wished to gain time, and Azīz drew up his army. He himself, Shah Budagh, Musina 'd-Dîn-i Farankhūdī (No. 128). Massum Khān and his son, and Matlab Khān (No. 83) stood in the centre (gol); Qutbu'd-Din (No. 28), and Jamalu'd-Din Injū (No. 164), on the right wing; Shaykh Muhammad, Murad Khan (No. 54), Shah Muhammad (No. 95), Shāh Fakhru 'd-Din (No. 88), Muzaffar Mughul, Payanda (No. 68), Hājī Khān Afghān, and the son of Khawa Khān, on the left wing; Dastam Khān (No. 79), Nawrang Khan (vide p. 354), Muḥammad Quli Toqbai (No. 129), and Mihr SAlī Sildoz (No. 130), led the van (harāwal); Baz Bahādur (No. 188) occupied the Altimash (between the van and the commander); and Mīrzā Muqīm and Chirgis Khān formed the reserve behind the centre. The centre of the enemies was held by Sher Khan Fuladi and Junayd-i Kararānī; the right wing by the three Mīrzās; the left wing by Muḥammad Khān (Sher Khān's eldest son) and Sādāt Khan: and their van was led by Badr Khan, vounger son of Sher Khan. The battle then commenced in the neighbourhood of Patan, 18th Ramazan, 980 (22nd January, 1573). The left wing of the Imperialists was defeated by the Mīrzās. Murād Khān (No. 54) preferred to look on. Shāh Muhammad (No. 95) was wounded, and carried off by his men to Ahmadabad. Shaykh Muhammad himself was killed with several of his relations, as the son of Sayyid Bahā*a'd Dīn, and Sayyid Jacfar, brother of Shaykh Farid (No. 99). The Mirzas also fell upon Shah Fakhru 'd-Din and repulsed him. Qutbu 'd Din even was hard pressed, when M. Azīz by a timely attack with his centre put the enemies to flight. As usual, the soldiers of the enemies had too early commenced to plunder.

Sher Khan fled to Junagadh, and the Mirzas to the Dakhin

78. Sayyid Hāmid-i Bukhārī.

Sayyid Hāmid was the son of S. Mīrān, son of S. Mubārik. Sayyid Mubārak was a Gujrātī Courtier (vide p. 419, note) who, it is said, arrived

from Bukharā with but a horse. One day he was attacked by a mast elephant, when he discharged an arrow that entered the forehead of the animal so deep, that only the notch of the arrow was visible. From this event, the people of Gujrāt swore by S. Mubārak's arrow. He gradually rose to higher dignities. When Istimād Khān (No. 67) raised Nathū to the throne, under the title of Muzaffar Shāh, S. Mubārak got several Maḥalls of the Patan, Dholqa, and Dandoqa (W. of the Peninsula) Districts. After his death, Dholqa and Dandoqa were given to his son Sayyid Mīrān, and after him to his grandson Sayyid Ḥāmid.

When Akbar, on his invasion of Gujrāt, arrived on 1st Rajab, 980, at Patan, Sayyid Ḥāmid went over to him, and was favourably received. During the war of Mīrzā ʿAzīz Koka with the Mīrzās (vide No. 77), S. H. was put in charge of Aḥmadābād. In the 18th year, Dholqa and Dandoqa were again given him as tuyūl. Subsequently, he served under Quṭbu 'd-Dīn in Kambhā,it.

In the 22nd year he was appointed to Multan, and served in the end of the same year with M. Yūsuf Khān-i Razawī (No. 35), against the Balūchīs. In the 25th year, when M. Muḥammad Ḥakīm invaded Lāhor, S. II. with the other tuyūldārs of the Panjāb assembled and joined the army of Prince Murād, S. Ḥ. commanding the left wing. He also served under Akbar in Kābul. On the Emperor's return he was permitted to go from Sirhind to his jāgīr.

In the 30th year he served under Man Singh in Kabul. On his arrival at Peshawar, his jagir, S. H. sent most of his men to Hindustan, and lived securely in Bigram (on our Maps, Beghram), leaving his affairs in the hands of a man of the name of Mūsų. This man oppressed the Maḥmand and Gharbah (?) Khayl tribes, "who have ten thousand homes near Peshawar." The oppressed Afghans, instead of complaining to Akbar, chose Jalala-yi Tarīkī as leader, and attacked S. H. He first resolved to shut himself up in Bigram; but having received an erroneous report regarding the strength of the enemies, he left the town, and was defeated and killed (31st year). The Matair says he was killed in 993. In this light forty of his relations and clients also perished. The Afghans then besieged the Fort, which was held by Kamal, son of S. H. He held it till he was relieved.

S. Kamāl, during Akbar's reign, was promoted to a command of Seven Hundred, and, on the accession of Jahāngīr, to a Hazārīship. He was made Governor of Dilhī, vice Shaykh Abdu 'l-Wahhāb, also a Bukhārī Sayyid (Tuz. p. 35, l. 8 from below). Kamāl served under Farīd-i Bukhārī (No. 99) in the expedition against Prince Khusraw, and commanded

the left wing in the fight near Bhairōwāl, rendering timely assistance to the Sayyids of Bārha who, as was customary, led the van.

Sayyid Ya^cqūb, son of S. Kamāl, was a Commander of Fifteen Hundred, 1,000 horse, and died in the third year of Shāhjahān's reign. The Ma^cāṣir says, in the 2nd year.

The two lists of Shāhjahān's grandees given in the *Pādishāhnāma* (I, b., 322; II, 740) mention another son of Sayyid Ḥāmid, of the name of Sayyid Bāqir, who held a Command of Five Hundred, 400 horse.

79. Dastam Khān, son of Rustam-i Turkistānī.

The correct name of this grandee is Dastam, on a very unusual name though most MSS. of the Asin and many of the Akbarnama give, mustam. The Masair correctly places his name under the letter D.

His father's name was Rustam. His mother—her name is not clearly written in the MSS. of the Ma*āsir and Akbarnāma, which I have seen, either Najība or Bakhya—was a friend of Māhum Anaga (vide No. 19) and had free access to the Harem. Dastam appears to have been a playfellow of Prince Akbar.

Dastam Khān in the 9th year, served under Musizzu 'I-Muik (No. 61) against 'Abdu 'Ilāh Khān Uzbak (No. 14). In the 17th year he served under Mīrzā 'Azīz Koka in the battle of Patan (vide No. 77), distinguished himself in the war with Muḥammad Husayn Mīrzā, and got a flag. In the 22nd year he was appointed to the Şūba of Ajmīr, and got Rantanbhūr as tuyul. His administration was praiseworthy; he kept down the rebellious, and protected the oppressed.

In the 25th year Uchiā, son of Balbhadr, and Mohan, Sūr Dās, Tilūksī, sons of Rāja Bihārī Mal's brother, came without permission from the Panjāb to Lūnī (?), their native town, and caused disturbances. Dastam, from a wish not to be too hard on Kachhwāhas, advised them to return to obedience; but his leniency only rendered the rebels more audacious. Akbar then ordered D. to have recourse to threats, and if this was not sufficient, to proceed against them. D. had at last to do so; but he did it hastily, without collecting a sufficient number of troops. In the fight, the three nephews of the Rāja were killed. Dastam received a

¹ The geographical details given in the Akbarnāma are unsatisfactory.
Abū 'l-Farl mentions the Qapba (small town) of Lün: (رنو) as the birth-place of the Kachhwāha rebels: the fight, he says, took place in a village (sastoure) of the name of المربق Thori, and Dastam died at Sherpār, which is also called a Qasba. But the Akbarnāma leaves the reader to find out where these three places are. The Tabaqāt, in its list of grandees, fortunately says that Dastam Khān was killed in the neighbourhood of Rantanbhūr. The only places near Rantanbhūr which resemble the above three are Bounies, Tohra, and Shergarh, as given on the Trig. Map of the Jodhpūr Territory for 1880. The road from Shergarh (about 4 miles S.E. of Rantanbhūr) to Bounies is bisected

wound from Uchlā, who had attacked him from an ambush. Wounded as he was, he attacked Uchlā, and killed him. Immediately afterwards he fainted and fell from his horse. His men put him again on horseback—a usual expedient, in order not to dishearten the soldiers. The rebels were totally defeated and their estates plundered (988).

Dastam died of his wounds, two days later, at Sherpur. Akbar said that even D.'s mother could not feel the loss of her son as much as he did, because D., with the exception of three years, had never been away from him.

The Mu²āṣir says he was a Commander of Three Thousand. Rantanbhūr was then given to Mīrzā ^cAbdurrahīm (No. 29) as jāgīr.

A son of Dastam is mentioned below (No. 362).

80. Shāhbāz Khān-i Kambū.

Regarding the tribe called Kambū, vide Beames' Edition of Sir H. Elliot's Glossary, I, 304. The Persian hemistich quoted (Metre Hazaj):—

"The Afghans are the first, the Kambūs the second, and the Kashmīrīs the third, set of scoundrels"

must be very modern; for during the reigns of Akbar and Jahangir, it was certainly a distinction to belong to this tribe, as will be seen just now.

The sixth ancestor of Shāhbāz was Ḥājī Ismā^aīl, a disciple of the renowned saint Bahā^au d-Dīn Zakariyā of Multān. Once a beggar asked the saint to give him an ashrafī, or gold muhr, for the name of every prophet he would mention; but as Bahā^au 'd-Dīn could not pay the money, Ḥājī Ismā^aīl took the beggar to his house, and gave him an Ashrafī for each of the ten or twenty names he mentioned. Another time, Ḥājī Isma^aīl acknowledged to the saint that his power of understanding was defective, whereupon the saint prayed for him, and from that time the Kambūs are proverbial in Hindūstān for sagacity and quickness of apprehension

Shahbaz at first devoted himself to a life of abstinence and austerity, as his ancestors had done; but the excellent way in which he performed

by the Banas River. Kantaubhūr lies in the angle formed by the confluence of the Chambal and the Banas, and Bounlee lies about 30 miles N.W. of it. There are two villages of the names of Tohrs, one about 3 miles S.W. of Bounlee, and the other S. of it, on the right bank of the Banas. Bounlee, or Baüli, would be بران من من بران which will be found below as the head of a Pargana in Sarkār Rantaubhūr, and the change of بران very simple. The greatest difference lies in Sherpūr and Shergarh.

The Akbarnāma says the fight took place on the 10th Ābān of the 25th year

the duties of kotwāl, drew Akbar's attention to him, and he was made an Amīr and appointed Mīr Tozak (quarter master).

In the 16th year, when Lashkar Khān (No. 90) fell into disgrace, Sh. was appointed Mīr Bakhshī. In the 21st year he was sent against the rebels in Jodhpūr, especially against Kallah, son of Rāy Rām, and grandson of Rāy Māldeo, and was ordered to take Fort Siwāna. Shāhbāz first took Fort Daigūr (?), where a large number of Rāthor rebels were killed; after this he took Dūnāra, from where he passed on to Siwānah, which on his arrival capitulated (984).

In the same year, Shahbaz was sent against Raja Gaipati.2 This Rāja was the greatest Zamīndār in Bihār, and had rendered good services during Muncim's expedition to Bengal. But when Dasud, king of Orisa. invaded Bengal after Munsim's death at Gaur in 983, Gaipati rebelled and plundered several towns in Bihar. Farhat Khan (No. 145) tuyüldar of Āra, his son Farhang Khān, and Qarātāq Khān, opposed the Rāja, but perished in the fight. When Shahbaz approached, Gajpati fled; but Sh. followed him up, and gave him no rest, and conquered at last Jagdespür, where the whole family of the Raja was captured. Sh. then conquered Shergadh, which was held by Srī Rām, Gajpati's son. About the same time, Sh. took possession of Rahtas. Its Afghan commander, Sayyid Muhammad, who commanded the Fort on the part of Junayd-i Kararani, had been hard pressed by Muzaffar (No. 37); he therefore fied to Shahbaz, asked for protection, and handed over the Fort. Sh. then repaired to court, where he received every distinction due to his eminent scrvices.

In the 23rd year (986) Sh. marched against the proud Rānā Partāb, and besieged the renowned Fort of Köbhalmīr (called on our maps Komalnair, on the frontier between Udaipūr and Jodhpūr lat. 25° 10') The Rānā, unable to defend it, escaped in the disguise of a Sannāsī when the fort was taken. Goganda and Udaipūr submitted likewise. Sh. erected no less than 50 thānas in the hills and 35 in the plains, from Udaipūr to Pūr Mandal. He also prevailed upon the rebellious Daudā, son of Rāy Surjan Hādā (No. 96), to submit, and took him to Court. After this, Sh. was sent to Ajmīr, where disturbances frequently occurred

الموارد The MSS. have بمارد which I cannot find on the maps. There are many places of a similar name, S.W. of Jodhpür, near which it must lie. Dündra (most MSS, have الموارد المعالمة ites on the right bank of the Lüni, S.W. of Jodhpür. Here Shahbar crossed (Cubūr) and went to Siminah, which lies N.W. S. of Dūnāra, about 10 miles from the best bank of the Lüni.

² So according to the best MSS. Stewart calls him Gujety, the Lakhnau Akbarnānia (III, 140) Kajī, and the Edit. Bibl. Indica. of Badā,oni, Kackiti, (p. 179, 284, 285) and Kajīti (p. 237), which forms are also found in the Lakhnau edition of the Akbarnānia.

When the military revolt of Bengal broke out, Sh. was ordered to go to Bihār; but he did not agree with M. Azīz Koka—for Sh. could not bear to be second or third—and carried on the war independently of him, defeated Arab Bahādur, and marched to Jagdespür. At that time the report reached him that Masūm Khān Farankhūdī (No. 157) had rebelled. and Arab Bahādur and Niyābat Khān had joined him. Sh. therefore marched to Audh, and met the enemies near Sultānpūr Bilkarī, 25 kos from Awadh (Fayzābād). Masūm, by a timely centre-attack, put Sh. to flight, and followed him up, Sh. fighting all the way to Jaunpūr, a distance of 30 kos. Accidentally a rumour spread in the army of the enemy that Masūm had been killed, which caused some disorder. At this moment, Sh.'s right wing attacked the enemy, Masūm got wounded, and withdrew to Awadh (Fayzābād). Sh. now pursued him, and seven miles from that town, after a hard fight, totally routed him. Masūm could not hold himself in Awadh, and his army dispersed.

After this, Sh. again went to court, where he was received by the emperor on his return from Kābul. At court, Sh. generally gave offence by his pride; and when once, at a parade, the Bakhshīs had placed the young Mīrzā Khān (No. 29) above him, he gave vent openly to his anger, was arrested, and put under the charge of Rāy Sāl Darbārī (No. 106).

But an officer of Sh.'s usefulness could ill be spared, and when M. SAZIZ in the 28th year applied for transfer from Bihar, Sh. with other Amīrs was sent there. He followed up Massim Khan Kabuli to Ghoraghat, and defeated him. He then followed him to Bhāţī (p. 365), plundered Baktarāpūr, the residence of SIsa, took Sunnārgāw, and encamped on the Brahmaputra. 'Isa afforded Massum means and shelter; but being hard pressed by the imperialists, he made proposals of peace: an Imperial officer was to reside as Sunnargaw; Macsum was to go to Makkah; and This was accepted, and Sh. crossed the river Sh. was to withdraw expecting the terms would be carried out. But the enemy did nothing; and when Sh. prepared to return, his officers showed the greatest insubordination, so that he had to retreat to Tanda, all advantage being thus lost. He reported matters to Court, and the tuyūldārs of Bihār were ordered to join him. Sh. then took the field and followed up Macaum. In the 30th year, he and Sadiq Khan (vide No. 43) quarrelled. Subsequently, Sh. marched again to Bhātī, and even sent a detachment "to Kokra (کو کرو،, which lies between Orisā and the Dakhin". Mādhū Singh, the Zamindar of the district, was plundered, and had to pay tribute. In the 32nd year, when Sasid (No. 25) was made Governor of Bengal, and the disturbances had mostly been suppressed, Sh. returned

to Court. In the 34th year, he was made Kotwāl of the army. He was then sent against the Afghāns of Sawād; but he left his duties without orders, and was again imprisoned.

After two years he was released, was made atālīq to M. Shāhrukh, who had been appointed to Mālwa, and was on his way to Prince Murād in the Dakhin. During the siege of Aḥmadnagar, the inhabitants of Shahr-i Naw, "which is called Burhānābād," asked the Imperialists for protection; but as they were mostly Shīsas, Sh., in his bigotry, fell upon them, plundered their houses, especially the quarter called Langar-i-Duwāzda Imām, the very name of which must have stunk in Sh.'s nostrils. The inhabitants "seeing that they could not rely on the word of the Mughuls" emigrated. The Prince was irritated; and when Ṣādīq Khān (No. 43) was appointed his atālīq, Sh. left without permission for Mālwa. Akbar gave his jāgīr to Shāhrukh, and transferred Shāhbāz.

In the 43rd year Sh. was sent to Ajmīr as Commander of the manqalā of Prince Salīm (Jahāngīr), whom Akbar had asked to go from Ilāhābād against the Rānā. But Sh. was now about seventy years old, and as he had been in the habit of eating quicksilver, he commenced to suffer from pain in his hands and wrists. He got well again, but had in Ajmīr another attack; he rallied again, but died suddenly in the 44th year (1008). Salīm took quickly possession of Sh.'s treasures, went back to Ilāhābād without having done anything, and continued in his rebellious attitude towards his father.

Shāhbāz had expressed a dying wish to be buried in Ajmīr within the hallowed enclosure of Musīn-i Chishtī. But the custodians of the sacred shrine refused to comply and Sh. was buried outside. At night, however, the saint appeared in the dreams of the custodians, and told them that Shāhbāz was his favourite, whereupon the hero was buried inside, north of the dome.

Shahbaz was proverbial for his rigid piety and his enormous wealth. His opposition to Akbar's "Divine Faith" had been mentioned above (p. 197). He would neither remove his beard to please the emperor, nor put the word murid (disciple) on his signet. His Sunni zeal, no doubt, retarded his promotion as much as his arrogance; for other less deserving officers held higher commands. He observed with great strictness the five daily prayers, and was never seen without a rosary in his hand. One day the emperor took a walk along the tank at Fathpur and seized Shahbaz's hand to accompany him. It was near the time of the cap, or afternoon prayer, and Sh. was restless and often looked up to the sun,

not to miss the proper time. Hakim Abū 'l-Fath (No. 112) saw it from a distance, and said to Hakim Ali who stood near him, "I shall indeed call Shāhbāz a pious man, if he insists on saying the prayer alone, as he is with the emperor"; (for the prayer had been abolished by Akbar at Court). When the time of prayer had come, Sh. mentioned it to the emperor. "Oh," replied Akbar, "you can pray another time, and make amends for this omission." But Sh. drew away his hand from the grasp of the emperor, spread his dupatta shawl on the ground, and said not only his prayer but also his vird (voluntary daily religious exercise), Akbar his head slapping all the while, and saying, "Get up!" Abū 'l-Fazl stepped up and interceded for Shahbaz, whose persistency he admired.

Abū 'l-Fath says that Shāhbāz was an excellent and faithful servant; but he blames him for his bigotry. In liberality, he says, he had no equal, and people whispered that he found the Paras stone (vide Book III, Şūba of Mālwa). His military contingent was always complete and in good order; during his fights near the Brahmaputr he had 9,000 horse. Every Thursday evening he distributed 100 Ashrafis to the memory of the renowned Ghaws" 's-siglayn (?) (SAbdu 'l-Qādu-i Jīlānī). Kambūs he gave so much, that no Kambū in India was in bad circumstances.

During the time he was Mir Bakhshi he introduced the Dagh law, the most important military reform of Akbar's reign (vide pp. 252, 265, 266).

Shāhbāz's brother, Karamu 'llāh, was likewise pious. He died in 1002 at Saroni (Ma*āsir). The Ma*āsir mentions a son of Shāhbāz, Ilhāmu 'llāh. He was Wāgisa-nawīs (p. 268) of the Sarkār of Baglāna, where he died.

The Tuzuk (p. 248) mentions another son of his, Ranbāz Khān, who during the reign of Shāhjahān was a Commander of Eight Hundred. 400 horse. He was, in the 13th year, Bakhshī and Wāqisa-nawīs of the corps which was sent to Bangash. He held the same rank in the 20th year of Shahjahan's reign.1

81. Darwish Muhammad Uzbak.

The Ma*āşir says nothing about this grandee; the MSS. of the Tabayāt merely say that he was dead in 1001.

In the list of Akbar's grandees in the *Tabaqāt*, Nizām says, "At present (in 1001) Shāhbāz is Mīr Bakhshī of Mālwa."

¹ Ranhāz Khān is wrongly called Niyāz Khān in the Ed. Bibl. Indica of the Pādishāh. I. b., p. 314; but in II, p. 740, of the same work, Ranbaz Khan as in the Tuzuk.

Sayvid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk, p. 159, says that Ranbaz's name was Khūb" 'llāk; but this is a most extraordinary name, and therefore likely to be wrong. It should. perhaps, be Habib" 'lkih.

From the Akbarnāma (Lucknow edition, II, p. 137) we see that he was a friend of Bayrām. He was sent by Bayrām together with Muzaffar Ah (No. 37, and p. 332, l. 6) to Sher Muḥammad Dīwāna, who dispatched both fettered to Court.

His name occurs again in the Akbarnāma (Lucknow edition, II, p. 250—where for Darwish Uzbak Khwāja, read Darwish Uzbak o Muzaffar Khwāja). From the fact that Abū 'l-Fazl has given his name in this list, it is evident that Akbar pardoned him on Bayrām's submission.

82. Shaykh Ibrāhīm, son of Shaykh Mūsa, elder brother of Shaykh Salīm of Fathpūr Sīkrī.

His father, Shaykh Mūsa, lived a retired life in Sīkrī. As Akbar had at first no children, he asked the Sīkrī Shaykhs to pray for him, which they did; and as at that time one of Akbar's wives became pregnant (with Salan), Akbar looked upon the Shaykhs with particular favour. To this lucky circumstance, the Sīkrī family owes its elevation.

Shaykh Ibrāhīm lived at first at Court, chiefly in the service of the princes. In the 22nd year he was made Thānahdār of Lāḍlā,ī, and suppressed the disturbances. In the 23rd year he was made Governor of Fathpūr Sīkrī. In the 28th year he served with distinction under M. Azīz Koka (No. 21) in Bihār and Bengal, and was with Vazīr Khān (No. 41) in his expedition against Qutlū of Oṛīsā. When Akbar, in the 30th year, went to Kābul, he was made Governor of Āgra, which post he seems to have held till his death in 999 (36th year).

According to the *Tabaqāt*, he was not only the brother but also the son-in-law of Shaykh Salīm-i Sikrīwāl.

83. Abdu 'l-Matlab Khān, son of Shāh Budāgh Khān (No. 52).

The Matasir makes him a Commander of Two Thousand Five Hundred.

Abdu 'l-Matlab accompanied Sharafu 'd Din Husayn (No. 17) on his expedition to Mirtha. In the 10th year he served together with his father under Musizzu 'l-Mulk (No. 61) against Iskandar and Bahādur Khān, and fled from the battlefield of Khayrābād. In the 12th year he served under Muhammad Quli Khān Barlās (No. 31) against Iskandar Khān in Audh. He then retireu to his tuyūl in Mālwa.

In the 17th year he belonged to the auxiliaries of M. Azīz Koka and was present in the battle of Patan (p. 433). In the 23rd year, when Qutbu 'd-Dīn's men (No. 28) brought Muzaffar Ḥusayn Mīrzā from the Dakhin to Court, Abdu 'l-Maţlab attached himself as convoy and saw the Mīrzā safely to Court. In the 25th year he accompanied Ismā l Qulī Khān (No. 46) on his expedition against Niyābat Khān Arab. In the

following year he received a reprimand for having murdered Fath Dawlat, son of SAlī Dost. He was, however, subsequently pardoned, and was put in command of the left wing of the army which was sent to Kābul. In the 27th year, Akbar honoured him by being his guest in Kālpī, his jāgīr.

In the 30th year he accompanied M. Azīz Koka to the Dakhin, and was sent, two years later, against Jalāla Tārīkī, the Afghān rebel. One day, Jalāla fell upon the van of the Imperialists, which was commanded by Beg Nūrīn Khān (No. 212), Salīm Khān (No. 132), and Sheroya Khān (No. 168). They were in time, and, assisted by Muḥammad Qulī Beg, routed Jalāla, who escaped to the mountains. Abdu 'l-Matlab " had not the good fortune of even mounting his horse to take part in the fight". He seems to have taken this to heart; for when the victorious army returned to Bangash, he had an attack of madness and was sent to Court. He died soon after.

His son, Sherzād, was under Jahängīr, a Commander of Three Hundred, 200 horse.

84. Istibar Khan, the Eunuch.

His name, like that of many other Eunuchs, was Ambar. He was one of Bābar's Eunuchs. When Humāyūn left Qandahār for Irāq, he despatched Istibār and others to conduct Maryam Makānī (Akbar's mother) to his camp. In 952 he left Kābul and joined the emperor, who attached him to Prince Akbar's suite.

In the '2nd year of Akbar's reign he accompanied Akbar's mother and the other Begams from Kābul to India. Akbar appointed him Governor of Dihlī, where he died.

He must not be confounded with No. 96.

85. Raja Bir Bal [Bir Bar], the Brahman.

He was a Brahman of the name of Mahesh Dās (Ma*dşir; the Ed. Bibl. Indica of Balā,onī, II, p. 161, calls him Brahman Dās) and was a Bhāt, or minstrel, a class of men whom the Persians call bādfarosh, "dealers in encomiums." He was very poor, but clear-headed, and remarkable for his power of apprehension. According to Badā,onī, he came soon after Akbar's accession from Kālpī to Court, where his bonmots in a short time made him a general favourite. His Hindī verses also were much liked, and Akbar conferred on him the title of Kab Rāy, or (Hindu) Poet Laureate. and had him constantly near himself.

¹ Just as Jolik Ray the (Hindil) Court Astrologer. The (Persian) Poet Laureste [Fay4] had the title of Malik* 'sh-ShuSara, or "King of Poets".

In the 18th year Rāja Jai Chand of Nagarkot, who was at Court happened to displease the emperor, and was imprisoned. Nargakot was given to Kab Rāy as jāgīr. He also received the title of Rāja Bīr Bar. But Jai Chand's son, Budh Chand (or Budhī Ch., or Badī Ch.—the MSS. differ) shut himself up in Nagarkot, and Ḥusayn Qulī Khān (No. 24) was ordered to conquer it. The invasion of Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn Mīrzā, as related above, forced Ḥusayn Qulī to raise the siege, and Bīr Bar, in all probability, did not get his jāgīr. He accompanied Akbar on his forced march to Patan and Aḥmadābād, 24th Rabī's II, 981. (Vide note to No. 101.)

He was often employed in missions. Thus in the 21st year he was sent with Ray Lon Karan to Düngarpür, the Ray of which town was anxious to send his daughter to Akbar's Harem. In the 28th year, again, B. B. and Zayn Koka (No. 34) conducted Raja Ram Chand (No. 89) to Court.

Bīr Bar spent his time chiefly at Court. In the 34th year Zayn Khān Koka marched against the Yūsufzā,īs in Bijūr and Sawād; and as he had to ask for reinforcements, Bīr Bar was sent there together with Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fath (No. 112). It is said that Akbar determined by lot whether Abū 'l-Faṭl or Bīr Bar should go, and the lot fell on the latter, much against Akbar's wish.

The result of this campaign has been related above (pp. 214, 367). Bir Bar and nearly 8,000 Imperialists were killed during the retreat-the severest defeat which Akbar's army ever suffered.¹

How Akbar felt Bir Bar's loss has been mentioned on p. 214. There is also a letter on this subject in Abū 'l-Fazi s Maktūbūt.

The following passages from Bada, oni (Ed. Bibl. Ind., pp. 357, 358) are of interest—"Among the silly hes—they border on absurdities—which during this year (995) were spread over the country, was the rumour that Bīr Bar, the accursed, was still alive, though in reality he had then for some time been burning in the seventh nell. The Hindus by whom His Majesty is surrounded, saw how sad and sorry he was for Bīr Bar's loss, and invented the story that Bīr Bar had been seen in the hills of Nagarkot, walking about with Jogīs and Sannāsis. His Majesty believed the rumour, thinking that Bīr Bar was ashamed to come to Court on account of the defeat which he had suffered at the hauds of the Yūsufzā,īs; and it was, besides, quite probable that he should have been seen with Jogīs,

¹ A similar catastrophe befell Awrangzīb, when several thousand soldiers of the army commanded by Amin Khān were killed in the Khaibar Pass, on the 3rd Muharram, 1083, or 21st April, 1672. Ma⁵āgir-i ÇĀlamgīrī, p. 117 Vide Journal A. S. Bengal for 1863, p. 261.

inasmuch as he had never cared for the world. An Ahadī was therefore sent to Nagarkot to inquire into the truth of the rumour, when it was proved that the whole story was an absurdity."

"Soon after, His Majesty received a report that Bīr Bar had been seen at Kālinjar (which was the jāgīr of this dog), and the collector of the district stated that a barber had recognized him by certain marks on his body, which the man had distinctly seen, when one day Bīr Bar had engaged him to rub his body with oil; from that time, however, Bīr Bar had concealed himself. His Majesty then ordered the barber to come to Court; and the Hindū Krorī (collector) got hold of some poor innocent traveller, charged him with murder, and kept him in concealment, giving out that he was Bīr Bar. The Krorī could, of course, send no barber to Court; he therefore killed the poor traveller, to avoid detection, and reported that it was Bīr Bar in reality, but he had since died. His Majesty actually went through a second mourning; but he ordered the Krorī and several others to come to Court. They were for some time tortured as a punishment for not having informed His Majesty before, and the Krorī had, moreover, to pay a heavy fine."

Bīr Bar was as much renowned for his liberality, as for his musical skill and poetical talent. His short verses, bon-mots, and jokes, are still in the mouths of the people of Hindūstān.

The hatred which Badā,onī Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) and other pious Muslims showed towards Bīr Bar (vide pp. 192, 198, 202, 209, 214) arose from the belief that Bīr Bar had influenced Akbar to abjure Islām.

Bir Bar's eldest son, Lāla, is mentioned below among the commanders of Two Hundred (No. 387). He was a spendthrift; and as he got no promotion, and his property was squandered away, he resigned court life, and turned faqīr, in order to live free and independent (end of 46th year).

86. Ikhlas Khan Istibar, the Eunuch.

The $Ma^a\bar{a}_s$ ir does not give his name. The list of Akbar's grandees in the $Tabaq\bar{a}t$ has the short remark that Ikhlās Khān was a Eunuch, and held the rank of a Commander of One Thousand.

87. Bahār Khān (Muḥammad) Asghar, a servant of Humāyūn.

The name of this grandee is somewhat doubtful, as some MSS. read Bahādur Khān. The Matāsir does not give his name. The list of the Tabaqāt inentions a "Bahār Khān, a Khāṣa Khayl Afghān, who held a command of Two Thousand". Bahār Khān Khāṣa Khayl is also mentioned in several places in the Akbarnāma. He is therefore most probably the same as given by Abū'l-Fazl in this list. Perhaps we have

to read Pahār Khān, instead of Bahār Khān; vide No. 407. The notice in the Tabaqāt implies that he was dead in 1001.

88. Shāh Fakhr^u 'd-Dīn, son of Mīr Qāsim, a Mūsawī Sayyid of Mashhad.

Shāh Faldru 'd-Dīn came, in 961, with Humāyūn to India. In the 9th year of Akbar's reign he served in the army which was sent against 'Abdu'llāh Khān Uzbak (No. 14). In the 16th year he was in the manqalā, or advance corps, commanded by Khān-i Kalān (No. 16). When Akbar arrived at Patan, he sent Sh. F. and Ḥakīm 'Aynu'l-Mulk to Mīr Abū Turāb and I'timād Khān (No. 67). On the road he fell in with the former, and went to I'timād whom he likewise induced to pay his respects to Akbar. He was among the auxiliaries of M. 'Azīz Koka (No. 21) and was present in the battle of Patan (p. 433). He was also among the grandees who accompanied Akbar on his forced march to Gujrāt (p. 343, note, where according to the Akbarnāma we have to read 24th Rabī's II, for 4th Rabī's I). After this, he was made Governor of Ujjain, and received the title of Naqābat Khān.¹ In the end of the 24th year, he was made Governor of Patan (Gujrāt), vice Tarsō Muḥammad Khān (No. 32), where he soon after, probably in the beginning of 987, died (986, Tabaqāt).

89. Rāja Rām Chand Baghela.

A few MSS. read Bhagela, which form Tod says is the correct one. Baghela, however, is the usual spelling.

Råm Chand was Rāja of Bhath (or Bhattah, as the Masāşir spells it). Among the three great Rājas of Hindūstān whom Bābar mentions in his

Memoirs, the Rajas of Bhath are the third.

Rām Chand was the patron of the renowned musician and singer Tānsīn, regarding whom vide the List of Musicians at the end of this book. His fame had reached Akbar; and in the 7th year, the Emperor sent Jalālu 'd-Din Qūrchī (No. 213) to Bhath, to induce Tānsīn to come to Āgra. Rām Chand feeling himself powerless to refuse Akbar's request, sent his favourite, with his musical instruments and many presents to Āgra, and the first time that Tānsīn performed at Court, the Emperor made him a present of two lākhs of rupees. Tānsīn remained with Akbar. Most of his compositions are written in Akbar's name, and his melodies are even nowadays everywhere repeated by the people of Hindūstān.

When Aşaf Khan (I) led his expedition to Gadha (p. 396)2 he came in

The Lucknow Edition of the Abbarnama (1II, p. 222) calls him Nagit-Khān (?).
 On p. 396, Rām Ohand is by mistake called Rām Chandr.

contact with Rām Chand; but by timely submission the Rāja became "a servant" of Akbar. In the 14th year Yām Chand lost Fort Kālinjar, as related on p. 399. He sent his son, Bīr Bhadr, to Court, but from distrust would not pay his respects personally. In the 28th year, therefore, when Akbar was at Shāhābād, he ordered a corps to march to Bhath; but Bīr Bhadr, through the influence of several courtiers, prevailed upon the Emperor to send a grandee to his father and convey him to Court. Rāja Bīr Bar and Zayn Koka were selected for this office, and Rām Chand came at last to Court, where he was well received.

R. Ch. died in the 37th year, and Bīr Bhadr succeeded to the title of Rāja. But on his way from Court to Bhath he fell from his palanquin, and died soon after, in the 38th year (1001; bide p. 385). His sudden death led to disturbances in Bāndhū, of which Bikramājīt, a young relation of Rām Chand, had taken possession. Akbar therefore sent Rāja Patrdās (No. 196) with troops to Bāndhū, and the Mughuls, according to custom, erected throughout the district military stations (thānas). At the request of the inhabitants, Akbar sent Ismā'īl Qulī Khān (No. 46) to Bāndhū, to convey Bikramājīt to Court (41st year), their intention being to prevent Bāndhū from being conquered. But Akbar would not yield; he dismissed Bikramājīt, and after a siege of eight months and several days, Bāndhū was conquered (42nd year).

In the 47th year Durjodhan, a grandson of Rām Chand, was made Rāja of Bāndhū. In the 21st year of Jahāngīr's reign Amr Singh, another grandson of Rām Chand, acknowledged himself a vassal of Dihlī. In the 8th year of Shāhjahān when 'Abdū' 'llāh Khān Bahādur marched against the refractory zamīndār of Ratanpūr, Amr Singh brought about a peaceful submission. Amr Singh was succeeded by his son Anūp Singh. In the 24th year, when Rāja Pahār Singh Bundela, Jāgīrdār of Chaurāgadh, attacked Anūp, because he had afforded shelter to Dairām, a zamīndār of Chaurāgadh, Anūp Singh, with his whole family, withdrew from Rewā (which after the destruction of Bāndhū had been the family seat) to the hills. In the 30th year, however, Sayyid Ṣalābat Khān, Governor of Ilāhābād (vide p. 427), conducted him to Court, where Anūp turned Muḥammadan. He was made a Commander of Three Thousand, 2,000 horse, and was appointed to Bāndhū and the surrounding districts.

90. Lashkar Khan, Muhammad Husayn of Khurasan.

He was Mir Bakhshi and Mir Arz. In the 11th year Muzaffar Khān (No. 37) had him deposed. In the 16th year he came one day drunk to the Darbār, and challenged the courtiers to fight him. Akbar punished him by tying him to the tail of a horse, and then put him into prison.

He was subsequently released, and attached to Muncim's Bengal corps. In the battle of Takaroī (p. 406) he was severely wounded. Though his wounds commenced to heal, he did not take sufficient care of his health, and died, a few days after the battle, in Orīsā.

He is mentioned as having had a contingent of 2,000 troopers (Masagir,

1,000).

The Masair has a long note in justification of the extraordinary punishment which Akbar inflicted on him.

The title of Lashkar Khan was conferred by Jahangir on Abu 'l-Ḥasan

Mashhadi, and by Shahjahan on Jan Nisar Khan Yadgar Beg.

91. Sayyid Ahmad of Barha.

He is the younger brother of Sayyid Maḥmūd (p. 427). In the 17th year he served in the manyāla, which, under the command of Khān-i Kalān (No. 16), was sent to Gujrāt. After the conquest of Aḥmadābād, he was ordered with other Amīrs to pursue the sons of Sher Khān Fūlādī (p. 432), who had removed their families and property from Patanto Idar. A portion of their property fell into the hands of Imperialists. When Akbar afterwards encamped at Patan, he gave the town to Mīrzā Abdar-Raḥīm (No. 29), but appointed S. A. as Governor. In the same year, Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā, Shāh Mīrzā, and Sher Khān Fūlādī, besieged Patan; but they dispersed on the approach of M. Azīz.

In the 20th year S. A. and his nephews S. Qāsim and S. Hāshim quelled the disturbances in which Jalālu d'-Dīn Qūrchī (No. 213) had lost his life. In 984 he served under Shahbāz Khān (No. 80) in the expedition to Siwānah. According to the *Tubaqūt*, which calls him a Commander of Three Thousand, he died in 985.

Abū 'l-Fazl mentioned Sayyid Ahmad above on p. 300, l. 11 from below. Sayyid Ahmad's son, S. Jamāl* 'd-Dīn was killed by the untimely

explosion of a mine during the siege of Chitor (p. 398).

This S. Jamālu 'd-Dīn must not be confounded with the notorious S. Jamālu 'd-Dīn who was executed in 993 (*Badā,onī* II, 345). He was a grandson of S. Maḥmūd (No. 75) S. Qāsim being called his uncle.

92. Kākar SAlī Khān-i Chishtī.

He came with Humāyūn to Hindūstāu. In the 11th year (973) he was sent together with Shāh Qulī Nāranjī (No. 231) to Gadha-Katanga, because Mahdī Qāsim Khān (No. 36) had gone without leave to Makkah. Kākar served also under Musizzu 'l-Mulk (No. 61) and was present in the battle of Khayrābād. He took part in the bloody fight at Sarnāl (middle of Shasbān, 980; vide p. 353). He was then attached to Munsim's

corps, and served in the siege of Patna, during which he and his so were killed (end of 981; $Ma^{\varsigma}\bar{a}_{sir}$, 980).

93. Rāy Kalyān Mal, Zamindār of Bikānīr.

He is the father of Ray Singh (No. 44), and has been mentioned above, p. 384.

94. Tähir Khān, Mīr Farāghat, son of Mīr Khurd, who was atā to Prince Hindāl.

His name is not given in the $Ma^*\bar{a}sir$. The $Tabaq\bar{a}t$ merely says the he was a grandee of Humāyūn, and reached, during the reign of Akbathe rank of a Commander of Two Thousand. According to the same work he had a son $B\bar{a}q\bar{i}$ $\underline{Kh}\bar{a}n$, who likewise served under Akbar.

From the Akbarnāma (Lucknow Edition, II, p. 274) we see that it was one of Akbar's companions. Together with Dastam Khān (No. 7 Qutluq Qadam Khān (No. 123), Peshraw Khān (No. 280), Ḥakīmu'l-Mul Muqbil Khān, and Shimāl Khān (No. 154), he assisted in the capture the wild and mad Khwāja Mu^cazzam, brother of Akbar's mother.

95. Shah Muhammad Khan of Qalat.

As Qalāt belongs to Qandahār, he is often called Shāh Muḥamms Khān-i Qandahārī. The $Ma^*\bar{a}sir$ says that the name of the town Qalāt is generally spelt with a \ddot{a} , Q; but that the Hazāras pronoun $Kal\bar{a}t$, with a K.

Shāh Muḥammad Khān was a friend of Bayrām, and was with hi in Qandahār, which Humāyūn had given Bayrām as jāgīr. Bayrār however, left it entirely in S. M.'s hands. Bahadur Khan (No. 22) w. then governor of Dawar, and had bribed several grandees to hand ov Qandahār to him; but S. M. discovered the plot and killed the co spirators. Bahādur then marched against Qandahār. S. M. knew the he could expect no assistance from Humāyūn, and wrote to Shāh Jahmās of Persia that it was Humāyūn's intention to cede Qandahār; he shou therefore send troops, defeat Bahadur, and take possession of the tow Tahmasp sent 3,000 Turkman troopers furnished by the jagardars Sistan, Farah, and Garmsir. Their leader, Ali Yar, surprised Bahad and defeated him so completely, that Bahadur could not even kee Dawar. He therefore fled to India. S. M. had thus got rid of one danger he treated the Persian Commander with all submissiveness, but wou not hand over the town. Shah Tahmasp then ordered his nepher Sultan Husayn Mīrzā, son of Bahrām Mīrzā (vide No. 8), W. Khalifa Shāmlū, and others, to besiege Qandahār. The siege had laste

for some time, when Sultan Husayn Mīrzā felt disgusted and withdrev

Tahmāsp felt annoyed, and sent again Sulţān Ḥusayn Mīrzā with ʿAlī Sulţān, Governor of Shīrāz, to Qandahār, with positive orders to take the town. ʿAlī Sulţān was shot during the siege, and Sulţān Ḥusayn Mīrzā remained encamped before the town without doing anything. At this juncture, Akbar, who in the meantime had succeeded to the throne, ordered S. M. to hand over Qandahār to the Persians, according to Humāyūn's promise, and come to India.

This account of the cession of Qandahār, observes the author of the Marāgir, differs from Munshī Sikandar's version of his great work entitled Alamārā-yi Sikandarī. According to that history, Tahmāsp, at the very first request of Shāh Muḥammad sent Sultān Ḥusayn Mīrzā with Walī Khalīfa and other nobles to Qandahār. They defeated Bahādur; but as S. M. would not hand over Qandahār, Tahmāsp sent Alī Sultān with a stronger army, and appointed Sultān Ḥusayn Mīrzā governor of Dāwar and Qandahār. Shāh Muḥammad held out for six months; but as he got no assistance from India, he capitulated and withdrew to Hindūstān.

Be this as it may, S. M. arrived in the end of the third year of Akbar's reign in India, was made a Khān, and gradually rose to the rank of a Commander of Two Thousand. In the beginning of the 6th year (968) he led the van in the battle near Sārangpūr, in which Bāz Bahādur lost Mālwa, and served, in the 9th year, in the war against Abdu'llah Khān Uzbak (No. 14). In the 12th year he was made governor of Kotha. In the 17th year he was among the auxiliaries of Mīrzā Azīz Koka, and was wounded in the battle of Patan (p. 432).

Regarding 'Adil Khan, S. M.'s son, vide below, No. 125.

96. Ray Surjan Hada.

He is often merely called Ray Hada. The Hadas are a branch of the Chauhans. The Sarkar of Rantanbhūr is called after them *Hadautī*.

Räy Surjan was at first in the service of the Rānā, and defied the Mughuls, because he thought himself safe in Rantanbhūr. Akbar, after the conquest of Chītor (p. 398), besieged in the end of the 13th year, Rantanbhūr, and R. S., despairing of holding out longer—the siege having lasted about a month—sent his sons Daudā and Bhoj (No. 175) to Akbar's camp to sue for peace. The Emperor received them well, and gave each a dress of honour. When they were taken behind the tent enclosure to put on the garments, one of their men, suspecting foul play, rushed sword in hand towards the audience tent, and killed several people, among them Shaykh Bahāu 'l-Dīn Majzūb of Badā,on, but was cut down by one of Mugaffar Khān's men. As R. S.'s sons were entirely innocent, the accident did not change Akbar's goodwill towards them;

and he sent them back to their father. At R. S.'s request, Husayn Qulī Khān (No. 24) was then sent to the Fort and escorted R. S. to the Emperor. Rantanbhūr was annexed (Shawwāl, 976, or beginning of the 14th year).

R. S. was made Governor of Gadha-Katanga, from where, in the 20th

year, he was transferred to Fort Chanadh (Chunar).

Soon after, Daudā fled and created disturbances in Būndī. Zayn Khān Koka (No. 34), R. S. and his second son Bhoj were therefore sent to Būndī, which was conquered in the beginning of 985. After the conquest, R. S. was made a commander of Two Thousand. Daudā who had escaped, submitted, in the 23rd year, to Shāhbāz Khān (p. 436). Not long after, Daudā fled again. He died in the 30th year.

R. S. served in the 25th year, after Muzaffar's (No. 37) death in Bihār. The Ma^aāşir does not mention the year of his death. From the Tabaqāt, it is clear, that he had been dead for some time in 1001.

For R. S.'s son, Ray Bhoj, vide below, No. 175.

97. Shaham Khan Jala,ir.

Jalā,ir is the name of a Chaghta,ī tribe.

Shāham's father was Bābā Beg, who had been under Humāyūn, governor of Jaunpūr. Bābā Beg also took part in the battle of Chausā, in which Humāyūn was defeated by Sher Shāh. The Emperor fled to Āgra, and ordered Bābā Beg and other grandees to bring up the camp and the Begams. In attempting to rescue the ladies of the Harem, Bābā Beg was killed by an Afghān near the imperial tent.

Shaham Khan was made an Amīr by Akbar.

In the beginning of the 4th year (966) he served together with the two Jala, irs, mentioned below, Ḥājī Muḥammad Khān-i Sīstānī (No. 55), Chalma Beg (58), Kamāl Khān, Ghakkar, and Qiyā Khān Gung (No. 33), under Khān Zamān (No. 13) in the Jaunpūr District against the Afghāns. The war continued till the sixth year, in which Sher Shāh, son of Adlī, Muhāriz Khān, after Bayrām's death, made a final attempt to overthrow the Mughuls. In the 10th year Sh. Kh. served against Khān Zamān.

In the 19th year he served under Mun'im in the Bengal and Orisā wars, was present in the battle of Takaroi and pursued with Todar Mal the Afghāns to Bhadrak (p. 406). After Mun'im's death at Gaur (p. 407), the grandees put Sh. Kh. in command of the army till the Emperor should send a new commander. In the 21st year he took part in the battle near Åg Mahall (p. 360). In the 24th year he was jāgūrdār of Ḥājīpūr (opposite Patna). After Muzaffar's death (No. 37) in 988, before Todar Mal had arrived, he defeated and killed Sa'īd-i- Badakhshī, one of the Bengal rebels. Subsequently, he pursued 'Arab Bahādūr, whom Shāhbāz Khān

o. 438) had defeated. In the 26th year Sh. Kh. was stationed at Narhan. In this year, Massum Khān-i Farankhūdī (No. 157) had been driven by ne imperialists from Bahrā, ich over Kalyānpūr to Muḥammadābād, hich he plundered, and prepared to attack Jaunpūr. Sh. Kh. from Sarhan, Pahār Khān (No. 407) from Chāzīpūr and Qāsim from Jaldpūr, nited their contingents, and pursued Massūm so effectually that he pplied to M. Azīz Koka to intercede for him with the Emperor. In the 2nd year he was made Governor of Gadha, and soon after, of Dihlī. Ithe end of the same year he accompanied Sultān Murād, who conducted Sulaymān (No. 5) to Court. In the beginning of the 33rd year he ssisted Şādiq Khān (No. 43) in his expedition against Jalāla Tārīkī, Terāh.

In the 43rd year, after a stay of fourteen years in the Panjāb, Akbar nade Dihlī his residence. It was proved that Sh. had been oppressive, nd he was therefore reprimanded. Two years later, he served in the sīr war, and died during the siege of that fort, Zī Ḥijjah, 1009.

The *Tabaqāt* says that Shāham <u>Kh</u>ān was in 1001 a Commander of wo Thousand.

The Akbarnāma mentions two other Jalā, ir Grandees:---

- 1. Sultān Ḥusayn Khān Jalā,ir. He was mentioned above, p. 417, l. 3.
- 2. Muḥammad Khān Jalā, ir. The Tabaqāt says of him, "he is an ld Amīr, and is at present (1001) mad." He served under Khān Zamān the war with Hemū. In the beginning of the 4th year all three Jalā, irs erved under Khān Zamān against the Afghāns in the Jaunpūr District.
- 98. Äsaf Khān (III), [Mīrzā Qiwāmu d'-Dīn] Jasfar Beg, son of sadīsu 'z-Zamān of Qazwīn.

His father Mīrzā Badi^{çu} 'z-Zamān was the son of Āghā Mullā Dawātdār i Qazwīn (vide p. 398). M. Badī, during the reign of Shāh Tahmāsp, ad been vazīr of Kāshān, and Jacfar had also been introduced at the ersian Court.

In the 22nd year of Akbar's reign (985), Jaffar Beg came to India, and as presented to Akbar by his uncle M. Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dīn ʿAlī Āṣaf Khān (No. 126), on his return from the Īdar expedition. The new Dāgh law ving then been introduced, Akbar made Jaffar a Commander Twenty (Bīstī) and attached him to the Dākhilīs (p. 252) of his nele. According to Badā,onī (III, 216) people attributed this minimum royal favour to the malice of Jaffar's uncle. The poet was so low hat Jaffar threw it up in disgust and went to Bengal, to which province jugaffar Khān (No. 37) had just been appointed governor. He was with

him when the Bengal military revolt broke out, and fell together with Shams^u 'd-Dîn-i <u>Kh</u>āfī (No. 159) into the hands of the rebels. Ja^cfar and Shams found means to escape, the former chiefly through his winning manners. On arriving at Fathpūr, Ja^cfar met with a better reception than before, was in a short time made a Commander of Two Thousand, and got the title of Asaf <u>Khān</u>. He was also appointed Mīr Bakhshī, vice Qāzī 'Alī. In his first expedition, against the Rānā of Udaipūr, Āṣaf was successful.

In the 32nd year he was appointed Thanadar of Sawad (Swat), vice Ismā'īl Quli Khān, who had been reprimanded (p. 388, where for Waijūr read Bijūr). In the 37th year Jalāla Rawshānī fled to 'Abdu'llah Khān Uzbak, king of Tūrān; but finding no support, he returned to Terāh, and stirred up the Āfrīdī and Ūrakzā,ī Afghāns. Āṣaf was sent against him, and with the assistance of Zayn Khān Koka, defeated Jalāla. The family of the rebel fell into the hands of the imperialists; his women were given to Waḥdat 'Alī, who was said to be Jalāla's brother, while the other members of his family were taken to Court.

In the 39th year Āṣaf was sent to Kashmīr, M. Yūsuf Khān (No. 35) having been recalled. He re-distributed the lands of the Jāgīr holders, of whom Aḥmad Beg Kābulī (No. 191), Muḥammad Qulī Afshār, and Ḥasan ʿArab were the most important. The cultivation of Zaʿ farān (safīron, vide p. 89) and hunting were declared monopolies, and the revenue was fixed according to the assessment of Qāzī ʿAlī, i.e. at one lākh of kharvārs, at 24 dāms each (vide p. 370). Āṣaf stayed only three days in Kashmīr, and returned to Lāhor. In the 42nd year, when Kashmīr had become all but desolated through the oppressions of the Jāgīr holders, Āṣaf was made Governor of the province. In the 44th year (beginning of 1008) he was appointed Dīwān-i kull vice Patr Dās (No. 196).

In 1013 Prince Salīm (Jahāngīr) rebelled against Akbar > but a reconciliation was effected by Akbar's mother, and Salīm was placed for twelve days under surveillance. After this, he received Gujrāt as tuyūl, and gave up the Ṣūbas of Ilāhābād and Bihār, of which during his rebellion he had taken possession. Bihār was given to Āṣaf, who, moreover, was appointed to a Command of Three Thousand.

On Jahangir's accession, Āṣaf was called to Court, and appointed atālīq to Prince Parwīz, who had taken the command against the Rānā. The expedition was, however, interrupted by the rebellion of Prince Khueraw. In the 2nd year, 1015, Jahāngīr, after suppressing Khusraw's revolt, left Lāhor for Kābul, and as Sharīf Khān Anūru'l-Umarā* remained

dangerously ill in India, Aşaf was made Vakīl and Commander of Five Thousand. He also received a pen-box studded with jewels.¹ But he never trusted Jahāngīr, as the Emperor himself found out after Aşaf's death (Tuzuk, p. 109).

From the time of Akbar's death, the kings 2 of the Dakhin had been restless, and Malik Ambar had seized upon several places in the Bālāghāt District. The Khān Khānān (No. 29), with his usual duplicity, had done nothing to recover the loss, and Jahāngīr sent Prince Parwīz to the Dakhin, with Āṣaf Khān as atālīq, and the most renowned grandees of the Court, as Rāja Mān Singh (No. 30), Khān Jahān Lodī, Khān-i Aszam (No. 21), Abdu 'llah Khān, "each in himself sufficient for the conquest of a country." But incessant drinking on the part of the Prince, and the jealousy and consequent insubordination of the Amīrs, spoiled everything, and the Mughuls suffered a check and lost their prestige. Not long after, in 1021, Āṣaf died at Burhāmpūr. The Tārikh of his death is:—

مد حيف ز آمف خان. A hundred times alas! for Aşaf Khān. The Tuzuk (p. 108) says that he died at the age of sixty-three.

Aşaf Khan is represented as a man of the greatest genius. He was an able financier, and a good accountant. A glance is said to have been sufficient for him to know the contents of a page. He was a great horticulturist, planting and lopping off branches with his own hands in his gardens; and he often transacted business with a garden spade in his hand. In religious matters, he was a free-thinker, and one of Akbar's disciples (p. 218-9). He was one of the best poets of Akbar's age, an age most fruitful in great poets. His Masnawi, entitled Nūrnāma ranks after Nizam's Shīrīn Khusraw. Vide below among the poets of Akbar's reign.

Asaf kept a great number of women, and had a large family.

His sons. 1. Mīrzā Zayn" 'l-'Ābidīn. He was a Commander of Bifteen Hundred, 500 horse, and died in the second year of Shāhjahān's reign. He had a son Mīrzā Ja' far, who like his grandfather was a poet, writing under the same takhallus (Ja'far). He, Zāhid Khān Koka, and M. Shāfī (Pādishāhnāma; Sāqī, Ma'āşir) son of Sayf Khān, were such intimate friends, that Shāhjahān dubbed them sih yār, " the three friends." He

returned the presents.

2 Mughul historians do not like to call the rulers of the Dakhin kings. The word which they generally use, is dunydddr, which is a meaningless title. I have not found this title used in histories written before the Afternams.

It was customary under the Mughul Government to confer a pen-box or a golden inkstand, or both, as issignis on Diwans. When such officers were deposed, they generally

later resigned the service, and lived in Agra on the pension which Shah-jahan granted and Awrangzib increased. He died in 1094.

- 2. Suhrāb <u>Kh</u>ān. He was under Shāhjahān a Commander of Fifteen Hundred, 1,200 horse, and died in the 13th year of Shāhjahān.
- 3. Mīrzā ʿAlī Aṣghar. He was a hasty youth, and could not bridle his tongue. In the Parenda expedition, he created dissensions between Shāh Shujāʿ and Mahābat Khān. He served in the war against Jujhār Bandela, and perished at the explosion of a tower in Fort Dhamūnī, as related in the Pādishāhnāma. He had just been married to the daughter of Muʿtamid Khān Bakhshī (author of the Iqbālnāma-yi Jahāngīrī); but as no cohabitation had taken place, Shāhjahān married her to Khān Dawrān. He was a Commander of Five Hundred, 100 horse.
- 4. Mīrzā Askarī. He was in the 20th year of Shāhjahān a Commander of Five Hundred, 100 horse.

The lists of grandees in the *Pādishāhnāma* mention two relations of Āṣaf—1. *Muḥammad Ṣāliḥ*, son of Mīrzā Shāhī, brother or nephew of Āṣaf. He was a Commander of One Thousand, 800 horse, and died in the second year of Shāhjahān's reign. 2. *Muqīm*, a Commander of Five Hundred, 100 horse.

XI. Commanders of One Thousand and Five Hundred.

99. Shaykh Farid-i Bukhārī.

The *Iqbālnāma*, according to the *Ma*āṣir*, says he belonged to the *Mūsawī* Sayyids; but this is extraordinary, because the Bu<u>kh</u>ārī Sayyid's trace their descent to Sayyid Jalāl-i Bu<u>kh</u>ārī, seventh descendant of Imām 'Alī Naqī Alhādī.

The fourth ancestor of Shaykh Farid was Shaykh Abdu 'l-Ghaffar of Dihli, who when dying desired his family to give up depending on Suyürghāl tenures, but rather to enter the military service of the kings. This they seem to have done.

Shaykh Farid was born at Dihlī (Tuzuk, p. 68). He entered Akbar's service early. In the 28th year, when M. Azīz (No. 21) resigned from ill-health the command of the Bihār army, S. F. accompanied Vazīr Khān (No. 41) to the neighbourhood of Bardwān, where Qutlū of Orīsā had collected his Afghāns. Qutlū having made proposals of peace, S. F. was ordered to meet him. In doing so he nearly perished through Qutlū's treachery (vide Stewart's Bengal). In the 30th year, he was made a Commander of 700, and gradually rose, till the 40th year, to a command of 1,500. He was also appointed Mīr Bakhshī, and had also for some time

the Daftar-i Tan in his charge, i.e., he had to settle all matters relating to the grants of Jāgīr holders.

His elevation under Jahangir was due to the decided support he gave Jahangir, immediately before his accession, and to the victory he obtained over Prince Khusraw at Bhairowal. When Prince Salim occupied Ilāhābād during his rebellion against his father, appointing his servants to mansabs and giving them jagirs, Akbar favoured Prince Khusraw so openly, that every one looked upon him as successor. Soon after, a sort of reconcilation was effected, and Salim's men were sent to Guirāt. When Akbar lay on the death-bed, he ordered Salīm to stay outside the Fort of Agra; and M. Azīz Koka (No. 21) and Raja Man Singh, who from family considerations favoured Khusraw's succession, placed their own men at the gates of the fort, and asked Shaykh Farid But S. F. did not care for their arrangements and to take command. went over to Prince Salim outside, and declared him emperor, before Akbar had closed his eyes. On the actual accession, S. F. was made a commander of 5,000, received the title of Sahib" 's-sayf w" 'l qalam,1 and was appointed Mir Bakhshi.

A short time after, on the 8th Zi Hijjah, 1014, Prince Khusraw suddenly left Agra, and went plundering and recruiting to Lahor. S. F., with other Bukhārī and many Bārha Sayyids, was sent after him, whilst Jahangir himself followed soon after, accompanied by Sharif Khan Amīru 'l-Umaras and Mahabat Khan, who were hostile to S. F., and took every possible opportunity of slandering him. Sultan Khusraw had gone to Lahor and besieged the town, when he heard of S. F.'s arrival with 12,000 horse at the Ab-ī Sultānpūr. He raised the siege, and arrived at the Bi, ah, which S. F. had just crossed. Khusraw was immediately attacked. The fight was unusually severe. The Barha and Bulchari Sayvids had to bear the brunt of the fight, the former in the van under the command of Sayf Khan, son of Sayyid Mahmud Khan Kundliwal (p. 427) and Sayyid Jalal. There were about 50 or 60 of the Barha Sayyids opposed to 1,500 Badakhshi troopers, and had not S. Kamal (vide No. 78) come in time to their rescue, charging the enemy with loud cries of Pādishāh salāmat the Bārha Sayvids would have been cut down to a man. Sayyid Sayf Khan got seventeen wounds, and S. Jalal died a few days after the battle. About four hundred of Khusraw's troopers were killed, and the rest dispersed. Khuaraw's jewel-box fell

¹ This title we also find in old inscriptions, e.g. in those of Tribeni and Sitgliw, High District. It means Lord of the moord and the pen.

into the hands of the Imperialists. The fight took place in the neighbourhood of Bhairowal.1 In the evening Jahangir arrived, embraced S. F., and stayed the night in his tent. The District was made into a Pargana of the name of Fathabad, and was given S. F. as a present. He received, besides, the title of Murtazā Khān, and was appointed governor of the Süba of Gujrāt.

In the 2nd year, S. F. presented Jahangir with an immense ruby made into a ring, which weighed 1 misgal, 15 surkhs, and was valued at 25,000 Rs. As the relations of the Shaykh oppressed the people in Gujrāt, he was recalled from Ahmadābād (Tuzuk, p. 73). In the 5th year he was made governor of the Panjab. In 1021 he made preparations to invade Kangra. He died at Pathan in 1025, and was buried at Dihli (Tuz. p. 159). At the time of his death, he was a Commander of Six Thousand, 5,000 horse.

Sayyid Ahmad, in his work on the antiquities of Dihli, entitled Asar" 's-Sanādīd, No. 77, says that the name of S. F.'s father was Sayyid Ahmad-i Bukhārī. Of Farīd's tomb, he says, nothing is left but an arcade (dālān). But he wrongly places the death of the Shaykh in the 9th year, or 1033 A.H., instead of in the eleventh year, or 1025 A.D. Sayyid Ahmad also mentions a Sārā,ī, built by Shaykh Farīd in Dihli, which has since been repaired by the English Government, and is now used as a jail (حيل خانه, jel khāna).

According to the Tuzuk, p. 65, Salimgadh (Dihli) belonged to S. Farid. It had been built by Salīm Khān the Afghān during his reign in the midst (dar miyan) of the Jamna. Akbar had given it to Farid.8

When Shaykh Farid died, only 1,000 Ashrafis were found in his house, which very likely gave rise to the Tarīkh of his death:-

p. 196) speaks of his extensive possessions along the Jamna.

Bhairöwäl, on our maps Bhyrowal, lies on the road from Jälindhar to Amritsir, on the right bank of the Bi, ah. After the defeat Khusraw fled northwards with the view of reaching Robias beyond the right bank of the Jhelum. He had therefore to cross the Rawi, the Chanab, and the Jhelam. On coming to the Chanab, at a place called Shahpur (a very common name in the Panjab), he could not get boats. He therefore went to Sodhara, which is also mentioned as a place for crossing in the Tabaqat-i Na. iri-on our maps Sodra, N.E. of Vazīrābād—and induced some boatmen to take him over. But they left him in the lurch, landed him on an island in the middle of the Chanab, and swam back. This came to the ears of the Chaudi of Sodhara, and a report was sent to CAbdu 'l Qasim Namakin (No. 199), one of Jahangir's officers stationed at Gujrat (at some distance from the right bank of the Chanāb, opposite to Vazīrābād). He came, took Khusraw from the right bank of the Chanāb, opposite to Vazīrābād). He came, took Khusraw from the island, and kept him confined in Gujrāt. The news of the capture reached Jahāngīr at Lāhor on the last Muharram 1015, i.e. 52 days after Khusraw's flight from Āgra. On the 3rd Ṣafar, Khusraw Hasan Beg-i Badakhshī (No. 167), and SAbdu 'r-Rahīm Khar, were brought to Jahāngīr in the Bāgh-i Mīrzā Kāmrān.

The family must have had large possessions in Dihlī; for when Akbar, in the 22nd year, visited Dihlī, he stayed in Sh. Fark's mansion, and Abū 'l-Farl (Akbarnāma, III, p. 198) eresks of his acterative reconstitute of the stayed in Sh. Fark's mansion, and Abū 'l-Farl (Akbarnāma, III,

داد أخرد برد dād, khurd burd (1025 A.H.).
"He gave, and left (carried off) little."

Shaykh Farid was indeed a man of the greatest liberality. He always gave with his own hands. Once a beggar came to him seven times on one day, and received money; and when he returned the eighth time, Farid gave him again money, but told him not to tell others; else they might take the money from him. He gave widows a great deal, and his jägir lands were given as free land tenures to the children of his servants or soldiers who had been killed. When in Gujrāt, he had a list made of all Bukhārī Sayyids in the province,² and paid for every marriage feast and outfit; he even gave pregnant women of his clan money for the same purpose for the benefit of their yet unborn children. He never assisted singers, musicians, or flatterers.

He built many sarā,īs. The one in Dihli has been mentioned above. In Ahmadābād, a maḥalla was adorned by him and received as a memorial of him the name of Bukhārā. In the same town he built the Masjid and Tomb of Shāh Wajīhu 'd-Dīn (died 988; Bada,onī, III, 13). He also built Farīdābād near Dihlī, the greater part of the old pargana of Tilpat being included in the pargana of Farīdābād (Elliot's Glossary, Beame's Edition, II, p. 123). In Láhor also, a Maḥal'a was built be him, a large bath, and a chauk, or bārār. The Government officers under him received annually three khūlsats; to his footmen he gave annually a blanket, and his sweepers got shees. He never made alterations in his gifts.

His contingent consisted of 3,000 picked troopers. Neither in the reign of Akbar, nor that of Jahäegir did he build a palace for himself. He always lived as if on the march. He paid his contingent personally, little caring for the noise and tumult incident to such offices. One of his best soldiers, an Afghān of the name of Shor Khān, had taken leave in Gujrāt, and rejoined after an absence of six years, when Sh. Farīd was in Kalānūr on his march to Kāngra. The Shaykh ordered Dwārka Dās, his Bakhshī, to pay the man his wages, and the Bakhshī wrote out the Descriptive Roll, and gave the man one day s pay. But Farīd got angry, and said, "He is an old servant, and though he comes rather late, my affairs have not fared ill on account of his absence; give bim his whole pay." The man got 7,000 Rs., his whole pay for six years.

^{[1} Khurd, eat, enjoyed -- P]

2 In Dihli, Ahmadābād, and many other places in Gujrāt do we find Bukhārī Sayyids.

Vide Nos. 77, 78.

"Night and day," exclaims the author of the $Ma^*\bar{a}sir$, "change as before, and the stars walk and the heavens turn as of old, but India has no longer such men. Perhaps they have left for some other country!"

Shaykh Farid had no son. His daughter also died childless. He had adopted two young men, Muḥammad Sa^çīd and Mīr Khān. They lived in great pomp, and did not care for the emperor. Though often warned, they would noisily pass the palace in pleasure boats to the annoyance of the emperor, their boats being lighted up with torches and coloured lamps. One night they did so again, and Mahābat Khān, whom Jahāngīr had given a hint, sent one of his men and killed Mīr Khān. S. F. demanded of the emperor Mahābat's blood; but Mahābat got together several "respectable" witnesses who maintained before the emperor that Mīr Khān had been killed by Muḥammad Sa^çīd, and Shaykh F. had to remain quiet.

Muhammad Sa^cīd was alive in the 20th year of Shāhjahān, and was a Commander of Seven Hundred, 300 horse (*Pādishāhn*, II, 743).

Sayyid Jacfar, S. F.'s brother, was also in Akbar's service. He was killed in the battle of Patan (p. 433).

The Pādishāhnāma (I, b., 316, 313; II, 739) also mentions Sayyid Badr, son of Shaykh Farīd's sister, a Commander of 700, 500 horse; and Sayyid Bhakur, son of Sh. F.'s brother, a Commander of Five Hundred, 300 horse.

100. Samānjī Khān, son of Chalma Beg.

For Samānjī we often find in MSS. Samājī. The Turkish samān means hay, so that Samānjī or Samānchī would mean one who looks after the hay.

The name of this grandee is neither given in the $Ma^*\bar{a}s\bar{i}r$, nor the $Tabaq\bar{a}t$. Nor have I come across his name in the $Akbarn\bar{a}ma$. It remains, therefore, doubtful whether he is the son of No. 58.

Another Samanji Khan will be found below, No. 147.

101. Tardí Khan, son of Qiya Khan Gung (No. 33).

He has been mentioned above, on p. 367. The Tabujāt says that, in 1001, he was governor of Patan (Gujrāt).¹

¹ Tardi Khān is also mentioned in Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk, p. 19, l. 15. But this is a mistake. It should be Tar Khān, not Tardī Khān. The word tognītī, l.e., also is a mistake, and should be Togbāt. Pages 18, 19, of the Tuzuk treat of Akbar's forced march to Patan in Gujrīt (vide p. 343, note, and p. 445). The Matagir (MS. 77 of the Library As. Soc. Bengal, p. 163, b.) mentions the 4th Rabic I, as the day when Akbar left Agra; but from the Akbarnāma (Lucknow Edition, III, 18 ft.) it is clear that Akbar left Agra on the 24th Rabic II, 981, and engaged the enemies on the 0th day after his

102. Mihtar Khān, Anísu 'd-Dīn, a servant of Humâyûn.

The word militar, prop. a prince, occurs very often in the names of Humāyūn's servants. Thus in the Akbarnāma (Lucknow Edition, Vol. I, p. 269—a very interesting page, which gives the names of the grandees, etc., who accompanied the emperor to Persia).

Mihtar Khan was the title of Anisu 'd-Din. He was Humayun's

treasurer on his flight to Persia, and returned with the emperor.

In the 14th year, when Rantanbhūr had been conquered (vide No. 96), the fort was put in his charge. In the beginning of the 21st year (beginning of 984) he accompanied Mān Singh on his expedition against Rānā Partāb of Maiwār, and distinguished himself as leader of the Chandāwul (rear). In the 25th year he held a jāgīr in Audh, and distinguished himself in the final pursuit of Masam Khān Farankhūdī (No. 157).

Anis was gradually promoted. He was at the time of Akbar's death a Commander of Three Thousand. According to the Tubaqāt, he was

in 1001 a Commander of 2,500.

He died in the 3rd year of Jahangir's reign. 1017, eighty-four years old. If I read the MSS, of the Masair correctly, he was a Kati, and looked upon his tribe with much favour. He was a man of great simplicity. It is said that he paid his contingent monthly.

Mūnīs Khān, his son, was during the reign of Jahangīr a Commander of Five Hundred, 130 horse. Abū Tālib, son of Mūnis Khān, was employed

as treasurer (Khizānchī) of the Sūba of Bengal.

103. Rāy Durgā Sīsodia.

Rāy Durgā is generally called in the Akharnāma, Rāy Durgā Chandrā-waṭ, (چندراوت). The home of the family was the Pargana of Rāmpūr,

also called Islampur, near Chitor.

In the 26th year of Akbar's reign Ray Durga accompanied Prince Murad on his expedition against Mīrza Muḥammad Ḥakīm of Kabul. In the 28th year he was attached to Mīrza Khāu's (No. 29) corps, and distinguished himself in the Gujrat war. In the 30th year he was with M. SAzīz Koka (No. 21) in the Dakhin. In the 36th year he followed Prince Murad to Mālwa, and later to the Dakhin.

In the 45th year Akbar sent him after Muzasfar Ilusayn Mîrzā. He then accompanied Abū 'l-Fazl to Nāsik, and went afterwards home on

departure, i.e. on the 5th Jumäda I, 981. Hence the date 5th Jumäda I, 980, which Sayyid Ahmad gives, Tazak, p. 18, i. 16, should be corrected to 5th Jumäda I, 981. The comparison of the several sources for a history of Akbar's reign, and the correction

leave. He returned, but after six weeks went again home, apparently without permission.

He died towards the end of the 2nd year of Jahangir's reign.

According to the *Tuzuk* (p. 63) he had served Akbar for upwards of forty years. Jahängīr says, he had at first been in the service of Rānā Ūdai Singh, and reached, during the reign of Akbar, the dignity of Commander of Four Thousand. He is said to have been a good tactician.

The Tabaqāt says that he was in 1001 a Commander of Fifteen Hundred.

The Ma*āṣir continues the history of his descendants, from which the following tree has been taken.

4. Rā,o Hattī Singh (Do.) 1
[died childless]

5. (a) Rā,o Rūp Singh——6. (b) Rā,o Amr Singh Idied childless (Awrangzīb)

7. Rā,o Muhkam Singh

8. Rā,o Gopāl Singh

9. Rā,o Ratan Singh

Rā,o Ratan Singh turned Muhammadan, and got the title of Muslim Khān (Awrangzīb-Jahāndār Shāh).

104. Mādhū Singh, son of Rāja Bhagwan Das (No. 27).

He was present in the fight at Sarnāl (p. 353). In the beginning of the 21st year (Muḥarram, 984) he served under Mān Singh against Rānā Kīkā, and distinguished himself in the battle of Goganda (21st Rabī⁴ 1, 984).² In the 30th year he accompanied Mīrzā Shāhrukh (No. 7)

1 There is some confusion in the MSS, and printed editions regarding his name. Thus in the Padiskahnama, Ed. Bibl. Indica, I, b. 305, he is called Mathi Singh; but Hatti Singh in the same work, Vol. II. p. 730, and Hathi, on p. 374.

It has been remarked above (p. 383, note 1) that the chronology of the Tabaqui is erroneous. Bada, onl ascribes the errors to the omission of the intercalary days, and a confusion of solar and lunar years. Historians should bear this in mind. The Abbarnama is the only source for a history of Akhar's reign, and the Sawania should be the guide of

Historians.

It was said above, p. 361, note 2, that the battle of Goganda was fought in 985. This is the statement of the Tabagat, which the Massir follows in its biographical note of Raja Man Singh. But from the Akbaratma and the History of Bada, on, who was present in the bettle, and brought Akbar Man Singh's report, it is clear that Man Singh set out on the 2nd Muharram, 984, and that the battle took place on the 21st Rabi I, of the same year.

on his expedition to Kashmīr. In the 31st year, after the death of Sayyid Ḥāmid (No. 78), he took the contingent of Rāja Bhagwān from Thāna Langar, where he was stationed, to Alī Masjid, where Mān Singh was.

In the 48th year he was made a Commander of Three Thousand, 2,000 horse. According to the *Tabaqāt*, he had been, in 1001, a Commander of 2,000.

His son, Chair Sāl, or Sair Sāl, was at the end of Jahāngīr's reign a Commander of Fifteen Hundred, 1,000 horse. He was killed together with his two sons, Bhīm Singh and Anand Singh, in the Dakhin, in the 3rd year of Shāhjahān's reign. His third son, Ugar Sen, was a Commander of Eight Hundred, 400 horse (vide Pādishāhn, I, p. 294; I, b., pp. 305, 314).

105. Sayyid Qāsim, and 143. Sayyid Hāshim, sons of Sayyid Maḥmūd Khān of Bārha, Kūndlīwāl (No. 75).

In the 17th year S. Qāsim served under <u>Kh</u>ān 'Ālam (No. 58) in the pursuit of Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā, who after his defeat by M. 'Azīz Koka (No. 21) had withdrawn to the Dakhin.

S. Hāshim served, in the 21st year, with Rāy Rāy Singh (No. 44) against Sultān De,ora, ruler of Sarohī, and distinguished himself in the conquest of that place.

In the 22nd year both brothers served under Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) against the Rānā. In the 25th year, when Chandr. Sen., son of Māldeo, raised disturbances, both brothers, who had jāgīrs in Ajmīr, were ordered to march against him. Both again distinguished themselves in the 28th year, and served in the harāwal of Mīrzā Khān (No. 29) in the Gujrāt war.

S. Häshim was killed in the battle of Sarkich, near Aḥmadābād. S. Qāsim was wounded. He was subsequently appointed Thānadār of Patan. When Mīrzā Khān went to Court, leaving Qulij Khan as Governor of Aḥmadābād, Qāsim was again appointed to a command and operated successfully against Mugaffar, Jām (zamīndār of Little Kachh), and Khangār (zamīndār of Great Kachh).

On the transfer of Mîrză Khān, Khān-i Aszam (No. 21) was appointed Governor of Gujrāt. Qāsimcontinued to serve in Gujrāt, and distinguished himself especially in the 37th year. Later, he commanded the left wing of Sultān Murād's Dakhin corps.

Qāsim died in the 44th year (1007). He was at his death a Commander of 1,500.

Regarding their sons, ride p. 427.

XII. Commanders of Twelve Hundred and Fifty.

106. Rāy Sāl Darbārī, Shaykhāwat.

He is also called Rāja Rāy Sāl Darbārī, and is the son of Rājā Sojā, son of Ray Ray Mal Shaykhawat, in whose service Hasan Khan Sur (father of Sher Shah) was for some time.

As remarked above (No. 23), the Kachhwahas are divided into Rājāwats and Shaykhāwats. To the latter branch belong Rāja Lo Karan, Ray Sal, etc.; the former contains Man Singh's posterity (the present rulers of Jaipur).

The term Shaikhāwat, or Shekhāwat, as it is generally pronounced, is explained as follows. One of the ancestors of this branch had no sons. A Muhammadan Shaykh, however, had pity on him, and prayed for him till he got a son. From motives of gratitude, the boy was called Shaykh.1 Hence his descendants are called the Shaykhawat Branch.

Rāy Sāl was employed at Court, as his title of Darbārī indicates. He was in charge of the Harem. During the reign of Jahangir, he was promoted, and served in the Dakhin. He died there at an advanced age. He had twenty-one sons, each of whom had a numerous posterity.

Whilst Ray Sal was in the Dakhin, Madhu Singh and other grandchildren of his, collected a lot of ruffians, and occupied Ray Sal's paternal possessions.2 But Mathurā Dās, a Bengalī, who was Rāy Sāl's Munshī and Vakīl, recovered a portion of his master's lands.

After Ray Sal's death, his sons and grandsons lived, according to the custom of the Zamindars of the age, in feud with their neighbours and with each other. Rāja Girdhar, Rāy Sāl's son, is almost the only one that distinguished himself at Court.

From the Akbarnāma we see that Rāy Sāl entered early Akbar's service; for he was present in the battle of Khayarbad (p. 414) in the fight at Sarnal (vide 27), and accompanied the Emperor on his forced march to Patan and Ahmadahad (p. 458, note).

The Pādishāhnāma (I. b., p. 314) mentions another son of Rāy Sāl's, Bhoi Rāi, who was a Commander of Eight Hundred, 400 horse.

The Tabagat says that Ray Sal, was in 1001 a Commander of Two Thousand. Abu 'l-Fazl calls him in this list a Commander of 1250. This mansah is unusual, and Ray Sal stands alone in this class. It does not

¹ He is the same as the Shaykhjī of Jaipūr genealogies. Shaykhjī is said to have been a grandson of Udaikaran, twelfth descendant of Dholā Rāy (p. 348).

² Called in the Matagir , Khandār or Ghandār, "near Amber." Tod mentions a Khandhar near Amber. Vide Geogr. Index, Khandār.

occur in the lists of Grandees in the Pādishāhnāma. From other histories also it is clear that the next higher Mansab after the Hazārī was the Hazār o pānsadī, or Commander of Fifteen Hundred.

XIII. Commanders of One Thousand.

107. Muhibb Ali Khan, son of Mir Khalifa.

This grandee must not be confounded with Muhibb Ali Khan Rahtasi (p. 466).

Muḥibb ʿAlī Khān is the son of Mīr Nizāmu 'd-Dīn ʿAlī Khalīfa, the "pillar of Bābar's government". He had no faith in Humāyūn, and was opposed to his accession. He therefore favoured Mahdī Khwāja, Bābar's sop-in-law. Mahdī, a short time before Bābar's death, assumed a royal deportment. One day, Mīr Khalīfa happened to be in Mahdī's tent; and when he left, Mahdī, thinking himself alone, put his hand to his beard, and exclaimed, "Thou shalt by and by follow me." He had scarcely uttered these words, when he observed Muqīm-i Harawī in the corner of the tent. Muqīm reported these words to Mīr Khalīfa, and upbraided him for giving Mahdī his support. Mīr Khalīfa thereupon changed his mind, forbade people to visit Mahdī, and raised, on Bābar's death, Humāyūn to the throne.

His son Muhibb Alī Khān distinguished himself under Babar and Humayun. His wife was Nahid Begam, daughter of Qasim Koka. Qasim had sacrificed himself for Babar. Babar had fallen into the hands of Abda'llah Khan Uzbak, when Qasim stepped forward and said that he was Babar. He was cut to pieces, and Babar escaped. In 975, Nähid Begam went to Thatha, to see her mother, Haji Begam (daughter of Mirza Muqim, son of Mirzi Zu 'l-Nun). After Qasim Koka's death, Hājī Begam married Mīrzā Ḥasan, and after him, Mīrzā ʿĪsa Tarkhān, king of Sindh (p. 390). Before Nahid Begam reached Thatha Mirza flsa died. His successor, Mīrzā Bāqī, ill-treated Hāji Begam and her daughter. Hājī Begam therefore collected a few desperate men and watched for an opportunity to get hold of M. Baqī's person. The plot was, however, discovered, and Hajī Begam was put into prison. Nahid Begam escaped and went to Bhakkar, where she was well received by Sultan Mahmud, ruler of the District. He persuaded her to ask Akbar to send her husband Muhibb Ali to Bhakkar; and he would give him an army, if he liked to attack Thatha. Nähid Begam did so on coming to Court, and Akbar,

² Father of the Historian Nigam² d-Din Ahmad, author of the Tabaqui-i Akbari. Muqim was then Dissin-i Buyütüt.

in the 16th year (978), called for Muhibb, who had then retired from court-life, and ordered him to proceed to Bhakkar.

Muhibb set out, accompanied by Mujāhid Khān, a son of his daughter. Sacid Khan (No. 25), Governor of Multan, had also received orders to assist Muhibb; but at Sultan Mahmud's request, Muhibb came alone, accompanied by only a few hundred troopers. When he arrived at Bhakkar, Sultan Mahmud said that he had changed his mind: he might go and attack Thatha without his assistance; but he should do so from Jaisalmir, and not from Bhakkar. Muhibb, though he had only 200 troopers, resolved to punish Sultan Mahmud for his treachery, and prepared himself to attack Bhakkar. Mahmud had 10,000 horse assembled near Fort Mathila (ماتعيله). Muhibb attacked them, dispersed them, and took soon after the fort itself. He then fitted out a larger corps, and moved to Bhakkar, where he again defeated Mahmud. The consequence of this victory was that Mubarak Khan, Sultan Mahmud's vazīr, left his master and went with 1,500 horse over to Muhibb. But as Mubarak's son, Beg Oghlū, was accused of having had criminal intercourse with a concubine of Sultan Mahmud, Muhibb wished to kill Beg Oghlu. Mubarak, who had not expected this, now tried to get out of Muhibb's power. Muhibb therefore killed Mubarak, and used the money which fell into his hands to complete his preparations for the siege of Bhakkar.

The siege had lasted three years, when famine and disease drove the inhabitants to despair. The swelling which is peculiar to the district decimated the people; and the bark of the Sirs tree (p. 238), the best remedy for it, could only be had for gold. Sultān Maḥmūd at last sent a message to Akbar, and offered the fort as a present to Prince Salīm, if Muḥibb were recalled, and another grandee sent in his stead, who was to take him (Vaḥmūd) to Court; for he said, he could not trust Muḥibb. Akbar accepted the proposal, and sent Mīr Gesū, Bakāwal-begī, to Bhakkar. Before Mīr Gesū arrived, Sultān Maḥmūd had died. New complications arose on his arrival. Mujāhid Khān just besieged Fort Ganjāba, and his mother Sāmica Begam (Muḥibb's daughter), who felt offended at Akbar's proceedings, dispatched a few ships against Mīr Gesū, and nearly captured him. In the meantime Muqīm-i Harawī also arrived and dissuaded Muhibb from hostilities against Mīr Gesū.

¹ The conquest of Bhakkar is minutely related in the Tārīkh-i Maspāmī (vide No. 329), from which Prof. Dowson in his edition of Elliot's History of India (I, p. 240 ff.) has given extracte. But the 'l-Farl's account contains a few interesting particulars and differences. For Dowson's Mir Kisū, we have to read Mir Gesū. His biography is given in the Masair.
² Generally called Ganjāwa.

The latter now entered Bhakkar (981) and the inhabitants handed the keys over to him.

But neither Muhibb nor Mujāhid felt inclined to leave for the Court, though their stay was fraught with danger. Muhibb therefore entered into an agreement with Mīr Gesū, according to which Mujāhid should be allowed to go to Thatha, and that he himself with his whole family should be accommodated in Loharī. The arrangement had been partially carried out, when Mīr Gesū dispatched a flotilla after Mujāhid. Muhibb upon this withdrew to Māthīla. Sāmisa Begam fortified the environs, and when attacked by Gesū's men, she successfully repulsed them for one day and one night. Next day, Mujāhid arrived by forced marches, defeated the enemy, and occupied the land east of the river.

In the meantime, Akbar had sent Muḥammad Tarsō <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 32) as governor to Bhakkar, and Muḥibh thought it now wise to go to Court.

In the 21st year, Muhibb received an appointment at Court, as a sort of $M\bar{\nu}r$ Arz. As he gave the emperor satisfaction, Akbar, in the 23rd year, allowed him to choose one of four appointments, the office of $M\bar{\nu}r$ Arz, the guard of the Harem, the governorship of a distant province, or the governorship of Dihli. Muhibb chose the last, and entered at once upon his office.

He died as Governor of Dihli in 989.

Muhibb is placed in the Tabaqat among the Commanders of Four Thousand.

Regarding the town of Bhakkar. Abū 'l-Fazl says that it is called in old books Manşūra. Six rivers united pass by it in several branches; two branches lie to the south, one to the north. The town at the latter branch is called Bhakkar. On the second branch another town lies. called Lohari, and near it is the Indus.

Mīrzā Shāh Ḥusayn Arghūn, king of Thatha, had Bhakkar fortified. and appointed as Commander his foster-brother, Sultān Maḥmūd. After Shāh Ḥusayn's death, Sultān Maḥmūd declared himself independent at Bhakkar, and Mīrzā Sīsā Tarkhān (p. 390) at Thatha. Both were often at war with each other. Sultān Maḥmūd is said to have been a cruel man.

As Bhakkar was conquered and annexed before Thatha, it was attached to the Şüba of Multān.

¹ If Prof. Dowson's MSS. agree with his version (1, p. 241), the Tārījā-i Macşāmi would contradict the Abbarnama. Mujābid Khān is again mentioned, i.e., p. 282.

[Muḥibb Alī Khān Rahtasī.]

Like Muhibb SAlī Khān, son of Mīr Khalīfa, Muhibb SAlī Khān Rahtāsī is put in the Tabaqāt among the Commanders of Four Thousand. It is impossible to say why Abū 'l-Fazl had not mentioned him in this list. His name, however, occurs frequently in the Akbarnāma and other histories. As he was a long time Governor of Rahtās in S. Bihār, he is generally called Rahtāsī. This renowned Fort had passed, in 945, into the hands of Sher Shāh. During his reign, as also that of Salīm Shāh, Fath Khān Batnī commanded the Fort. Subsequently it came into the hands of Sulaymān and Junayd-i Karrarānī. The latter appointed Savyid Muḥammad commander. As related above (p. 437), he handed it over to Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80), at the time of the war with Gajpatī and his son Srī Rām (984).

In the same year, Akbar appointed Muḥibb Alī Khān governor of Rahtās, and Shāhbāz Khān made over the Fort to him.

Muḥibb rendered excellent services during the Bengal Military Revolt. His son also, Ḥabīb ʿAlī Khān (vide No. 133), distinguished himself by his bravery, but was killed in a fight with one Yūsuf Miṭṭī, who had collected a band of Afghāns and ravaged S. Bihār. His death affected his father so much that he became temporarily insane.

In the 31st year, two officers having been appointed to each Suba, Muhibb was ordered to join Vazīr Khān (No. 41), Governor of Bengal. In the 33rd year Bihār was given to the Kachhwāhas as jāgīr, and Akbar called Muhibb to Court, intending to make him governor of Multān. But as the emperor was just about to leave for Kashmīr (997), Muḥibb accompanied him.

Soon after entering Kashmir, Muhibb fell ill, and died, on the emperor's return, near the Koh-i Sulaymān. Akbar went to his sick-bed and saw him the moment he died.

In the Akbarnāma (III, p. 245) a place Muhibb Alīpūr is mentioned which Muhibb tounded near Rahtās.

108. Sultān Khwāja, Abdu 'l-Azīm, son of Khwāja Khāwand Dost.

He is also called Sulian Khwaja Naqshbandi.² His father Khawand Dos: was a pupil of Khwaja Abdu 'sh-Shahid, fifth son of Khwaja

¹ Not given on the maps.
2 Naqshband was the epithet of the renowned saint Khwāja Bahāu 'd-Din of Bukhārā, born 728, died 3rd Rabīç I, 791. He was called naqshband, because according to his own words, he and his parents used to weave kamkhābs adorned with figures (naqsh).

SAbdu 'lläh (generally called Khwājagān Khwāja; vide No. 17), son of the renowned saint Khwāja Aāşiru 'd-Dīn Aḥrār (born 806, died 29th Rabis I, 895).

When 'Abdu' 'sh-Shahid came from Samarqand to India, he was well received by Akbar, and got as present the Pargana Chamārī. He remained there some time, but returned in 982 to Samarqand, where he died two years later.

Sultān Khwāja, though neither learned in the sciences nor in tasawwuf (mysticism), had yet much of the saintly philosopher in him. He possessed in a high degree the confidence and the friendship of the emperor. In 984 he was made Mir Hajj, and as such commanded a numerous party of courtiers during the pilgrimage to Makkah. Never before had so influential a party left for Arabia: Sultān Khwāja was to distribute six lākhs of rupees and 12,000 khilsats to the people of Makkah.

On his return in 986 (23rd year) he was made a Commander of One Thousand, and appointed Sadr of the realm (p. 284). He held that office till his death, which took place in the 29th year (992). He was buried outside the Fort of Fathpur, to the north.

His daughter, in the beginning of the 30th year, was married to Prince Danyal.

His son, Mîr Khwaja, was in the 46th year a Commander of 500.

According to Bada, on and Abu 'l-Fazl, Sultan Khwaja belonged to the elect of the "Divine Farth" (vide μ . 214).

109. Khwaja Abdu 'llah, son of Khwaja Abdu 'l-Latif.

His name is not given in the Marair and the Tabaqāt. The Akbarnāma mentions a Khwāja Abdu 'llah who served in the war against Abdu 'llāh Khān Uzbak (No. 14), in Mālwah (971-2), during the last rebellion of Khān Zamān (No. 13), and in the fight at Sarnāl (middle of Sharbān, 980; vide No. 27). He also accompanied the emperor on his forced march to Patan and Ahmadābād Vide the Lucknow Edition of the Akbarnāma, II, 285, 287, 367; III, 24.

110. Khwaja Jahan, Amina of Hirat.

His full name is Khwaja Aminu 'd-Dîn Mahmud of Hirat. The form Amina is modern Îranî, which likes to add a long a to names.

Amin was an excellent accountant and a distinguished calligrapher. He accompanied Humāyūn on his flight to Persia. On the return of the emperor, he was made Bakhshī of Prince Akbar.

On Akbar's accession, Amin was made a Commander of One Thousand, and received the title of Khwāja Jahān. He was generally employed in financial work, and kept the great seal. In the 11th year he was

accused by Muzaffar Khān (No. 37) of want of loyalty shown in the rebellion of Khān Zamān. Amīn was reprimanded, the great seal was taken from him, and he was dismissed to Makkah.

On his return, he was pardoned. In the 19th year (981-2) Akbar besieged Hājīpūr; but Amīn had been compelled by sickness to remain behind at Jaunpūr. When the emperor returned from Hājīpūr over Jaunpūr to Āgra, Amīn followed him. On the march, he was once charged by a mast elephant; his foot got entangled in a tent rope, and he fell to the ground. The accident had an injurious effect on Amīn, convalescent as he was. He died near Lakhnau in the beginning of Shacbān, 982.

According to the chronology of the Tabaqat, his death took place in 983.

A son of Amin's brother is mentioned. His name was Mîrzā Beg. He was a poet and wrote under the takhallus of Shahrī. He withdrew from Court, and died in 989.

Jahangir also conferred the title of Khwaja Jahan on the officer (Dost Muhammad of Kabul) who had served him as Bakhshī while Prince.

111. Tātār Khān, of Khurāsan.

His name is Khwāja Tāhīr Muḥammad. In the 8th year he accompanied Shāh Budāgh Khān (No. 52) and Rūmī Khān (No. 146), and pursued Mīr Shāh Abū 'l-Masālī, who withdrew from Ḥiṣār Fīrūza to Kābul.

He was then made governor of Dihli, where he died in 986.

The Tabaqat says he was for some time Vazīr, and died in 985.

Regarding his enmity with Mulla Nuru'd-Din Tarkhan, vide Bada, oni, III, 199.

112. Hakim Abû 'l-Fath, son of Mulla 'Abdu r-Razzāq of Gilan.

His name is Masīhu 'd-Dīn Abū 'l-Fath. Mawlānā 'Abdu 'r-Razzāq, his father, was a learned and talented man, and held for a long time the post of Nādr of Gīlān. When Gīlān, in 974, came into the possession of Tahmāsp, Aḥmad Khān, ruler of the country was imprisoned, and 'Abdu 'r-Razzāq was tortured to death. Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fath, with his distinguished brothers, Ḥakīm Humām (No. 205) and Ḥakīm Nūru 'd-Dīn,¹ left the country, and arrived, in the 20th year, in India (p. 184). They went to Court and were well received. Abū 'l-Fath, in the 24th year, was made Sadr and Amīn of Bengal. At the outbreak of the military

¹ He is mentioned below among the poets of Akbar's reign. His takhallus is " Qarāri". Their fourth brother, Hakim Lugfa 'llāh, came later from Iran to India, and received through Abū'l-Fath's influence a Command of Two Hundred (No 354). He did not live long.

revolt, he was captured with several other officers (vide Nos. 98 and 159); but he escaped from prison, and went again to Court. He rose higher and higher in Akbar's favour, and possessed an immense influence in state matters and on the emperor himself. Though only a Commander of One Thousand, he is said to have had the power of a Vakīl.

As related above (p. 367), he accompanied Bir Bar on the expedition against the Yüsufzä, is in Sawäd and Bijor. On his return, he was reprimended; for the emperor, correctly enough, ascribed the disastrous issue of the campaign to Abū 'l-Fath's insubordinate conduct towards

Zayn Koka (No. 34).

In the 34th year (997) he went with the emperor to Kashmir and from there to Zābulistān. On the march he fell sick, and died. According to Akbar's order, Khwāja Shams^u d'-Dīn (No. 159) took his body to Ḥasan Abdāl, and buried him in a vault which the Khwāja had made for himself (Tuzuk, p. 48). On his return, the emperor said a prayer at Abū 'l-Fath's tomb.

The great poet ^cUrfi of Shīrāz (vide below, among the poets) is Abū 'l-Fath's encomiast. Fayzī also has composed a fine marşiya, or elegy, on his death.

Abū 'l-Fazl and Badā, on speak of the vast attainments of Abū 'l-Fath. A rare copy of his Munshiyāt is preserved in the Library of the As. Soc. Bengal (No. 780). He had a profound contempt for old Persian poets: thus he called Anwarī diminutively Anwariyak; and of Khaqānī he said, he would give him a box on the ears if he were to come to him to rouse him from his eleepiness, and would send him to Abū 'l-Fazl, who would give him another box, and both would then show him how to correct his verses (Badā, onī, III, 167).

Bada, on I mentions Abū 'l-Fath's influence as one of the chief reasons why Akbar abjured Islam (p. 184).

Abū 'l-Fath had a son, Fatha 'llāh. He was killed by Jahāngīr, as he was an accomplice of Khusraw (Tuzuk. p. 58).

A grandson of Abū 'l-Fath is mentioned in the Pādiskāknāma (II, p. 739). His name is Fath Ziyā; he was a Commander of Nine Hundred, 150 horse.

113. Shaykh Jamal, son of Muhammad Bakhtyar.

His full name is Shaykh Jamāl Bakhtyār, son of Shaykh Muḥammad Bakhtyār. The Bakhtyār clan had possessions in Jalesar, near Dihlī.

Shaykh Jamal's sister held the post of superintendent in Akhar's

¹ His Munchight contain interesting letters addressed by Abū 'l-Fath to his brother Hakim Humam, the Khan Khanan (No. 29), Khwaja Shams (No. 180) and others.

harem, and procured for her brother a command of One Thousand. Jamal's elevation excited much envy. One day, after taking some water, he felt suddenly ill. Rup also, one of Akbar's servants, who had drunk of the same water, fell immediately ill. Akbar had antidotes applied, and both recovered.

In the 25th year he accompanied Ismā'il Quli Khān (No. 46) on his expedition against the rebel Nivabat Khan. Nivabat Khan was the son of Mīr Hāshim of Nīshāpūr; his name was Arab. Before his rebellion he held Jhosī and Arail (Jalālābās) as jāgīr. In the fight which took place near "Kantit, a dependency of Panna," 1 Shaykh Jamal was nearly killed, Niyābat Khān having pulled him from his horse.

In the 26th year he marched with Prince Murad against Mīrzā Muhammad Hakim of Kābul.

Shaykh Jamal drank a great deal of wine. One day he brought such a smell of wine to the audience hall that Akbar felt offended, and excluded him from Court. Jamal therefore squandered and destroyed the things he had with him, and assumed the garb of a jogi. This annoyed the emperor more, and Jamal was put into prison. Soon after, he was pardoned; but he continued his old vice, and brought delirium tremens on himself. In the 30th year, when Akbar set out for Zābulistān, Shaykh, Jamal had to remain sick in Ludhiyana. He died there in the same year (993).

Jamāl has been mentioned above on p. 200.

114. Jasfar Khān, son of Qazāq Khān.

He is generally called in the histories Jasfar Khūn Taklū, Taklū being the name of a Qizilbāsh tribe.

His grandfather, Muhammad Khan Sharafu 'd-Din Oghlu Taklu was at the time of Humāyūn's flight governor of Hirāt and lalla to Sultan Muhammad Mîrza, eldest son of Shah Tahmasp-i Şafawi. the Shah's order, he entertained Humayun in the most hospitable manner. When he died he was succeeded in office by his son Qazaq Khān. But Qazāq showed so little loyalty, that Tahmāsp, in 972, sent

Indian Historians. From the passages where it occurs, it is plain that it has the same meaning as stalig, which so often occurs in Indian Histories, vide p. 383, note 3. [Lals a

tutor.-P.1

¹ The Bibl. Indica edition of Bada, ont (11, 289) says, the fight took place at Gasht (2.15), a dependency of Patna (22), but this is a mistake of the editors. Sir H. Elliot (Beames' Glomary II, 166) has drawn attention to the frequent mistakes which MSS. make in the name of Panna (2.), to which Kantit belonged. There is no doubt, that above, on p. 130, l. 3, and p. 129, note, we have likewise to read Panna, which was famous for its wild elephants.

The word lalls is not in our dictionaries, though it occurs frequently in Persian Historians, as the Memoirs of Tahmasp, the Calamara, etc. I have never seen it used by Indian Historians.

Ma^csüm Beg-i Şafawī against him. Qazāq fell ill, and when the Persians came to Hirāt, he died. Ma^csüm seized all his property.

Jacfar thinking himself no longer safe in Persia, emigrated to India, and was well received by Akbar. He distinguished himself in the war with Khān Zamān, and was made a Khān and a Commander of One Thousand. From Badā,onī (II, p. 161), we see that he had a jāgīr in the Panjāb, and served under Ḥusayn Qulī Khān (No. 24) in the expedition to Nagarkot.

According to the *Tabaqāt*, Ja^cfar's father did not die a natural death, but was killed by the Persians.

Jacfar had been dead for some time in 1001.

115. Shah Fana i, son of Mir Najafi.

His name is not given in the Ma^{*}āṣir and the Tabaqāt. From the Akbarnāma (Lucknow Edition, II, 170, 172) we see that he served in the conquest of Mālwa and took part in the battle near Sārangpūr (beginning of the 6th year; vide No. 120).

The poet Fanā*ī who is mentioned in Badā,onī (III, 296), the Tabaqāt, and the Mir*āt*'l Alam, appears to be the same. He travelled a good deal, was in Makkah, and distinguished himself by personal courage in war. Akbar conferred on him the title of Khān. He was a Chaghtā*ī Turk of noble descent. Once he said, in Akbar's presence, that no one surpassed him in the three C's—chess, combat, composition, when the emperor replied that he had forgotten a fourth, viz. conceit. For some reason, he was imprisoned, and when set at liberty it was found that he had become mad. He ran into the wilderness, and was no more heard of.

116. Asadu 'llah Khan, of Tabriz.

His name is not given in the Marasır and the Tabaqāt. An Asadu 'llāh Khān is mentioned in the Akbarnāma (end of the 12th year). He served under Khān Zamān (No. 13) and commanded the town of Zamāniya (p. 337, l. 14). After Khān Zamān's death, he wished to make over the town to Sulaymān, king of Bengal. But Munsim (No. 11) sent a man to him to convince him of his foolishness, and quickly took possession of the town, so that the Afghāns under their leader, Khān Khānān Lodī, had to withdraw. This incident, however, brought the Afghān's into contact with Munsim; and as they found him a tractable man, a meeting was arranged, which took place in the neighbourhood of Patna. This meeting was of importance, inasmuch as Khān Khānān Lodī, on the part of Sulaymān, promised to read the Khuiba, and to strike coins in

Akbar's name. Bengal therefore enjoyed peace till the death of Sulayman in 980.1

The Akbarnāma mentions another officer of a similar name, Asadu 'llāh Turkmān. He was mentioned above under 61.

117. Sacadat Ali Khan, of Badakhshan.

From the Akbarnāma (III, 295) we see that he was killed in 988 in a fight with the rebel 'Arab Bahādur. Shāhbāz Khān had sent Sa'ādat to a Fort 2 near Rahtās, where he was surprised by 'Arab, defeated and slain. It is said that 'Arab drank some of his blood.

118. Rüpsî Bairāgī, brother of Rāja Bihārī Mal (No. 23).

The $Ma^{\epsilon}\bar{a}_{s}ir$ says that Rüpsī was the son of Rāja Bihārī Mal's brother. He was introduced at Court in the 6th year.

According to the Tabaqāt, he was a commander of Fifteen Hundred. Jaymal, Rūpsī's son, was the first that paid his respects-to Akbar (under 23). He served some time under Sharafu'd-Dīn (No. 17), jāgīrdār of Ajmīr, and was Thānadār of Mīrtha. When Sharaf rebelled, Jaymal went to Court. In the 17th year he served in the manqalā of Khān Kalān (vide No. 129) and accompanied the emperor on the forced march to Patan and Aḥmadābād (p. 458, note). In the 21st year he served in the expedition against Daudā, son of Rāy Surjan (No. 96), and the conquest of Būndī (Muḥarram, 985). Subsequently, he was sent by Akbar on a mission to the grandees of Bengal; but on reaching Chausā, he suddenly died.

Jaymal's wife, a daughter of Moth Rāja (No. 121), refused to mount the funeral pile; but Ūdai Singh, Jaymal's son, wished to force her to become a Satī. Akbar heard of it, and resolved to save her. He arrived just in time. Jagnāth (No. 69) and Rāy Sāl (No. 106) got hold of Ūdai Singh, and took him to Akbar, who imprisoned him.

The story of the heavy armour which Jaymal wore in the fight with Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā, after Akbar's forced march to Patan and Aḥmadābād, is known from Elphinstone's History (Fifth Edition, p. 509, note). Rūpsī was offended, because the emperor ordered Karan (a grandson of Māldeo) to put on Jaymal's armour, and angrily demanded it back. Akbar then put off his own armour Bhagwān Dās, however, thought it necessary to ask the emperor to pardon Rūpsī's rudeness.

The MSS. call the Fort کبست ,کست , کبست , etc. It is said to be a dependency (as

muzāfāt) of Rohtās

¹ According to the Akbarnama, Bada,onf, and the Tabaqat, Sulayman died in 980. In Prinsep's Tables, Stewart's Bengal, etc., 981 is mentioned as the year of his death. The Rigaz 's-Salatin, upon which Stewart's work is based, has also 981; but as this Hitory is quite modern and compiled from the Akbarnama and the Tabaqat, 981 may be looked upon as a mistake. Vide note 3, p. 179.

119. Istimād Khān, Khwājasarā.

He has been mentioned above, p. 13, note. His appointment to Bhakkar was made in 984, when Sayyid Muḥammad Mīr Adl (vide No. 140) had died.

Maqaūd Alī, who killed Istimād, is said to have been blind in one eye. When he explained to Istimād his miserable condition, his master insulted him by saying that someone should put urine into his blind eye. Maqaūd stabbed him on the spot. According to another account, Istimād was murdered by Maqaūd, whilst getting up from bed.

Istimad built Istimadpur, 6 kos from Agra. He had there a villa and a large tank. He also lies buried there.

120. Bas Bahadur, son of Shajawal Khan [Sur].

Abū 'l-Fazl says below (Third Book, Ṣūba of Mālwa) that his real name was Bāyazīd.

Bāz Bahādūr's father was Shujāsat Khān Sūr, who is generally called in histories Shajāwal, or Sajāwal, Khān. The large town Shajāwalpūr, or Sajāwalpūr, in Mālwa bears his name; its original name. Shujāsatpūr, which Abū 'l-Fazl gives below under Sarkār Sārangpūr, Mālwa, appears to be no longer in use.

When Sher Shāh took Mālwa from Mallū (Qādir Khān), Shujāsat Khān was in Sher Shāh's service, and was made by him governor of the conquered province. In Salīm's reign, he returned to Court; but feeling dissatisfied with the king, he returned to Mālwa. Salīm dispatched a corps after him, and Shujāsat fled to the Rāja of Dūngarpūr. Some time after, he surrendered to Salīm, and remained with him, Mālwa being divided among the courtiers. Under Adlī, he was again appointed to Mālwa. After a short time, he prepared himself to assume the royal purple, but died (962).

Baz Bahādur succeeded him. He defeated several opponents, and declared himself, in 963, king of Mālwa. His expedition to Gadhā was not successful, Rānī Dūrgāwatī (p. 397) having repulsed him. He now gave himself up to a life of ease and luxury: his singers and dancing women were soon famous throughout Hindūstān, especially the beautiful Rūpmatī, who is even nowadays remembered.

¹ The trigonometrical maps have a village of the name of Istimādpūr Mandra about 9 miles E. of Āgra, in the Pargana of Fathābād, near Samūgar, where Awrangzīb defeated Dārā Shikoh.

^{*}A few MSS. have Shujās Khān for Shujās 1 Khān, just as one MS. read Shujās pār for Shujās atpār. Elphinstone also has Shujās (p. 501, note 1). The word "Shujās at "should be spelled "Shujās t", whilst sign is pronounced Shujā; but the former also is pronounced with a u over all India.

In the very beginning of the 6th year of Akbar's reign Adham Koka (No. 19) was ordered to conquer Malwa. Pir Muhammad Khan (No. 20) Abdu '-llah Khān Uzbak (No. 14), Qiyā Khān Gung (No. 33), Shāh Muhammad Khān of Qandahār (No. 95) and his son Sādil Khān (No. 125), Sādiq Khān (No. 43), Ḥabīb Alī Khān (No. 133), Ḥaydar Muḥammad Khān (No. 66), Muḥammad Qulī Toqbā i (No. 129), Qiyā Khān (No. 184), Mīrak Bahādur (No. 208), Samānjī Khān (No. 147), Pāyanda Muḥammad Mughul (No. 68), Mihr SAlī Sildoz (No. 130), Shah Fanasi (No. 115), and other grandees accompanied Adham. They met Baz Bahadur three kos from Särangpür and defeated him (middle of 968).1 Bäz Bahädur fled to the jungles on the Khandesh frontier. He collected a new army, but was defeated by Pîr Muhammad, who had succeeded Adham. He then fled to Mīrān Shāh of Khāndesh, who assisted him with troops. Pīr Muhammad in the meantime conquered Bijagadh, threw himself suddenly upon Burhanpur, sacked the town, and allowed an indiscriminate slaughter of the inhabitants. B. B. marched against him, and defeated him. As related above, Pir Muhammad fled, and was drowned in the Narbadā. The imperialists thereupon got discouraged, and the jāgīrdārs left for Agra, so that Baz Bahadur without opposition re-occupied Malwa.

In the 7th year Akbar sent Abdu'-llah Khan Uzbak to Malwa. Before he arrived, B. B. fled without attempting resistance, and withdrew to the hills. He lived for some time with Bharji, Zamindar of Baglana, and tried to obtain assistance from Chingiz Khan and Sher Khan of Gujrāt, and lastly even from the Nizāmu 'l-Mulk. Meeting nowhere with support, B. B. went to Rana Udai Singh. He then appears to have thrown himself on Akbar's generosity; for in the 15th year Akbar ordered Hasan Khan Khizanchi to conduct Baz Bahadur to Court. He now entered the emperor's service, and was made on his arrival a commander of One Thousand. Some time later, he was promoted to a mansab of Two Thousand. He had been dead for some time in 1001.

Baz Bahadur and his Rüpmati lie buried together. Their tomb stands in the middle of a tank in Ujjain. Vide No. 188.

121. Ūdai Singh, Moth Rāja, son of Rāy Māldeo.

The Tabagat says that he was in 1001 a Commander of Fifteen Hundred and ruler of Jodhpür.

¹ The 6th year of Akbar's reign commences on the 24th Jumāda II, 968, and the battle of Sărangpür took place in the very beginning of the 6th year.
² This officer was often employed on missions. In the beginning of Akbar's reign, he was sent to Mukund Deo, the last Gajpatī of Orlsā.
In 981 he was at Kambhā,it, which he left on the approach of Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mirsā, and withdrew to Aḥmadābād to M. ÇAzīz Koka (No. 21).

Akbar, in 994, married Udai Singh's daughter to Jahangir. On p. 8 of the Tuzuk, Jahangir says that her name was Jagat (fosa ini. She was the mother of Prince Khurram (Shahjahan); vide p. 323, l. 18.

Mīrzā Hādī in his preface to Jahāngīr's Memoirs (the Tuzuk-i Jahāngīrī) has the following remark (p. 6): "Rāja Udai Sing is the son of Rāja Māldeo, who was so powerful that he kept up an army of 80,000 horse. Although Rānā Sānkā, who fought with Firdaws-makānī (Bābar) possessed much power, Māldeo was superior to him in the number of soldiers and the extent of territory; hence he was always victorious."

From the Akbarnama (Lucknow Edition, III, p. 183) we see that Moth Rāja accompanied in the 22nd year Ṣādiq Khān (No. 43), Rāja Askaran, and Ulugh Khān Ḥabahi (No. 135) on the expedition against Madhukar (26th Rabic I, 985). In the 28th year he served in the Gujrāt war with Muzastar (Akbarnāma, III, 422).

Another daughter of Moth Raja was married to Jaymal, son of Rüpsī (No. 118).

122. Khwaja Shah Mansur, of Shiraz.

Mansur was at first mushrif (accountant) of the Khushbū-Khāna (Perfume Department). Differences which he had with Muzaffar Kran (No. 37) induced Sh. Mansur to go to Jaunpur, where Khan Zaman made him his Diwan. Subsequently he served Muncim Khan Khanan in the same capacity. After Munsim's death he worked for a short time with Todar Mal in financial matters. In the 21st year (983), he was appointed by the emperor Vazīr. He worked up all arrears, and applied himself to reform the means of collecting the land revenue. The custom then was to depend on experienced assessors for the annual rate of the tax; but this method was now found inconvenient, because the empire had become greater; for at different places the assessment differed, and people and soldiers suffered losses. For this reason, the Khwaja in the 24th year, prepared a new rent roll, based upon the preceding Duhsāla roll, and upon the prices current in the 24th year. The empire itself, which did not then include Orisa, Thathah, Kashmir, and the Dakhin, was divided into 12 parts, called Subas; and to each suba a sepulsalar (Military Governor), a Diwan, a Bakhshi (Military Paymaster and Secretary), a Mir Adl, a Sadr, a Kotwāl, a Mīr Bahr, and a Wāgisa Nawīs (p. 268) were to be appointed. The strictness which the Khwaja d.splayed towards jagirholders led to serious results. In the 25th year he lowered the value of the jagirs of the grandees in Bengal by one-fourth of their former value, and those in Bihar by one-fifth. As Rengal and South Bihar were then not completely subjugated, and the Afghans still mustered large forces

in Eastern and Southern Bengal, in Orisa, and along the Western frontier of Bengal, Mansur's rigour was impolitic; for Akbar's officers looked upon the old jägir emoluments as very moderate rewards for their readiness to fight the Afghans. Akbar some time before, in consideration of the troubled state of both provinces, and the notorious climate of Bengal, had doubled the allowances of Bengal officers and increased by 50 per cent the emoluments of those in Bihar. This Mangur cut down: he allowed Bengal officers an increase of 50, and Bihar officers an increase of only 20 per cent. He then wrote to Muzaffar to enforce the new arrangements. But the dissatisfaction was also increased by the innovations of the emperor in religious matters, and his interference with Suyurghāl tenures brought matters to a crisis. The jagir-holders in Jaunpur, Bihar, and Bengal rebelled. That religious excitement was one of the causes of this military revolt, which soon after was confined to Bengal, is best seen from the fact that not a single Hindu was on the side of the rebels.1 Todar Mal tried to prevent the outbreak by reporting Mansur and charging him with unnecessary harshness shown especially towards Massum Khān i Farankhūdī (No. 157) and Muḥammad Tarsō (No. 32). Akbar deposed Manşūr and appointed temporarily Shāh Qulī Maḥram (No. 45); but having satisfied himself of the justice of Manşūr's demands, he reinstated him in his office, to the great anxiety of the courtiers.

In the same year, Mirza Muhammad Hakim, at Massum Khan-i Kābulī's instigation, threatened to invade the Panjāb, and Akbar prepared to leave for the north. Manşūr's enemies charged him with want of loyalty, and showed Akbar letters in the handwriting of Mirza M. Hakîm's Munshī, addressed to Manşūr. Accidentally Malik Sānī Ḥakīm's Diwan, who had the title of Vazīr Khān, left his master, and paid his

of Fifteen Hundred under Shāhjahān, who bestowed upon him the title of Asad Khān. He died in the 12th year of Shāhjahān's reign. His son, Qubād, was a commander of Five

¹ The chief rebel was Maçsüm Khān-i Kābulī, who has been frequently mentioned above (pp. 198, 365, 377, 438, etc.). He was a Turbatī Sayyid (vide p. 373, No. 37). His uncle, Mīrzā ÇAzīz, had been Vazīr under Humāyūn, and Maçsüm himself was the foster-brother (koku) of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother. Having been involved in quarrels with Khwāja Ḥasan Naqshbandī (p. 339) who had married the widow of Mīr Shāh Abu 'l-Maçsü, Maçsüm, in the 20th year, went to Akbar and was made a commander of Five Hundred. He distinguished himself in the war with the Afghāns, and was wounded in a fight with Kālā Pahār. Por his bravery he was made a commander of the Thousand. In the 24th weer hereeived Orini actually when Marsür and Musafar's of One Thousand. In the 24th year, he received Orisa as tuyül, when Mansür and Mugaffar's strictness drove him into rebellion. Historians often call him Massüm Khān- SAgī, "Massüm Khān, the rebel". His fights with Muzaffar and Shāhbāz have been mentioned above. He was at last driven to Bhātī (p. 365, note), where he died in the 44th year (1007). His so: Shujās-i Kābulī was under Jahāngir Thānadār of Ghaznīn, and a commander of Fifteen Hundrad under Shāhbāz has be heatened upon him about the state of the sta

The editors of the Pādishāhnāma, Ed. Bibl. Indica, have entered Shujā's name twice, I, b. 304, and p. 308. As he was a Commander of Fifteen Hundred, the second entry is wrong. [Regarding his death vide Akbarn. III, 810.-B.]

respects to Akbar at Sonpat. As he put up with Manşūr, new suspicions got afloat. Several words which Manṣūr was said to have uttered, were construed into treason, and letters which he was said to have written to M. M. Hakīm were sent to Akbar. Another letter from Sharaf Beg, his collector, was likewise handed to the emperor, in which it was said that Farīdūn Khān (maternal uncle to M. M. Hakīm) had presented the Beg to the Mīrzā. Akbar, though still doubtful, at the urgent solicitations of the grandees, gave orders to arrest Manṣūr; he should remain in arrest till any of the grandees should stand bail for him; but as none dared to come forward, they ordered the Khidmat Rāy (p. 262) to hang Manṣūr on a tree near Sarā Koṭ Khachwa (beginning of 989).¹

This foul murder gave the nobles the greatest satisfaction. But when Akbar came to Kābul (10th Rajab 989) he examined into Manṣūr's treasonable correspondence. It was then found, to the sorrow of Akbar, that every letter which had been shown to him had been a forgery, and that Manṣūr was not guilty of even one of the malicious charges preferred against him.

It is said, though at the time it was perhaps not proved, that Karamu'llah, brother of Shāhbāz Khān-i Kambū (p. 410, l. 23), had written the letters, chiefly at the instigation of Paja Todar Mai

Manşūr had been Vazīr for lour years.

123. Qutlugh Qadam Khān, Ākhta-begi.2

The Turkish word quilugh means nubārak, and qadam-i mubārak, is the name given to stones bearing the impression of the foot of the Prophet. The Tabaqāt calls him Quilū instead of Quilugh, which confirms the conjecture in note 2, p. 383.

Qutlugh Qadam Khān was at first in the service of Mīrzā Kāmrān, and then went over to Humāyūn.

In the 9th year of Akbar's reign, he assisted in the capture of Khwāja Mu^cazzam, and served in the same year in Mālwa against ^cAbdu 'llah Khān Uzbak (No. 14). In the battle of Khayrābād he held a command in the van.

is wrongly called the 28th year.

* Akhla means " a gelding , and dikta-ber, the officer in charge of the geldings (ride No. 66). This title is not to be confounded with the much higher title Ashest, from

the Turkish &, a horse; wide p. 145, Atin 53.

So the Athernama and English, Kot Khachwa is a village on the road from Karnal to Ludhiyana, Lat. 30° 17'; Long 76° 53. In the Ed. Bibl. India of Bada,oni (II, pp. 293, 294) the place is called and a few lines lower, probably by mistake. Sharaf Beg, moreover, is called Musharvaf Beg, and a few lines lower, again Staraf Beg. Bada,oni asys nothing of Todar Mal's intrigues. Mansur was hanged in the very beginning of 989, i.e. the end of the 25th year. The 26th year of Akbar's reign commences on the 5th Safar 980 (the Lucknow Edition III, 325, has wrongly 990); and the 27th year commences 15th Safar 990, which in the Bibl. Indica Edit. of Bada,oni (II, p. 300, l. 2 from below) is wrongly called the 28th year.

In the 19th year, he was attached to Muncim's Bengal corps, and was present in the battle of Takaroï (p. 406). He was no longer alive in 1001.

His son, Asad (?) Khān, served under Prince Murād in the Dakhin, and was killed by a cannon ball before Dawlatābād.

124. 'SAlī Qulī Khān, Indarābī.

Indarāb is a town of Southern Qunduz. A straight line drawn from Kābul northwards to Tālīkhān passes nearly through it.

SAlī Qulī had risen under Humāyūn. When the Emperor left Kābul for Qandahār to inquire into the rumours regarding Bayrām's rebellion, he appointed SAlī Qulī governor of Kābul. Later, he went with Humāyūn to India.

In the first year of Akbar's reign, he served under Ali Quli Khān Zamān (No. 13) in the war with Hemū, and accompanied afterwards Khizr Khwāja (p. 394, note 1) on his unsuccessful expedition against Sikandar Sūr.

In the fifth year, he served under Atga Khān (No. 15), and commanded the van in the fight in which Bayram was defeated.

The Tabaqat says that he was commander of Two Thousand, and was dead in 1001.

125. SAdil Khan, son of Shah Muhammad-i Qalati (No. 95).

He served under Adham Khān (No. 19) in Mālwa, and took a part in the pursuit of Abdu 'l-Khān Uzbak. Later, he assisted Muḥammad Qulī Khān Barlās (No. 31) on his expedition against Iskandar Uzbak, and was present at the siege of Chītor (p. 397). In the beginning of the 13th year (Ramaṣān, 975), Akbar was on a tiger-hunt between Ajmīr and Alwar. Adil, who was at that time mustāb, i.e., under reprimand and not allowed to attend the Darbārs, had followed the party. A tiger suddenly made its appearance, and was on the point of attacking the Emperor, when Adil rushed forward and engaged the tiger, putting his left hand into its mouth, and stabbing, with the dagger in his right, at the animal's face. The tiger got hold of both hands of his opponent, when others came up and killed the brute with swords. In the struggle Adil received accidentally a sword cut.

He died of his wounds after suffering for four months. In relating his end, Abū 'l-Fazl says that the wrath of heaven overtook him. He had been in love (tacalluq-i khāṭir) with the wife of his father's Dīwān; but he was not successful in his advances. His father remonstrated with him, and 'Adil in his anger struck at him with a sword.

Qiyam Khan, brother of 'Adil Khan. Jahangir made him a Khan. He served the Emperor as Qarawalbegi (officer in charge of the drivers).

126. Khwāja Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dīn [ʿAlī Khān, Āṣaf Khān II] of Qazwīn. He is not to be confounded with Mīr Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dīn ʿAlī Khān (No. 161). For his genealogy, vide p. 398. The family traced its descent to the renowned saint Shaykh Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dīn Suhrawardī,¹ a descendant of Abū Bakr, the Khalīfa.

Khwāja Ghiyās was a man of learning. On his arrival from Persia in India, he was made a Bakhshī by Akbar In 981, he distinguished himself in the Gujrātī war, and received the title of Aşaf Khān. He was also made Bakhshī of Gujrāt, and served as such under M. Azīz Koka (No. 21). In the 21st year, he was ordered to go with several other Amīr's to Idar, "to clear this dependency of Gujrāt of the rubbish of rebellion." The expedition was directed against Zamīndār Narā'in Dās Rāthor. In the fight which ensued, the van of the Imperialists gave way, and Muqīm-i Naqshbandī, the leader, was killed. The day was almost lost, when Āṣaf, with the troops of the wings, pressed forward and routed the enemies.

In the 23rd year, Akbar sent him to Mālwa and Gujrāt, to arrange with Shihāb <u>Khān</u> (No. 26) regarding the introduction of the *Dāgh* (pp. 252, 265).

He died in Gujrāt in 989.

Mīrzā Nūr* 'd-Dīn, his son After the capture of Khusraw (p. 455) Jahangir made Asaf Khan III (No. 98), Nuru 'd-Din s uncle, responsible for his safety. Nuru 'd-Din, who was an adherent of the Prince, found thus means to visit Khusraw and told him that at the first opportunity he would let him escape. But soon after, Khusraw was placed under the charge of Istibar Khan, one of Jahangir's eunuchs, and Nüru 'd-Din had to alter his plans. He bribed a Hindu, who had access to Khusraw, and sent the Prince a list of the names of such grandees as favoured his cause. In four or six months, the number and increased to about 400. and arrangements were made to murder Janangir on the road. But it happened that one of the conspirators got offended, and revealed the plot to Khwaja Waisi, Diwan of Prince Khurram, who at once reported matters to his august father. Nūru 'd-Din and Muhammad Sharif, son of Istimadu 'd-Dawla, and several others were impaled. The paper containing the list of names was also brought up; but Jahangir, at the request of Khan Jahan Lodi, threw it into the fire without having read it; "else many others would have been killed."

Author of the CAudrife 'l Macanf. He died at Baghdad in 632. His uncle CAbde 'l-Najfh (died 563) was also a famous saint. Wustenfeld's Jacut, III. p. 203. Nufhāte 'l-Uns, pp. 478, 544. Safinate 'l-Agfiyà (Lahore Edicion), pp. 631, 683.

127. Farrukh Husayn Khān, son of Qāsim Husayn Khān. His father was an Uzbak of Khwārazm; his mother was a sister of Sultan Husayn Mīrzā.

The Ma²āṣir and the Tabaqāt say nothing about him. A brother of his is mentioned in the Akbarnāma (II, p. 335).

128. Mucina 'd-Din [Ahmad] Khan-i Farankhudi.1

Mu^cin joined Humāyūn's army when the Emperor left Kābul for Hindūstān. In the 6th year of Akbar's reign, he was made Governor of Agra during the absence of the Emperor in the Eastern provinces. In the 7th year, when 'Abdu 'llah Khān Uzbak was ordered to re-conquer Mālwa, Mu^cin was made a Khān. After the conquest, he divided the province into khāliṣa and jāgīr lands, and performed this delicate office to Akbar's satisfaction. In the 18th year, Mu^cin was attached to Mun^cim's Bihār corps. He then accompanied the Khān Khānān to Bengal, was present in the battle of Takaroī, and died of fever at Gaur (vide p. 407).

The Tabaqat merely says of him that he had been for some time Mir

Sāmān.

For his son, vide No. 157.

Badā, onī (III, p. 157) mentions a Jāmi^c Masjid built by Mu^cin at Agra.

129. Muhammad Qulī Toqbā.

Togbāsi is the name of a Chaghtasi clan.

Muḥammad Quli served under Adham <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 19) in the conquest of Mālwa (end of the 5th and beginning of the 6th year), and in the pursuit of Mīrzā Sharafu 'd-Dīn (No. 17) in the 8th year. In the 17th year (980) he served in the manqalā of the <u>Kh</u>ān-i Kalān (No. 16). In the 20th

Many MSS. have Faranjūdi. The MuSjam mentions a place غرنكد, Farankad, which is said to be near Samarqand.

There are serious discrepancies in the MSS. regarding the day and year of Prince Dānyal's birth. The Tuzuk (Sayyid Ahmad's edition, p. 15) has the 10th Jumāda I, 979, which has been given above on p. 309. Badd,oni (II, p. 139) has the 2nd Jumāda I, 980. The Atbarnama has the 2nd Jumāda I, and relates the event as having taken place in 980. The MSS. of the Sawānik also place the event in 980, but say that Dānyāl was been on the 2nd Impāda I.

born on the 2nd Jumāde I, 979.

On the 6th Zī QaSda, 980, the 18th year of Akbar's reign commences. After the Sīd i Qurbān (10th Žī Ḥijjah, 980) Akbar returned over Patan and Jālor to Āgra, which he reached on the 2nd Safar, 981. After this, Muhammad Ḥusayn Mirzā invaded Gujrāt, and took Bahroneh and Kambhā,it, but was defeated by Qulij Khān and S. Ḥāmid (No. 78).

Akbar left Fathpür Sikri for Gujrät, in the 20th Safar 980 (17th year), passed over Sangänir (8 miles south of Jaipür), and arrived on the 15th Rabic 1, at Ajmir. On the 2nd Rabic II, 980, he ordered the Khān-i Kalān (No. 16) to march in advance (manqalā), and left Ajmir on the 22nd Rabic II. Shortly before his arrival at Nāgor on the 9th Jumāda I, Akbar heard that Prince Dānyāl had been born at Ajmir on the 2nd Jumāda I, 980. He reached Patan on the 1st Rajab, 980, and Ahmadābād on the 14th of the same month. In the middle of Shacbān, 980, the fight at Sarnāl took place with Ibrāhim Husayn Mīrsā. On the 25th Shacbān, Akbar reached Baroda, and arrived at Sūrat on the 7th Ramaṣān, 980. On the 18th Ramaṣān, 980, Mīrzā cāzīc defeated Muhammad Ḥusayn Mīrsā and the Fūlādīs at Patar. Sūrat surrendered on the 23rd Shawwāl.

year, he was attached to Mun'im's corps, and was present in the battle of Takarol, and the pursuit of the Afghāns to Bhadrak (p. 375).

130. Mihr SAli Khan Sildoz.

Sildoz is the name of a Chaghtā*ī clan. According to the Tabaqāt, he was at first in Bayrām's service. In the end of 966, Akbar sent him to Fort Chanādh (Chunār) which Jamāl Khān, the Afghān Commander, wished to hand over to the Imperialists for a consideration (vide Badā, onī II, 32). Akbar offered him five parganss near Jaunpūr, but Jamāl did not deem the offer sufficiently advantageous, and delayed Mihr Alī with vain promises. Mihr Alī at last left suddenly for Āgra.

On his journey to Chanādh, he had been accompanied by the Historian Badā, onī, then a young man, to whom he had given lodging in his house at Āgra. On his return from the Fort, Badā, onī nearly lost his life during a sudden storm whilst on the river. Badā, onī calls him Mihr Alī Beg,

and says that he was later made a Khan and Governor of Chitor.

He served under Adham Khān (No. 10) in Mālwa, and in the Gujrāt wars of 980 and 981. In the 22nd year, Akbar was on a hunting tour near Hisar, and honoured him by being his guest. In the following year, he attended Sakīna Bānū Begum, whom Akbar sent to Kābul to advise his brother, Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm. In the 25th year, he served under Todar Mal against the rebel SArab.

The Tabaqat makes him a Commander of Fifteen Hundred, and says

that he was dead in 1001.

Khwaja Ibrahim-i Badakhshi.

He is not mentioned in the $Ma^a\bar{a}_{S}ir$ and the $Tabaq\bar{a}t$. From the Akbarnāma (II, p. 207) we see that he was Jāgīrdār of Sakit (in the Mainpūrī District). Near this town there were eight villages inhabited by robbers. In consequence of numerous complaints, Akbar resolved to surprise the dacoits. A great number were killed, and about one thousand of them were burnt in dwellings in which they had fortified themselves. Akbar exposed himself to great dangers; no less than seven

lightiyars 'l-Mulk also appeared and marched upon Armadabad. Muhammad Husayn Mirza joined h:m. Both berieget Ahmadabad. Akbar now resolved again to go to (injrat. This is the famous nine days' march (24th Rabīt II, 98), to 4th Jumāda I, 981): wide p. 458, note. Muhammad Husayn Mirzā was captured and killed, apparently without the order of the Emperor. Illigitiyar was also killed. Akbar then returns, and arrives, after an absence of forty-three days, at Fathpūr Sikri, 8th Jumāda II, 981.

It has been above remarked (p. 406, l. 24) that the Lucknow Edition of the Asbernance is not a trustworthy edition. An extraordinary error occurs in the events of the Fith year. The editors have divided the work into three, instead of two parts—the Asin-i Akbari, the third part—and have ended their second volume with the birth of Dinjell (2in, Jumida I, 980). Their third volume opens with the beginning of the 18th year (6th Zi Qas-da, 980). Hence they have muitted the important events which took place between those two days, viz., the conquest of Chirist and the first defeat of the Mirais.

arrows struck in his shield, and his elephant fell with one foot in a grain pit, which threw the officer who was seated behind him with much force upon him. The fight chiefly took place in a village called in the MSS. وبرنكه or برنكه.

The Tabaqāt mentions a Sultān Ibrāhīm of Awba (near Hirāt) among Akbar's grandees. His name is not given in the Ā*īn. He was the maternal uncle of Nizamu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad, author of the Tabaqāt. He

conquered Kamā, on and the Dāman-i Koh.

132. Salīm Khān Kākar.3

Several MSS. of the Asin call him Salim Khān Kūkar Alī. The Akbarnāma calls him Salīm Khān Kākar, or merely Salīm Khān, or Salīm Khān Sirmūr. The Tabaqāt has Salīm Khān Sirmūr Afghān.

He served in the beginning of the 6th year in the conquest of Mālwa, and later under Mu^cizz^u 'l-Mulk (No. 61) in Audh, and was present in the battle of Khayrābād. In 980, he took a part in the fight of Sarnāl. He then served in Bengal, and was jāgīrdar of Tājpūr. In the 28th year, he accompanied Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) to Bhāṭī. As there were no garrisons left in Upper Bengal, Vazīr Khān having gone to the frontier of Oṛīsā, Jabārī (vide p. 400, note 2) made an inroad from Kūch Bihār into Ghorāghāt, and took Tājpūr from Salīm's men, and Pūrni,a from the relations of Tarsō Khān (No. 32). Jabārī moved as far as Ṭānḍa. The Kotwāl, Ḥasan ʿAlī, was sick, and Shaykh Allah Bakhsh Ṣadr fled in precipitate haste. Fortunately, Shaykh Farīd arrived, and Jabārī withdrew to Tājpūr. In the 32nd year, Salīm served under Maṭlab Khān (No. 83) against the Tārīkīs, and shortly after, in the 33rd year, under Ṣadīq Khān against the same Afghān rebels.

He was no longer alive in 1001.

133. Habīb SAlī Khān.

He is not to be confounded with the Ḥabīb Alī Khān mentioned on p. 466.

Habīb was at first in the service of Bayrām Khān. In the third year when Akbar had marched to Āgra, he ordered Habīb to assist Qiyā Khān (No. 33) in the conquest. Towards the end of the fourth year, Akbar sent him against Rantanbhūr. This fort had formerly been in the possession of the Afghāns, and Salīm Shāh had appointed Jhujhār Khān governor. On Akbar's accession, Jh. saw that he would not be able to hold it against the Imperialists, and handed it over to Rāy Surjan (No. 96), who was then in the service of Rāna Ūdai Singh. But Ḥabīb had to raise the siege.

^{[1} Parokh, nineteen kee south of Siyalket.—B.]
[2 Should be Orman.—B.]

Abū 'l-Fazi attributes this want of success partly to fate, partly to the confusion which Bayram's fall produced.

In the 6th year (968) he served under Adham (No. 19), in Malwa. According to the *Tabaqāt*, he died in 970.

134. Jagmāl, younger brother of Rāja Bihārī Mal (No. 23).

He must not be confounded with No. 218. Jagmāl was mentioned on p. 348. In the 8th year, he was made governor of Mīrtha. In the 18th year, when Akbar marched to Patan and Ahmadābād, he was put in command of the great camp.

His son Kangār. He generally lived with his uncle Rāja Bihārī Mal at Court. When Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn Mīrzā threatened to invade the Āgra District, he was ordered by the Rāja to go to Dihlī. In the 18th year, he joined Akbar at Patan. In the 21st year, he accompanied Mān Singh's expedition against Rānā Partāb. Later, he served in Bengal, chiefly under Shahbāz Khān (No. 80). When Shahbāz returned unsuccessfully from Bhātī (p. 438) Kangār, Sayyid ʿAbdu 'llah Khān (No. 189), Rāja Gopāl Mīrzāda ʿAlī (No. 152) met a detachment of rebels, and mistook them for their own men. Though surprised, the Imperialists held their ground and killed Nawrūz Beg Qāqshāl, the leader. They then joined Shāhbāz, and arrived after a march of eight days at Sherpūr Mūrcha.

According to the *Tabaqāt*, Kangār was in 1001 a Commander of Two Thousand. The phraseology of some MSS implies that he was no longer alive in 1001.

135 **Ulugh Khán Ḥabshī**, formerly a slave of Sultān Maḥmūd of Gujrāt.

Ulugh Khān is Turkish for the Persian Khān-i Kulān (the great Khāu).

He rose to dignity under Maḥmūd of Gujrāt. The word Ḥabshī, for which MSS. often have Badakhshī, implies that he was of Abyssinian extraction, or a eunuch. In the 17th year, when Akbar entered for the first time Aḥmadābād, he was one of the first Gujrātī nobles that joined the Imperialists.

In the 22nd year, he served with distinction under Şādiq (No. 43) against Rāja Madhukar Bundela, Zamindār of Ūndcha In the 24th year, he followed Ṣādiq who had been ordered to assist Rāja Todar Mal on his expedition against the rebel Arab (Niyābat Khān) in Bihār. He commanded the left wing in the fight in which Khabīta (p. 383, note 1) was killed.

He died in Bengal.

136. Maqsūd Alī Kor.

The Tabaqāt says that Maqṣūd was at first in Bayrām Khān's service. He had been dead for a long time in 1001.

From the Akbarnāma (II, 96) we see that he served under Qiyā Khān (No. 33) in the conquest of Gwāliyār.

137. Qabūl Khān.

From the Akbarnāma (II, p. 450, last event of the 15th year of Akbar's reign) we see that Qabūl Khān had conquered the District of Bhimbar on the Kashmīr frontier. One of the Zamīndārs of the District, named Jalāl, made his submission, and obtained by flattery a great power over Qabūl, who is said to have been a good-hearted Turk. Jalāl not only managed on various pretexts to send away Qabūl's troops, but also his son Yādgār Ḥusayn (No. 338), to Nawshahra. The Zamīndārs of the latter place opposed Yādgār, and wounded him in a fight. Exhausted and wounded as he was, Yādgār managed to escape and took refuge with a friendly Zamīndār. About the same time Jalāl collected his men and fell over Qabūl, and after a short struggle killed him (5th Ramaṣān, 978).

Akbar ordered Khān Jahān to invade the District. The lands of the rebellious Zamīndārs were devastated and summary revenge was taken on the ringleaders.

Yādgār Ḥusayn recovered from his wounds. He is mentioned below among the commanders of Two Thousand.

The Akbarnāma mentions another Qabūl Khān among the officers who served in the Afghān war in Bengal under Mun's im Khān Khānān. He was present in the battle of Takaro, ī and pursued the Afghāns under Todar Mal to Bhadrak (p. 406).

Neither of the two Qabul Khāns is mentioned in the Tabaqāt and the Matāgir.

Commanders of Nine Hundred.1

138. Küchak 'Alī Khān-i Kolābī.

Kolāb is the name of a town and a district in Badakhshān, long. 70°, lat. 30°. The District of Kolāb lies north of Badakhshān Proper, from which it is separated by the 'Āmū (Oxus); but it was looked upon as part of the kingdom of Badakhshān. Hence Kūchak 'Alī is often called in the Akbarnāma Kūchak 'Alī Khān-i Badakhshī.

 $^{^1}$ Not all MSS. of the \tilde{A}^4 in have these words; they count the officers from No. 138 to 175 amongst the Hazāris. But the best MSS, have this manyab. In the lists of grandees in the $P\ddot{a}d\dot{c}sh\ddot{a}ha\ddot{a}ma$ also the manyab of Nine Hundred occurs.

He served under Mun'im Khān Zamān, and was present at the reconciliation of Baksar (Buxar) in the 10th year.

He also served under Muncim Khān in Bengal, and held a command in the battle of Takaro,ī (p. 406).

His sons are mentioned below, No. 148 and No. 380.

139. Sabdal Khān, Sumbul, a slave of Humāyūn.

140. Sayyid Muhammad, Mīr Adl, a Sayyid of Amroha.

Amroha, formerly a much more important town than now, belongs to the Sarkār of Sambal. Its Sayyids belonged to old families of great repute throughout India. Mīr Sayyid Muḥammad had studied the Ḥadīṣ and law under the best teachers of the age. The father of the Historian Badā, onī was his friend. Akbar made Sayyid Muḥammad, Mīr ʿAdl. When the learned were banished from Court (ikhrāj i ʿulamā) he was made governor of Bhakkar. He died there two years later in 934 (vide Nos. 119 and 251).

From the Akbarnāma, we see that S. Muḥammad with other Amroha Sayyids served, in the 18th year, under S. Maḥmūd of Bārha in the expedition against Rāja Madhukar.

He advised the Historian Badā, on I to enter the military service of the emperor, instead of trusting to learning and to precarious Madadimasāsh tenures, an advice resembling that of Abdu 'l-Chaffar (vide No. 99, p. 454). S. Muḥammad's sons were certainly all in the army; vide Nos. 251, 297, 363.

141. Bazawi Khan, Mirza Mirak, a Razawi Sayyid of Mashhad.

He was a companion of Khān Zamān (No. 13). In the 10th year, he went to the camp of the Imperialists to obtain pardon for his master. When in the 12th year Khān Zamān again rebelled, Mīrzā Mīrak was placed under the charge of Khān Bāqī Khān (No. 60), but field from his custody (at Dihlī, Badā,onī II, 100). After Khān Zamān's death, he was captured, and Akbar ordered him daily to be thrown before a mast elephant; but the driver was ordered to spare him as he was a man of illustrious descent. This was done for five days, when at the intercession of the courtiers he was set at liberty. Shortly afterwards he received a manṣab, and the title of Razawī Khān. In the 19th year, he was made Dīwān of Jaunpūr, and in the 24th year, Bakhshī of Bengal in addition to his former duties.

At the outbreak of the Bengal Military Revolt (25th year), he was with Muzaffar Khān (No. 37). His harsh behaviour towards the dissatisfied grandees is mentioned in the histories as one of the causes of

¹ In 983, the 20th year (Albarnama III, 138). Bada, oni (III, p. 75) has 984.

the revolt. When the rebels had seceded (9th Zī Ḥijjah, 987) and gone from Ṭānda to Gaur, Muzaffar sent Razawī Khān, Rāy Patr Dās (No. 196) and Mīr Aḥmad Munshī to them to try to bring them back to obedience. Things took indeed a good turn, and everything might have ended peacefully when some of Rāy Patr Dās's Rājpūts said that the opportunity should not be thrown away to kill the whole lot. Rāy Patr Dās mentioned this to Razawī Khān, and through him, it appears, the rebels heard of it. They took up arms and caught Rāy Patr Dās. Razawī Khān and Mīr Aḥmad Munshī surrendered themselves.

The Matasir says that nothing else is known of Razawi Khan. The Tabaqat says that he was a Commander of Two Thousand, and was

dead in 1001.

Mīrzā Mīrak is not to be confounded with Mīrak Khān, "an old grandee, who died in 975" (Tabaqāt); or with Mīrak Bahādur (208).

Shāhjahān conferred the title of Razawī Khān on Sayyid Alī, son of Şadr^a ş'-Şudūr Mīrāh S. Jalāl of Bukhārā.

142. Mīrzā Najāt Khān, brother of Sayyid Barka, and

149. Mīrzā Husayn Khān, his brother.

Both brothers, according to the *Tabaqāt*, were dead in 1001. Their names are often wrongly given in MSS., which call them *Najābat*, instead of *Najāt*, and *Hasan* instead of *Husayn*.

From the Akbarnāma (1, 411) we see that both brothers accompanied

Humāyūn on his march to India.

Mîrzā Najāt served, in the 10th year, against Khān Zamān (No. 13). In the end of the 21st year, he was attached to the corps which und Shihāb Khān (No. 26) moved to Khandesh, the king of which, Raja Ali Khan, had shown signs of disaffection. Later, he served in Bengal. When the Military Revolt broke out, Bābā Khān Qāqshāl (vide, p. 399, note 2), Jabārī (p. 400), Vazīr Jamīl (No. 200), Sa^çīd-i Toqbā^{*}ī, and other grandees, marched on the 9th Zī Ḥijja, 987, from Tanda to Gaur across the Ganges. Mir Najāt was doubtful to which party to attach himself; and when Muzaffar sent his grandees [Mīr Jamālu 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn Injū (No. 164), Razawi Khān (No. 141), Timur Khān (No. 215), Rāy Patr Dās (No. 196), Mīr Adham, Ḥusayn Beg, Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fath (No. 112), Khwaja Shamsu 'd-Din (No. 159), Jasfar Beg (No. 98), Muhammad Qulī Turkmān (No. 203), Qāsim Khān-i Sīstānī, SIwaz Bahādur, Zulf Alī Yazdī, Sayyid Abū Is-ḥāq-i Şafawī (No. 384), Muzaffar Beg, etc.] to the banks of the Ganges, where the rebels had drawn up their army, Mir Najāt stayed with Vazīr Jamīl, although Muzaffar, who was Najāt's father-in-law, fully expected him to join. He must have soon after left

the rebels and gone to Southern Bengal; for in the end of the 25th year he was at Sātgāw (Hūglī). Abū 'l-Fazl mentions him together with Murād Khān at Fathābād (No. 34), and Qiyá Khān in Orīsā (No. 33), as one of the few that represented Imperialism in Bengal (Akbarn. III, 291). But these three were too powerless to check the rebels. Murād died, and Qiyā was soon after killed by the Afghāns under Qutlū, who looked upon the revolt as his opportunity. Mīr Najāt also was attacked by Qutlū and defeated near Salīmābād (Sulaymānābād), S. of Bardwān. He fled to the Portuguese governor of Hūglī. Bābā Khān Qāqshāl sent one of his officers to get hold of Najāt; but the officer hearing of Qutlū's victory, attacked the Afghāns near Mangalkot, N.E. of Bardwān. Qutlū, however, was again victorious.

143. Sayyid Hāshim, son of Sayyid Maḥmūd of Bārha. Vide No. 105, p. 461.

144. Ghāzī Khān-i Badakhshī.

In MSS., <u>Ghāzī</u> is often altered to <u>Qāzī</u>, and <u>Badakh</u>shī to <u>Bakh</u>shī, and as <u>Ghāzī Khān</u>'s first title was <u>Qāzī Khān</u>, his name is often confounded with No. 223. Other <u>Gh</u>āzī <u>Kh</u>āns have been mentioned above, on pp. 396, 418.

Ghāzī Khān's name was Qāzī Nizām. He had studied law and Ḥadīs, under Mullā ʿIṣāmu 'd-Dīn Ibrāhīm, and was looked upon as one of the most learned of the age. He was also the murīd of Shaykh Ḥusayn of Khwārazm, a renowned Ṣūfī. His acquirements procured him access to the court of Sulaymān, king of Badakhshân (No. 5), who conferred upon him the title of Qāzī Khān. At the death of Humāyūn, Sulaymān, wishing to profit by the distracted state of the country, moved to Kābul and besieged Munsim (No. 11). After the siege had lasted for some time, Sulaymān sent Qāzī to Munsim to prevail on him to sucrender. But Munsum detained him for several days, and treated him "to the most sumptuous fare, such as Badakhshās cannot enjoy even in peaceful times". The good dinners made such an impression on Qāzī Khān that he advised Sulaymān to raise the siege, as there was no lack of provisions in the fort. Sulaymān thereupon returned to Badakhshān.

Subsequently Qāzī Khān left his master, and went to India. At Khānpūr he was introduced to the emperor on his return from Jaunpūr (Akbarn., III, 85). He received several presents, and was appointed Paracanchī writer (p. 273). Akbar soon discovered in him a man of great insight, and made him a Commander of One Thousand. He also bestowed upon

¹ The MSS, of the Akbarnama call him Bartab Rar Firings, or Partab Firings.

him the title of Ghazi Khan, after he had distinguished himself in several expeditions.

In the 21st year, Ghāzī Khān commanded the left wing of Mān Singh's corps in the war with the Rana. Though his wing gave way, he returned with the troops and joined the van, and fought bravely. He then received Awadh as tuyūl, and distinguished himself in Bihār against the rebellious grandees.

He died at Awadh in the 29th year (992) at the age of seventy, about the same time that Sultan Khwaja died (No. 108).

Ghāzī Khān is the author of several works (vide Badā,onī III, 153).

The sijda, or prostration, which formed so important a part in the ceremonies of the Court, was his invention (vide p. 167, note).

His son Husam" 'd-Din. Akbar made him a Commander of One Thousand, and sent him with the Khan Khanan (No. 29) to the Dakhin. Suddenly a change came over Husam, and though a young man, he expressed to the commander his wish to resign the service and live as a faqir at the tomb of Nizāmu 'd-Dīn Awliyā in Dihlī. The Khān Khānān persuaded him in vain to give up this mad idea; but Husam next day laid aside his clothes, smeared his body with clay and mud; and wandered about in the streets and bazars. Akbar permitted his resignation. Husam lived for thirty years as an ascetic in Dihli. Khwaja Baqi Billah (born at Kābul and buried at Dihlī) conferred on him power of "guiding travellers on the road of piety". He died in 1034. His wife was Abū 'l-Fazl's sister. She gave at the request of her husband her ornaments to Darwishes, and fixed an annual sum of 12,000 Rupees as allowance for the cell of her husband. Vide Tuzuk, p. 80.

145. Farhat Khan, Mihtar Sakā,ī, a slave of Humāyūn.

The MSS, have Sakātī and Sakāhī. Farhat Khān is first mentioned in the war between Humayun and Mirza Kamran, when many grandees joined the latter. In a fight, Beg Bābā of Kolāb lifted up his sword to strike Humayun from behind. He missed and was at once attacked by Farhat, and put to flight. When Humayun left Lahor on his march to Sarhind, where Sikandar Khan was, Farhat was appointed Shiqdar of Lahor. Subsequently, Mir Shah Abū 'l-Ma'alī was appointed Governor of Lähor. He sent away Farhat, and appointed his own men instead. Farhat therefore joined Prince Akbar on his arrival in the Panjab.

Akbarnāms I, 416. At the same time, Mir Bābūs (No. 73) was appointed Fawjdēr of the Panjāb, Mirsā Shāh Sultān was made Amin, and Mihtar Jawhar, treasurer. Humāyūn was on the 29th Muharram, 962, at Bigrām, crossed the Indus on the 5th Safar, when Bayrām arrived from Kābul, was at Lāhor on the 2nd Rebit II, and at Sarhind, on the 7th Rajab.

After Akbar's accession, Farhat was made Tuyūldār of Korra. He distinguished himself in the war with Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā near Aḥmadābād. When the Mīrzā was brought in a prisoner, Farhat refused him a drink of water which he had asked for; but Akbar gave him some of his own water, and remonstrated with Farhat for his cruelty. In the 19th year, he served in Bihār and was made jāgūrdār of Āra. In the 21st year (984), Gajpatī (p. 437) devastated the district. Farhang Khān, Farḥat's son, marched against him, but was repulsed and slain. Farḥat then moved against the enemy to avenge the death of his son, but met with the same fate (vide No. 80).

146. Růmi Khān, Ustād Jalabi (?), of Rúm.

He is not mentioned in the Tabaqāt and the Ma*āṣīr, and but rarely in the Akbarnāma. In the 20th year, he and Baqī Khān (No. 60) and 'Abdu'r-Raḥmān Beg (No. 186) accompanied a party of Begams from Court on their road to Makkah. The party consisted of Gulbadan Begam, Salīma Sultān Begam, Ḥājī Begam, Gul'azār Begam, Sultān Begam (wife of Mīrzā 'Askarī), Umm Kulsūm Begam (granddaughter of Gulbadan Begam), Gujnār Āghā (one of Bābar's wives), Bībī Ṣafiya, Bībī Sarwa Sahī and Shāham. Āghā (wives of Humāyūn), and Salīma Khānum (daughter of Khizr Khwāja). They left in Rajab, 983.

Rūmī Khān has also been mentioned above (No. 111).

147. Samaajī Khān Qurghūjī (vide No. 100)

He was a grandee of Humayūn. During the reign of Akbar, he reached the dignity of a Commander of Fifteen Hundred. The <u>Tabaqat</u> says he was, in 1001, a Commander of 2,000. In the same work he is called a <u>Mughul</u>.

In the beginning of the 6th year (middle of 968) he served in Mālwa under Adham Khān (No. 19) and was present in the battle of Sārangpūr. In the 9th year, he accompanied Muḥammad Qāsim Khān-i Nīshāpūrī (No. 40) and pursued SAbda 'llah Khān Uzbak (No. 14). In the 13th year, he was ordered, together with Ashraf Khān Mir Munshī (No. 74), to go to Rantanbhūr and suppress the disturbances created by Mīrzā Muḥammad Husayn in Mālwa. Later, he held a jāgār in Āra. He joined at first the rebellious grandees, but convincing himself of their selfishness, he went back to the Imperial camp.

In the 39th year, he was allowed to come to Court, and died a few years later. His sons received employments in the army.

From the Akbarnama (III, 136) we see that he also served in the

¹ The Ma²deir has Awadh. At the outbreak of the Bergal Military Revolt, he was Jägirdär of the Āra District (Akbars. III, 244).

21st year under <u>Kh</u>ān Jahān (No. 24) and was present in the battle of Ag Maḥall. In the 30th year, he was in Mālwa and was ordered to join the Dakhin corps. Two years later, he served under Snihāb <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 26) against Rāja Madhukar.

148. Shāhbeg Khān, son of Kūchak Alī Khān of Badakhshān (Nos. 138 and 380).

His name is not given in the $Ma^{\varsigma}\bar{a}_{S^1}$ and the $Tabaq\bar{a}t$. Amīr Beg, a Pānṣadī under Shāhjahān, appears to be his son.

149. Mīrza Husayn Khān, brother of Mīrzā Najāt Khān (vide No. 142).

150. Hakim Zanbīl, brother of Mirzā Muḥammad Tabīb of Sabzwār.

Zanbīl means "a basket". In the list of the physicians of the Court, lower down, he is called Ḥakīm Zanbīl Beg. Badā,onī says, he was a muqarrib, or personal attendant on the emperor.

151. Khudawand Khan-i Dakhini.

Khudāwand Khān was a Nizāmshāhī Grandee. As his father was born at Mash, had, Kh. is often called Mash, hadī. He was of course a Shī'ah.

He was a man of imposing stature, and well known for his personal courage. When Khwāja Mīrak of Iṣfahān, who had the title of Chingiz Khān, was the Vakīl of Murtazā Nizām Shāh, Kh. rose to dignity. He held several districts in Barār as jāgīr. The Masjid of Rohankhera was built by him.

In 993, when Mīr Murtaza of Sabzwār (No. 162) commanded the army of Barār, and was no longer able to withstand Ṣalābat Khān Chirgis in the Dakhin, Kh. accompanied M. Murtazā to Hindūstān. Both were well received by Akbar, and Kh. was made a Commander of One Thousand. He received Patan in Gujrāt as tuyūl.

He was married to Abū 'l-Fazl's sister, and died at Karī in the end of the 34th year, before the middle of 998 (*Badā,onī* II, 372, where in the $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}\underline{k}\underline{h}$ of his death the word *Dokhinī* must be written without an h).

Once Abū 'l-Fazl had invited several grandees, Khudāwand among them. The dishes placed before Kh. contained fowls and game and different kinds of vegetables, whilst the other guests had roast meat. He remarked it, took offence, and went away. Although Akbar assured him that Abū 'l-Fazl had treated him to fowls and game according to a Hindūstānī custom, Kh. disliked Abū 'l-Fazl, and never went again to his house." Hence Dakhinīs are notorious in Hindūstān for stupidity."

¹ The Edit. Bibl. Indica of Badā, oni (III, 164) calls him wrongly Hakīm Zīnal Shīrāzī. Zīnal is the reading of bad MSS., and Sabzwārī is often altered to Shīrāzī. Other bad MSS. bave Ranhal.

² Rohankhera lies in West Barar, in the district of Buldana. In Abū 'l-Fazl's list of parganas in Sarkar Talingana, there is one called Qiryāt-i Khudāwand Khān.

The Tabaqāt puts \underline{Kh} among the Commanders of Fifteen Hundred, and says that he died in 995. The $Ma^*\bar{a}_{sir}$ has 997.

152. Mīrzāda Alī Khān, son of Muhtaram Beg.1

He served in the 9th year in Mālwa during the expedition against 'Abdu'llah Khān Uzbak (No. 14). In the 17th year, he served in the Gujrāt war under the Khān-i Kalān (No. 16). Two years later, he commanded an expedition against Qāsim Khān Kāsū, who with a corps of Afghāns ravaged the frontiers of Bihār. In the 23rd year, he accompanied Shāhbāz Khān in the war with Rānā Partāb. He then served in Bihār under Khān-i A'zam (25th year) and in Bengal under Shāhbāz Khān (vide No. 134, p. 483). In the 30th year (993) he was present in the fight with Qutlū near Mangalkot (Bardwān). In the 31st year, he was ordered to join Qāsim Khān (No. 59), who was on his way to Kashmīr. Not long after, in 995 (32nd year) he was killed in a fight with the Kashmīrīs who defeated an Imperial detachment under Sayyid 'Abdu'llah Khān (No. 189).

Badā, onī (III, p. 326) says he was a poet! He places his death in 996.

153. Basadat Mīrzā, son of Khizr Khwaja Khan (p. 394, note).

154. Shimāl Khān Chela.

Chein means: a slave ". The <u>Tabaqāt</u> says he was a Qurchī, or armourbearer of the emperor, and a genial companion. He was made a <u>Hazārī</u>. and was no longer ahve in 1001.

In the 9th year, he assisted in the capture of Khwaja Musazzam, In the 20th year, he served in the war against Chandr Sen, during which Jalal Khān (No. 213) had lost his life, and afterwards under Sayyid Aḥmad (No. 91) and Shāhbāz (No. 80) in the expedition to Siwāna.

155. Shah Ghazī Khan, a Sayyid from Tabrīz.

The Tabaqāt calls him a Turkmān, and says, he was dead in 1001. He served in the 19th year with Mīrzāda ^c Mī <u>Kh</u>an (No. 152) against Qāsim Khān Kāsū.

He may be the Shah Ghazi Khan mentioned below under No. 161.

156. Fāril Khān, son of Khān-i Kalàn (No. 16).

He was mentioned above, on p. 339.

157. Ma^cşūm Khān, son of Mu^cia^u 'd-Dīn Ahmad Faraņkhūdī (No. 128).

He is not to be confounded with Massan Khān-i Kābulī (p. 476, note).

Generally called in the Histories Rand Xika.

¹ He is also called Miraid SAli hhān. My text edition has wrongly Mirai SAli Khān. For Muhtaram many MSS, read wrongly Mahram. His father, Muhtaram Beg, was a grandee of Humayūn's Court.

Ma'sūm was made a Hazārī on the death of his father, and received Ghāzīpūr as tuyūl. He joined Todar Mal in Bihār, though anxious to go over to the rebels (pp. 376-7). Not long afterwards, Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother, threatened to invade the Panjāb, and as the emperor had resolved to move personally against him, Ma'sūm thought it opportune to rebel. He seized Jaunpūr and drove away Tarsō Khān's men (No. 32). As Akbar kad known him from a child, he was inclined to pardon him, provided he left Jaunpūr, and accepted Awadh as tuyūl. This M. did; but he continued to recruit, and when Shāh Qulī Maḥram and Rāja Bīr Bar had failed to bring him to his senses, Shāhbāz Khān, on hearing of his conduct, determined to punish him. The events of the expedition have been related on p. 437.

After his defeat near Awadh, M. threw himself into the town; but as several rebel chiefs had left him, he absconded, without even taking his family with him. He applied to two Zamindars for assistance; but the first robbed him of his valuables, and the latter waylaid him, and had it not been for a bribe, M. would not have escaped. About this time one of his friends of the name of Maqsūd joined him and supplied him with M. collected men and surprised and plundered the town of Bahrā,ich. Vazīr Khān (No. 41) and others moved from Hājīpūr against him; but M. escaped them. After plundering the town of Muhammadabad, he resolved to surprise Jaunpur, when the tuyuldars of the district marched against him. Being hard pressed, he applied to M. Azīz Koka (No. 21) to intercede for him. Akbar again pardoned him, and gave him the Pargana Mihsī, Sarkār Champāran, as tuyūl. But M. continued in a rebellious attitude, and when M. Azīz prepared to punish him, he applied for leave to go to Court. He arrived, in the 27th year, in Agra, and was again pardoned, chiefly at the request of Akbar's mother.

Soon after, on going home one night from the Darbar, he was killed on the road. An inquiry was ordered to be held, but without result, and people believed that Akbar had connived at the murder. Compare with this the fate of Nos. 61 and 62, two other Bihar rebels.

158. Tolak Khan Qüchin.

Tolak commenced to serve Bābar. He joined Humāyūn on his return from Persia. When the emperor had seized on Kābul, and M. Kārām came near the town under the mask of friendship, many of Humāyūn's grandees went over to him, and the emperor was obliged to retreat northwards to Zaḥāk (فعا) and Bāmiyān, where he hoped to find faithful officers. He sent, however, Tolak and several others to Kābul,

to bring him correct information, but Tolak alone returned. For his faithfulness he was made Qurbegi.

Tolak accompanied Humāyūn to India. After the emperor's death, he belonged to those who supported the young Akbar, and was instrumental in the capture at a dinner party of Mīr Shāh Abū 'l-Macālī. Afterwards, T. went to Kabul, where he remained for a long time. In the 7th year of Akhar's reign, he was suddenly imprisoned by the young and hasty Ghani Khan, son of Muncim Khan (No. 11), who was in charge of Kābul. Tolak managed to escape, and went to Bābā Khātun, his jāgīr, collecting men to take revenge on Ghani. A favourable opportunity presented itself when Ghani one day had left Kābul for a place called Khwaja Sayvaran (خواجه سيار ان), to waylay a caravan from Balkh. He was just feasting with his companions, when Tolak Khan fell upon them. Ghani, who was drunk, was caught, and Tolak marched to Khwaja Awash (خواجه اواش), a place two kos distant from Kabul. But he was opposed by Fazīl Beg (Muncim's brother) and his son Abū 'l-Fath (called wrongly Abdu'l-Futh, on p. 318), and thought it advisable to let Chani go. Ghani immediately collected men and pursued Tolak, who now prepared himself to go to Hindustan. Ghani overtook him near the Ab-i Ghorband and killed Bābā Qūchīn, and several other relations and friends of Tolak. Tolak himself and his son Isfandiyar managed to cut their way through the enemics, and arrived safely in India. Akbar gave Tolak a jägir in Mālwa, where he remained for a long time.

In the 28th year, T. served under Khan Khanan (No. 29) in Malwa and Gujrat, and defeated Sayyid Dawlat in Kambha,it. He distinguished himself in the fights with Muzaffar, and served under Qulij Khan (No. 42) in the conquest of Bahroch. In the 30th year, he was attached to the corps which under M. Azīz Koka was to be sent to the Dakhin. Having indulged in slander during the disagreement between M. Azīz Koka and Shihaba 'd-Dīn, he was imprisoned. After his release he was sent to Bengal, where in the 37th year he served under Man Singh against the Afghāns.

He died in the beginning of the 41st year (1004).

159. Khwaja Shamsa 'd-Din Khawafi.

Khawāfī means "coming from Khawāf", which is a district and town in Khurāsān. Our maps have "Khāff" or "Khāf", due west of Hirāt, between Lat. 60° and 61'. According to the Musjam" 'l-Buldān, "Khawāf is a large town belonging [at the time the author wrote] to the revenue district of Nīshāpūr. Near it lies on one side Būshanj which belongs to the districts of Hirāt, and on the other Zūzan. Khawāf

contains one hundred villages and three towns (Sanjan, Sīrāwand, and Khariard)." Amīn Rāzī in his excellent Haft Iqlīm says that the district of Khawaf is famous for the kings, ministers, and learned men it has produced. The dynasty called, Al-i Muzaffar, of whom seven kings ruled for 59 years over Fars and Shīrāz.1 were Khawāfīs. The author of the 'Zakhīrat" 'l Khawānīn says that the people of Khawāf were known to be bigoted Sunnis. When Shah Abbas-i Safawi, in the beginning of his reign, came to Khawaf, he forced the inhabitants to abuse, as is customary with Shīsas, the companions of the Prophet (sabb-i sahāba); but as the people refused to do so, he had seventy of the principal men thrown down from a Masjid. Although then no one was converted, the Khwāfīs are now as staunch Shīsas as they were formerly bigoted Sunnīs.

Khwāja Shamsu 'd-Dīn was the son of Khwāja Shamsu 'd-Dīn, who was a man much respected in Khawaf. Shams accompanied Muzaffar Khan (No. 37), his countryman, to Bihar and Bengal. At the outbreak of the Military Revolt, he was caught by the rebels, and Massum-i Kabuli had him tortured with a view of getting money out of him. Shams was half dead, when at the request of Arab Bahadur he was let off and placed under Arab's charge, who lay under obligations to him. But Shams eluded his vigilance, and fled to Singram, Raja of Kharakpur (Bihār).2 As the roads were all held by the rebels, Shams could not

Amin Razi mentions also several learned men and vazirs besides those mentioned in the Musiam, and relates some anecdotes illustrating the proverbial sagacity and quick-

wittedness of the inhabitants of Khawaf.

For Khawafi some MSS, have Khāfi. The Historian Muhammad Hāshim Khāfi Khān has also been supposed to be a Khawāfi, though it must be observed that geographical titles are rare. There are a few, as Rumi Khan, (Thaznin Khan, Habshi Khan. The authors of the Padeshahmima and the Mu agir never use the form Khifi.

¹ They succumbed to Timür. The Histories disagree regarding the length of their reign, some give 57 years, from A.H. 741 to 798.

The number of Khawafis in the service of the Mughul emperors was considerable. One is mentioned below, No. 347. The Masasir has notes on the following:—Mirza Cizzat (under Jahangir); Mirza Ahmad, and Mustamid Khan Muhammad Salih (under Shahjahān); Sayvid Amīr Khān Shaykh Mir, Khwāja Mir Khawāfi Salābat Khān, Cināvat Khan, and Mustafa Khan (under Awrangzib). The lists of grandees in the Padishahnama mention several other Khawafis. In later times we have the name of ÇAbdu 'r-Razzāq Şamṣāmu 'd-Dawla Awrangābadī, who was murdered in 1171. His ancestor, Mir Kamalu 'd-Din Khawafi, has served under Akbar.

³ Singram later fought with Shahbaz Khan (No. 80), and ceded Fort Mahda. Though he never went to Court, he remained in aubmission to the Imperial governors of Bihar and Benga!. In the first year of Jahängir's reign, Jahängir Quli Khān Lāla Beg, governor of B'hār, sent a corps against Singrām, who was killed in a fight. His son turned Muhammadan, and received the name "Rāja Roz-afzun", was confirmed in his ramindāris. and reached, under Jahangir, the dignity of a Commander of Fifteen Hundred. Under Shāhjahān, he served with Mahābut, Khan in Balkh, against Jhujār Singh Bundela, in the siege of Parenda, and was at his death in 1044 a Commander of Two Thousand. His son, Rāja Bihrūz served in Qandahār, in the war between Awrangzīb and Shāh Shujāc, and distinguished himself in the second conquest of Palamau (4th year of Awrangzib). Raja Bihrūz died in the 8th year of Awrangzib's reign. Vide Proceedings, Asiatic Society Bengal, for December, 1870.

make his way to the Imperial army. He collected men, attacked the rebels, and carried off some of their cattle; and when some time after dissensions broke out among the mutineers, he found means to escape. Akbar received him with every distinction, and appointed him, in the same year (26th) to superintend the building of Fort Atak (built 990-1) on the Indus, near which the Imperial camp then was.1

After this, Shams was for some time Diwan of Kabul In the 39th year. when Qulij Khan (No. 42) after the death of Qasim Khan (No. 59) was made Şūbadār of Kābul, Shams was made Dīwān of the empire (Dīwān-i kull), vice Qulij.2 When Akbar in the 43rd year, after a residence of fourteen years in the Panjab, moved to Agra to proceed to the Dakhin, the Begams with Prince Khurram (Shāhjahān) were left in Lāhor, and Shams was put in charge of the Panjab, in which office he continued, after Akbar's mother had returned, in the 44th year, with the Begams to Agra.

Shams died at Lahor in the 45th year (1008). The family vault which he had built near Baba Hasan Abdal having been used for other purposes (p. 469) he was buried in Lahor in that quarter of the town which he had built, and which to his honour was called Khawā fīpūra.

He is said to have been a man of simple manners, honest and faithful, and practical in transacting business

Like Shaykh Farid i Bukhari (No. 99), whom he in many respects resembles, he died childless.

His brother, Khwaja Mumin Khawafi, was made, on his death, Diwan of the Panjah. Mūmin's son, Abd" 'l Klalig was a favourite of Aşaf Khan IV (p. 398). He was killed by Mahabat Khan, when Asaf had been removed by Mahabat from Fort Atak and imprisoned.

160. Jagat Singh, eldest of Raja Man Singh (No. 30).

Kûwar Jagat Singh served in the 42nd year under Mīrzā Jasfar Āşaf Khan (No. 98) against Rāja Bāsū, zamīndār of Mau and Pathān (Nūrpūr, N.E. Panjabj. In the 44th year (1008) when Akbar moved to Malwa, and Prince Salīm (Jahāngīr) was ordered to move against Rānā Amr Singh,

his orders. Diwan-i kull is the same as Vazir-i kull or Vazir-i mutlag, or merely Vazir.

¹ The author of the Ma⁵deir repeats Abū 'l-Fazl's etymology of the name "Atak", which was given on p. 404, note. He also says that some derive it from the Hindi, atak, prevention, a bar," because Hindus will not go beyond the Indus." But there is no instance ou record that Hindus ever did object to cross the Indus. Bhagwan Das, Man Singh, and others were governors of Kabul and Zabulistan, and had their Rajpūts there; and others were governors of Kabul and Zalmistan, and had their Rajputs there; and during the reign of Shahjahan, the Zajpūts distinguished themselves in the conquest of Balkh and the siege of Qandahār. [Fort Afak built in 990-91.—B.]

Abū 'l-Farl's etymology is also doubtful; for in the Akbaradma (II, 302) he mentions the name "Atak" long before the building of the Fort (III, 335).

The twelve Diwans, who in 1003 had been appointed to the 12 Sūbas, were under

Mān Singh was called from Bengal, and Jagat Singh was ordered to go to Bengal, as $n\bar{a}^{i}ib$ of his father. While still at Agra, he died from excessive drinking. Regarding J. S.'s daughter, vide p. 323 and No. 175.

Mahā Singh, Jagat's younger son, was appointed in his stead. His youth and inexperience inclined the Afghāns under Usmān and Shujāwal Khān to attack him. They defeated him and Partāb Singh, son of Rāja Bhagwān Dās (No. 336), near Bhadrak in Orīsā (45th year). Mān Singh hastened to Bengal, and after defeating in 1009 the Afghāns near Sherpür Atā,ī, between Shi,ūrī (Sooree) in Bīrbhūm and Murshidābād, recovered Lower Bengal and Orīsā.

Mahā Singh died soon after, like his father, from excessive drinking.

161. Naqib Khan, son of Mir Abdu 'l-Latif of Qazwin.

Naqīb <u>Khān</u> is the title of Mīr <u>Gh</u>iyāṣ 'd-Dīn ʿAlī. His family belongs to the Sayfī Sayyids of Qazwīn, who were known in Īrān for their Sunnī tendencies. His grandfather Mīr Yaḥyā was "a well-known theologian and philosopher, who had acquired such extraordinary proficiency in the knowledge of history, that he was acquainted with the date of every event which had occurred from the establishment of the Muḥammadan religion to his own time."

"In the opening of his career, Mīr Yaḥyā was patronized by Shāh Tahmāsp-i Ṣafawī, who called him Yaḥyā Maʿṣūm,¹ and was treated by the king with such distinction, that his enemies, envious of his good fortune, endeavoured to poison his patron's mind against him, by representing that he and his son, Mīr ʿAbdu 'l-Laṭīf, were the leading men among the Sunnīs of Qazwīn. They at last prevailed so far as to induce the king, when he was on the borders of Āzarbāyjān, to order Mīr Yaḥyā and his son, together with their families, to be imprisoned at Isfahān. At that time, his second son, ʿAlāʿu 'd-Dawla was in Āzarbāyjān, and sent off a special messenger to convey his intelligence to his father. Mīr Yaḥyā, being too old and infirm to flee, accompanied the king's messenger to Isfahān, and died there, after one year and nine months, in A.H. 962, at the age of 77 years." ²

"Mir Abdu 'l-Latif, however, immediately on receipt of his brother's

^{&#}x27;I.e. exempt, probably from losing life and property for his attachment to Sunnism.

'Mir Yahyā is the author of an historical compendium called Lubb' 'd-tausrigh, composed in 1541. Vide Elliot's Bibl. Index to the Historians of India, p. 129. His second son SAlaC' 'd-Dawla wrote under the poetical name of Kdmi, and is the author of the Nafa*io*'l-Ma*asir, a''tazkira'', or work on literature. Badā,on! (III, 97) says he composed a Qasida in which, according to the manner of ShiSahs, he abused the companions of the Prophet and the Sunnis, and among the latter his father and elder brother (SAbd' 'l-Lath'), whom he used to call Hazrat-i-lqa, as he had been his teacher. But the verse in which he cursed his relations is ambiguously worded.

Some fix the date of Mir Yahyā's death two years earlier.

communication, fled to Gilan, and afterwards at the invitation of the emperor Humāyun went to Hindustan, and arrived at Court with his family just after Akbar had ascended the throne. By him he was received with great kindness and consideration, and appointed in the second year of his reign as his preceptor. At that time Akbar knew not how to read and write, but shortly afterwards he was able to repeat some odes of Hatiz. The Mir was a man of great eloquence and of excellent disposition, and so moderate in his religious sentiments,2 that each party used to revile him for his indifference."

"When Bayram Khan had incurred the displeasure of the emperor and had left Agra and proceeded to Alwar with the intention, as it was supposed, of exciting a rebellion in the Panjab, the emperor sent the Mir to him, to dissuade him from such an open breach of fidelity to his sovereign." Elliot, Index, l.c.

Mir 'Abdu 'l-Latif died at Sikri on the 5th Rajnb, 981,3 and was buried at Ajmīr near the Dargāh of Mīr Sayyid Husayn Khing-Suwār.

SAbdu'l-Latif had several sons. The following are mentioned: 1. Naqib Khan; 2. Qamar Khan; 3. Mir Muhammad Sharif. The last was killed in 984 at Fathpur by a fall from his horse, while playing hockey with the emperor (Bad. II, 230). For Qamar Khan, vide No. 243.

Naqib Khan arrived with his father in India, when Akbar after his accession was still in the Panjab (Akbarn. II, 23) and soon became a personal friend of the emperor (II, 281). In the 10th year, he conveyed Akbar's pardon to Khan Zaman, for whom Muncim Khan had interceded (II, 281). In the 18th year, N. accompanied the emperor on the forced march to Patan and Ahmadabad (p. 481, note), and in the following year to Patan. In the end of the 21st year, he took part in the expedition to Idar (III, 165) and was sent in the following year to Malwa or Gujrat, after the appointment of Shihab to the latter province. After the outbreak of the Military Revolt in Bengal, N. with his brother Qamar Khan served under Todar Mal and Sadīq Khan in Bihar against Masaum-i Kabulī (III, 273). In the 26th year, he received the title of Nagib Khān. Though

Elliot has by mistake 971. The Tarith of his death in the Masagir and Bada, oni (1H, p. 90) is fakhr-i dl. i Yd-Sin," the wide of the descendants of Yasin (the Prophet) " ==

981, if the long alif in all he not counted 2, but 1.

¹ The MSS. of the Musain have جبال كلنات; so also Bada,oni, i.e.
2 He was the first that taught Akbar the principle of sulls kull. " peace with all," the Persian term which Acū 'l-Faxl so often uses to describe Akbar's policy of toleration. Abu 'l Fazl (Akbarn, 11, 23) says that SAbde '!- Latif was accused in Persia of being a Sunni and in Hindustan of being a Shicah.

Kewal Rām, according to Elliot, says in the Tankirāt" 'l-Umarut that the title was conferred on Naqib Khān in the 25th year for his gallant conduct in repelling a night attack made by Macsum Khān-i Kābuli on the Imperialists under Todar Mal and Ṣādiq Khān. This night attack is related in the Abburnāma (III, 293). The fight took place in the 25th year, near Gayā; but Abū 'l-Fasl says nothing of Naqib's 'gallant conduct';

during the reign of Akbar, he did not rise above the rank of a *Hazārī*, he possessed great influence at Court. He was Akbar's reader, and superintended the translations from Sanscrit into Persian, mentioned on p. 110. Several portions of the *Tārīkh-i Alfī* also (p. 113) are written by him.

Naqīb had an uncle of the name of Qāzī ʿĪṣā, who had come from Irān to Akbar's Court, where he died in 980. His son was Shāh Ghāzī Khān (vide No. 155). Akbar married the latter to Sakīna Bānū Begam, sister of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm (Akbar's half-brother); and as Naqīb Khān, in the 38th year, reported that Qāzī ʿĪṣā had expressed a dying wish to present his daughter to Akbar, the emperor married her. Thus two of Naqīb's cousins married into the imperial family.

On the accession of Jahangir, N. was made a Commander of 1,500 (Tuzuk, p. 12). He died in the 9th year of J.'s reign (beginning of 1023) at Ajmir, and was buried at the side of his wife within the enclosure of Musin-i Chishti's tomb (Tuzuk, p. 129). His wife was a daughter of Mir Maḥmūd, Munshiy^u 'l-Mamālik, who had been for twenty-five years in Akbar's service (Badā,onī III, 321).

Naqīb's son, Abdu'l-Latif, was distinguished for his acquirements. He was married to a daughter of M. Yūsūf Khān (No. 35) and died insane.

Naqīb <u>Kh</u>ān, like his grandfather, excelled in history. It is said that he knew the seven volumes of the *Rawzatu 'ṣ-ṣafā* by heart. Jahāngīr, in his Memoirs, praises him for his remarkable memory, and Badā,onī, who was Naqīb's schoolfellow and friend, says that no man in Arabia or Persia was as proficient in history as Naqīb. Once on being asked how many pigeons there were in a particular flock then flying, he responded instantly, without making a mistake of even one.

162. Mîr Murtaşā Khān, a Sabzwārī Sayyid.

Mīr Murtazā Khān was at first in the service of Adil Shāh of Bijāpūr. Murtazā Nizām Shāh called him to Aḥmadnagar, and made him Military Governor of Barār, and later Amīru 'l-Umarā'. He successfully invaded, at Nizām Shāh's order, Adil Shāh's dominions. But Nizām Shāh suffered from insanity, and the government was left in the hands of his Vakīl, Shāh Qulī Şalābat Khān; and as he reigned absolutely, several of the nobles, especially the tuyūldārs of Baraī, were dissatisfied. Şālābat Khān being bent on ruining them, Mīr Murtazā Khudāwand Khān (No. 151), Jamshed Khān-i Shīrāzī and others, marched in 992 to Aḥmadnagar. Şalābat Khān and Shāhzāda Mīrān Ḥusayn surprised them and routed them. Mīr Murtazā lost all his property, and unable to resist Ṣalābat Khān, he went with Khudāwand Khān to Akbar, who made him a Commander of One Thousand.

M. M. distinguished himself under Shāh Murād in the Dakhin invasion. When the Prince left Aḥmadnagar, Ṣādiq Khān (No. 43) remained in Mahkar (South Barār), and M. M. in Ilichpūr, to guard the conquered districts. During his stay there, he managed to take possession of Fort Gāwīl, near Īlichpūr (43rd year, 1007), persuading the commanders Wajīhu 'd-Dīn and Biswās Rā,o, to enter Akbar's service. Later, M. M. distinguished himself in the conquest of Aḥmadnagar under Prince Dānyāl, and received a higher Manṣab, as also a flag and a naggāra.

Mîr Murtază is not to be confounded with the learned Mîr Murtază Sharîf-i Shîrăzî (Badā,oni III, 320), or the Mîr Murtază mentioned by

Badā, oni III, 279.

163. Shamsī, son of Khān-i Arzam Mīrzā Koka (No. 21).

He was mentioned above on pp. 345 and 346. At the end of Akbar's reign, Shamsi was a Commander of Two Thousand.

In the third year of Jahāngīr's reign, he received the title of Jahāngīr Qulī Khān, vacant by the death of Jahāngīr Qulī Khān Lāla Beg, Governor of Bihār, and was sent to Gujrāt as nā'ib of his father. Mīrzā 'Azīz had been nominally appointed Governor of that Ṣūba; but as he had given the emperor offence, he was detained at Court. Subsequently Shamsī was made a Commander of Three Thousand, and Governor of Jaunpūr. Whilst there, Prince Shāhjahān had taken possession of Bengal, and prepared himself to march on Patna, sending 'Abdu' 'llāh Khān Fīrūz-Jang and Rāja Bhīm in advance towards Ilāhābād. On their arrival at Chausā, Shamsī left Jaunpūr, and joined Mīrzā Rustam (No. 9), Governor of the Ṣūba of Ilāhābād.

On Shāhjahān's accession, Shamsī was deposed, but allowed to retain his Manṣab. A short time after, he was appointed to Sūrat ² and Jūnāgadh, vice Beglar Khān. He died there in the 5th year of Shāhjahān's reign (1041).

Shamsi's son, Bahrām, was made by Shāhjahān a Commander of 1,000, 500 horse (*Pādishāhn*. I. b., 309) and appointed to succeed his father. Whilst in Gujrāt, he built a place called after him *Bahrāmpūra*. He died in the 18th year of Shāhjahān's reign (*Pādishāhn*. II, p. 733).

164. Mir Jamāla 'd-Din Husayn, an Injū Sayyid.

From a remark in the Wassaf it appears that a part of Shīrāz was called Injū; vide Journal Asiatic Society Bengal, 1868, p. 67 to p. 69.

Mīr Jamālu 'd-Dīn Injū belongs to the Sayyids of Shītāz, who trace their descent to Qāsimarrāsī (?) ibn-r Ḥasan ibn-ı Ibrāhīm Tabūṭibā'i Ḥusaynī. Mīr Shāh Maḥmūd and Mīr Shāh Abū Turāb, two later members

¹ Shamei is an abbreviation for Shames 'd Din.

of this renowned family, were appointed during the reign of Shāh Tahmāsp-i Ṣafawī, at the request of the Chief Justice of Persia, Mīr Shamsu 'd-Dīn Asadu 'llāh of Shushtar, the first as Shaykhu 'l-Islām of Persia, and the second as Qāziyu 'l-Quzāt. Mīr Jamālu 'd-Dīn is one of their cousins.

Mir Jamālu 'd-Din went to the Dakhin, the kings of which had frequently intermarried with the Injus. He afterwards entered Akbar's service, took part in the Gujrat wars, and was present in the battle of Patan (p. 432). Later he was sent to Bengal. At the outbreak of the Military Revolt, he was with Muzaffar (Akbarnāma III, p. 255). the 30th year (993) he was made a Commander of Six Hundred, and accompanied, shortly after, Aszam Khan (No. 21) on his expedition to Gadha and Rāsīsīn (Akbarn. III, 472). In the 36th year, he had a jāgīr in Mālwa, and served under Aczam Khān in the Dakhin. His promotion to the rank of a Hazārī took place in the 40th year. When in the 45th year the fort of Āsīr had been conquered, Sādil Shāh, king of Bījāpūr wished to enter into a matrimonial alliance with Akbar, and offered his daughter to Prince Danyal. To settle matters, Akhar dispatched the Mir in 1009 (Akbarn. III, 846) to the Dakhin. But the marriage only took place in 1013, near Patan. After this, accompanied by the Historian Firishta, he went to Agra, in order to lay before the emperor "such presents and tribute, as had never before come from the Dakhin".

At the end of Akbar's reign, Mīr J. was a Commander of Three Thousand. Having been a favourite of Prince Salim, he was promoted after the Prince's accession to the post of a Chahar-Hazārī, and received a naggara and a flag. When Khusraw rebelled, the Mir received the order to effect an understanding by offering Khusraw the kingdom of Kābul with the same conditions under which M. Muhammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother, had held that province. But the Prince did not consent; and when he was subsequently made a prisoner (p. 455) and brought before his father, Hasan Beg (No. 167), Khusraw's principal agent told Jahangir that all Amirs of the Court were implicated in the rebellion; Jamäl¹¹ 'd-Din had only a short time ago asked him (Hasan Beg) to promise him an appointment as Panjhazārī. The Mīr got pale and confused, when Mîrzā Azīz Koka (No. 21) asked the emperor not to listen to such absurdities; Hasan Beg knew very well that he would have to suffer death and therefore tried to involve others; he himself (SAziz) was the chief conspirator, and ready as such to undergo any punishment. Jahängīr consoled the Mir, and appointed him afterwards Governor of Bihar. In the 11th year, Mir Jamal received the title of Asad" 'd-Dawla.

On this occasion, he presented to the emperor a dagger, inlaid with precious tones, the making of which he had himself superintended when at Bijāpūr. At the top of the handle, he had a yellow yāqūt fixed, perfectly ture, of the shape of half an egg, and had it surrounded by other yāqūts and emeralds. The value was estimated at 50,000 Rupees.

In 1621, Jahängir pensioned him off, because he was too old, allowing him four thousand rupees per mensem. The highest rank that he had reached was that of a brevet Panjhazārī with an actual command of Three Thousand and Five Hundred. In 1623, at the eighteenth anniversary of Jahāngīr's accession, he presented the emperor a copy of the great Persian Dictionary, entitled Farhang-i Jahāngīrī, of which he was the compiler. The first edition of it had made its appearance in 1017.1

After having lived for some time in Bahra, ich, Mir Jamal returned to gra, where he died.

Mîr Jamāl^u 'd-Dîn had two sons. 1. Mîr Amîn^u 'd-Dîn. He served rith his father, and married a daughter of SAbd^u 'r-Raḥīm Khān Khānan No. 29). He died when young.

2. Mīr Ḥusamu 'd-Dīn. He married the sister of Aḥmad Beg Khān, prother's son of Ibrāhīm Khān Fatḥ-Jang (Nūr Jahān's brother) ahāngīr made him Governor of Āsīr, which fort he handed over to Prince Shāhjahān during his rebellion. On Shāhjahān's accession, he was made Commander of 4,000, with 3,000 horse, received a present of 50,000 tupees, and the title of Murtazā Khān. He was also made Governor of hathah, where he died in the second year (1039).

Mîr Husam's sons—1. Şamşām" 'd-Dawla. He was made Diwan of Shah Shujas in the 21st year. In the 28th year, he was appointed Governor f Orīsa with a command of 1,500, and 500 horse. He died in the end of he same year. 2. Nūr" 'llāh. He is mentioned in the Pādishāhnāma., h., p. 312) as a Commander of Nine Hundred, 300 horse.

165. Sayyid Rājū, of Bārha.

Historians do not say to which of the four divisions (vide p. 427) he Bārha clan Rājū belongs.

He served in the 21st year, under Man Singh, and in the 28th year, under Jagannath (No. 69), against the Rana. While serving under the tter, Raju commanded the Imperial garrison of Mandalgarh, and uccessfully conducted an expedition against a detachment of the Rana's roops. In the 30th year, Jagannath and Raju attacked the Rana in his residence; but he escaped.

Regarding the Farhang: Jahangiri, vide Journal Asiatic Society Bengal, 1868, 12 to 15, and 65 to 69.

Later, Rājū served under Prince Murād, Governor of Mālwa, whom, in the 36th year, he accompanied in the war with Rāja Madhukar; but as the Prince was ordered by Akbar to return to Mālwa, Rājū had to lead the expedition. In the 40th year, he served in the siege of Ahmadnagar. Once the enemies surprised the Imperialists, and did much damage to their cattle. Rājū attacked them, but was killed in the fight, together with several of his relations (A.H. 1003).

166. Mir Sharif-i Amuli.

His antecedents and arrival in India have been mentioned above on p. 185. In the 30th year (993) Prince Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm of Kābul died, and the country was annexed to India. Mīr Sharif was appointed Amīn and Ṣadr of the new province. In the following year, he served under Mān Singh in Kābul. In the 36th year, he was appointed in the same capacity, though with more extensive powers, to Bihār and Bengal. In the 43rd year, he received Ajmīr as $aqt\bar{a}^{\varsigma}$, and the Pargana of Mohān near Lakhnau, as $tuy\bar{u}l$. During the siege of Āsīr, he joined the Imperial camp with his contingent, and was well received by the emperor.

He is said to have risen to the rank of a Commander of Three Thousand. He was buried at Mohān. On his death, neither books nor official papers were found; his list of soldiers contained the names of his friends and clients, who had to refund him six months' wages per annum.

Jahangir in his memoirs (Tuzuk, p. 22) praises him very much.

The Tabaqāt says, "Mīr Sharīf belongs to the heretics of the age. He is well acquainted with sūfism and is at present (1001) in Bihār."

Note on the Nuglawiyya Sect (نقطویه).

It was mentioned above (p. 186) that Mîr Sharîf spread in India doctrines which resembled those of Maḥmūd of Basakhwān. The curious sect which Maḥmūd founded, goes by the name of Maḥmūdiyya, or Wāḥidiyya, or Nuqtawiyya, or Umanā. Maḥmud called himself Shakhs-i wāḥid, or "the individual", and professed to be the Imām Mahdī, whose appearance

The Lucknow edition of the Akbarnama (III, p. 629) says he was made at the same time a Commander of Four Thousand. This must be a mistake, because Mir Sharif was at Jahangir's accession a Commander of 2,500 (Tuzuk, p. 22).

Badā,oni (Ed. Bibl. Indica) has Basakhwin (with a long regulation) and in other Basakhwin (with a long regulation) and in other Basakhwin (with a long regulation) and in other land.

² Badā,oni (Ed. Bibl. Indica) has Basakhwān; the MSS. of the Masair, Basakhwān (with a long penultima) and in other places Basakhān without a w; the Calcutta edition of the Dabistan (p. 374) and Shea and Troyer's Translation have Masajwān—a shifting of the discritical points.

The name negrows was evidently used by Badā, onl, though the MSS. from which the Bibl. Indica edition was printed, have Nabasi, which was given on p. 185. For Umana, Shea's translation of the Dabistan has Imana; but had (umana) is, no doubt, the plural of amin.

on earth ushers in the end of the world. According to the Calcutta edition of the Dabistān and Shea's Translation, he lived about A.H. 600; but the MSS. of the Ma*āṣir have A.H. 800, which also agrees with Badā, oni's statement that Maḥmūd lived at the time of Tīmūr. The sect found numerous adherents in Īrān, but was extinguished by Shāh Abbās-i Māzī,¹ who killed them or drove them into exile.

Maḥmūd had forced into his service a passage from the Qur*ān (Sur. XVII, 81), 'asā an yab'aṣa-k' rabbu-k' maqām'n makmūd'n, "peradventure thy Lord vill raise thee to an honorable (maḥmūd) station." He maintained that the human body (jasad) had since its creation been advancing in purity, and that on its reaching a higher degree of perfection "Maḥmūd" would arise, as indicated in the passage from the Qur'ān, and with his appearance the dispensation of Muḥammad would come to an end. He taught the transmigration of souls, and said that the beginning of everything was the nuqta-yi khāk, or earth-atom, from which the vegetables, and from these the animals, arose. The term nuqta-yi khāk has given has to their name Nuqtawīs. For other of Maḥmūd's tenets, vide Shea's translation of the Dabistān, vol. III, pp. 12 to 26.

Some of Mahmud's doctrines must have been of interest to Akbar, whose leanings towards the "man of the millennium", transmigration of souls, etc., have been mentioned above, and Mir Sharif-i Amuli could not have done better than propounding the same doctrine at Court, and pointing out to Akbar as the restorer of the millennium.

The author of the SAlam Ārā*-yi Sikandarī, as the Ma*āsir says, mentions Mīr Sharīf-i Āmuli under the following circumstances. In 1002, the 7th year of Shāh SAbbās-i Māzī's reign, the astrologers of the age predicted, in consequence of certain very inauspicious conjunctions, the death of a great king, and as this prediction was universally rearred to Shāh SAbbās Jalālu 'd-Dīn Muḥammad of Tabrīz, who was looked upon as the greatest astronomer of the period, it was proposed that Shāh SAbbās should be aside royalty for the two or three days the dreaded conjunction was expected to last, and that a criminal who had been sentenced to death should sit on the throne. This extraordinary expedient was everywhere approved of; the criminals threw lots, and Yasuf the quiver-maker, who belonged to the heretical followers of Darwīsh Khusraw of Qazwin, was raised to the throne. He reigned for three days, and was toen kulled. Soon after, Darwīsh Khusraw was hanged. His ancestors had been well-diggers, but he was a dervish, and though he had been wise consigh

¹ Mass (ماني), i.e., who passed away, is the epithet which Historians give to Shah SAbbas I of Persia, the contemporary of Akbar and Jahangir.

never to speak of his Nuqtawiyya belief, he was known as one of the sect, and was accordingly killed. So also Mīr Sayyid Aḥmad of Kāshān, whom Abbās killed with his own sword. Among his papers treatises were found on the Nuqta doctrine, and also a letter addressed to him by Abū 'l-Fazl in Akbar's name. Mīr Sharīf-i Āmulī, a good poet and the head of the sect, heard of these persecutions, and fled from Astrābād to Hindūstān.

Regarding the last sentence, the author of the *Masāṣir* remarks that it involves an anachronism, for Mīr Sharīf was in India in 984, when Akbar was at Dīpālpūr in Mālwa; and besides, Sharīf-i Āmulī was mentioned in no Tazkira as a poet.

167. Hasan Beg Khān-i Badakhshī Shaykh 'Umari.1

Hasan Beg was a good soldier. In the 34th year, Akbar after his stay in Kashmir, marched to Zābulistān, and passed through the district of Pakhali, "which is 35 kos long and 25 broad, and lies west of Kashmir. In Pakhali, Sultan Husayn Khān-i Pakhaliwāl (No. 301) paid his respects. This Zamindar belonged to the descendants of the Qarlughs (قارلوغ), whom Timur on his return from India to Turan had left in Pakhali as garrison. After following Akbar's Court for a few days, Sultan Husayn Khān withdrew without leave, and the emperor ordered Hasan Beg to occupy Pakhali (Akbarnāma III, 591, 598). He speedily subdued the district. In the 35th year, during Hasan Beg's temporary absence at Court. Sultan Husayn Khan again rebelled, assumed the title of Sultan Nāsiru 'd-Dīn, and drove away Ḥasan Beg's men. But soon after, he had again to submit to Hasan Beg. In the 46th year, Hasan was made a Commander of Two Thousand and Five Hundred for his services in Bangash, and was put, towards the end of Akbar's reign, in charge of Kābul, receiving Fort Rohtas 2 (in the Panjab) as jāgīr.

In the beginning of Jahangir's reign, he was called from Kabul to Court. On his way, at Mathura (Muttra), Hasan Beg met Prince Khusraw, who had fled from Agra on Sunday, the 8th Zi Hijjah, 1014.3 From

¹ Badukhāhī is the adjective formed from Badukhān, as Kāshī from Kāshān. The words Shaykh Cumarī are to be taken as an adjective formed like Akbarshāhī, Jahānyīrī, ètc., which we find after the names of several grandees. Thus Shaykh Cumarī would mean "belonging to the servants of Shaykh Cumar", and this explanation is rendered may probable by the statement of historians that Hasan Beg belonged to the Bābariyān or "nobles of Bābar's Court".

Hasen Beg is often wrongly called Husayn Beg. Thus in the Turuk, p. 25 ff.; Padishāhn 1, p. 306; Akbarn. III, 598.

² Generally spelt رهناس, The fort in Bihār is spelt without waw, رهناس, though both are identical.

So the Tuzuk. The Matchir has the 20th, instead of the 8th. MSS, continually confound and and bar But Jahangir on his pursuit reached Hodal on the 10th Zi Hijjah and the Tuzuk is correct.

distrust as to the motives of the emperor, which led to his recall from Kābul, or "from the innate wickedness of Badakhshīs", he joined the Prince with his three hundred Badakhshi troopers, received the title of Khān Bābā, and got the management of all affairs. Another officer who attached himself to Khusraw, was Abdu 'r-Rahim, Diwan of Lahor. After the defeat near Bhairowal on the Bi,ah,1 the Afghans who were with the prince, advised him to retreat to the Eastern provinces of the Empire; but Hasan Beg proposed to march to Kābul, which, he said, had always been the starting-place of the conquerors of India; he had, moreover, four lacs of rupees in Rohtas, which were at the Prince's service. Hasan Beg's counsel was ultimately adopted. before he could reach Rohtas, Khusraw was captured on the Chanab. On the 3rd Safar 1015, the Prince, Hasan Beg, and Abdu 'r-Rahim, were taken before Jahangir in the Bagh-i Mirza Kamran, a villa near Lähor, Khusraw himself, according to Chingiz's law (baterah i Chingizi (1)), with his hands tied and fetters on his feet. Hasan Beg after making a useless attempt to incriminate others (p. 500), was put into a cow-hide and Abdu 'r-Rahim into a donkey's skin, and in this state they were tied to donkeys, and carried through the bazars. "As cow-hides get dry sooner than donkey-skins," Hasan died after a few hours from suffocation: but Abdu 'r Rahim was after 24 hours still alive, and received, at the request of several courtiers, free pardon.2 The other accomplices and the troopers of Khusraw were impaled: their corpses were arranged in a double row along the road which leads from the Bagh-i Mīrzā Kāmrān to the Fort of Lahor, and Khusraw, scated on a sorry elephant, was led along that way. People had been posted at short intervals, and pointing to the corpses, kept calling our to Khusraw, "Behold, your friends, your servants, do homage to you."

Hasan Beg was mentioned above on p. 370. His son Isfandiyār Khān, was under Shāhjahān, a commander of 1,500. He served in Bengal, and died in the 16th year of Shāhjahān a reign (Pādishāhn, I, 476; I. b. 304). The Sārif Beg-i Shaykh SUmarī mentioned in the Pādishāhn. (I, b. 319) appears to be a relation of his.

168. Sheroya Khan, son of Sher Afkan Khan.

Sher Afkan Khan was the son of Quch Beg. Quch Beg served under Humayun, and was killed in the successful attempt made by several

¹ Vide p. 456 note. There is another Bhairowal between Wazirabad and Siyalkot, south of the Chanab.

⁴ In Zū T-Hijjah, 1018, he got an appointment as a kuzhāshī, or commander of 100 and was sent to Kashmir (Tuzuk, p. 79). In the Tuzuk, he is called \$4bds 'r Rabim Khār, Abdu 'r-Rahim " the Ass".

grandees to save Maryam Makānī, Akbar's mother, after the fatal battle of Chausā (vide No. 96, p. 450). When Humāyūn fled to Persia, Sher Afkan remained with Mīrzā Kāmrām in Kābul; but he joined the emperor on his return from Īrān, and was made governor of Qalāt. Later he received Zaḥāk-Bāmiyān as jāgīr, but went again over to Kāmrān. Humāyūn's, soon after, captured and killed him.

Sheroya Khān served at first under Mun'im (No. 11) in Bengal and Orīsā. In the 26th year he was appointed to accompany Prince Murād to Kābul. In the 28th year, he served under 'Abdu 'r-Raḥīm (No. 29) in Gujrāt,' and was present in the battle of Sarkich (Akbarnāma III, 408, 422). In the 30th year, he served under Matlab Khān 'No. 83) against Jalāla Tārīkī (p. 441). In the 39th year, he was made a Khān, and was appointed to Ajmīr. According to the Tabaqāt he was a Hazarī in 1001.

169. Nazar Be Uzbak.

The Akbarnāma (III, p. 500) says, "On the same day 1 Nazar Be, and his sons, Qanbar Be, Shādī Be (No. 367), and Bāqī Be (No. 368), were presented at Court, and were favourably received by the emperor."

Shādī Be distinguished himself in the expedition under Matlab Khān (No. 83) against the Tārīkīs. He may be the Shādī Khān Shādī Beg. mentioned in the *Pādishāhnāma* (I, b. 308) as a commander of One Thousand. Be is the abbreviation of Beg. Nazar Be is not to be confounded with Nazar (?) Beg (No. 247).

170. Jalāl <u>Kh</u>ān, son of Muḥammad <u>Kh</u>ān, son of Sultān Ādam, the Gakkhar.

171. Mubarak Khan, son of Kamal Khan, the Gakkhar.

The Gakkhars are a tribe inhabiting, according to the Ma^{*}āṣir, the hilly districts between the Bahat and the Indus.² At the time of Zayn^u '1-ʿṣĀbidīn, king of Kashmīr, a Ghaznīn noble of the name of Malik Kid (کید or کید), who was a relation of the then ruler of Kābul, took away

When the news was brought to Akbar that Man Singh, soon after the defeat of the Imperialists, and the death of Bir Bar in the Khaybar Pass, had defeated the Tarikis at

CAlī Masjid (end of the 30th year, or beginning of Rabīt I, 994).

Mr. J. G. Delmerick informs me that the 'takkhars inhabited the hilly parts of the Rawul Pindi and Jhelam districts from Khānpūr on the borders of the Hazāra district along the lower range of hills skirting the Tahsīls of Rāwul Pindi, Kuhūta, and Gūjar Khān, as far as Domeli in the Jehlam district. Their ancient strongholds were Phaiwāla. Sultānpir, and Dāngali. They declare that they are descended from the Kaianian kings of Īrān. Their ancestor Kid invaded Tibet, where he and his descendants reigned for ten generations. His tenth descendant Kab conquered Kashmīr, and took possession of half of it. The Gakkhars then reigned for 16 generations after Kab in Kashmīr. The 16th descendant, Zayn Shāh, fied to Afghānistān, where he died. His son, Gakkhar Shāh, came to the Panjāb with Mahmūd of Ghazni, and was made lord of the Sind Sāgar Du,āb. Malik Bīr is said to have been the grandfather of Trtār, whose father was Malik Pīlū. Vide Mr. Delmerick's History of the Gakkhars, Journal A.S.B., 1871. Vide p. 621.

these districts from the Kashmīrīs, and gradually extended his power over the region between the Nīlāb (Indus) and the Sawāliks and the frontier of modern Kashmir.1 Malik Kid was succeeded by his son Malik Kalan, and Malik Kalan by Malik Bir. After Bir, the head of the tribe was Sultan Tatar, who rendered Babar valuable service, especially in the war with Rānā Sānkā. Sultān Tatār had two sons, Sultān Sārang and Sultan Adam. Sarang fought a great deal with Sher Shah and Salim Shah, capturing and selling a large number of Afghans. The Fort Rohtas was commenced by Sher Shah with the special object of keeping the Gakkhars in check. Sher Shah in the end captured Sultan Sarang and killed him, and confined his son Kamāl Khān in Gwāliyār, without, however, subjugating the tribe. Sultan Adam was now looked upon as the head of the clan He continued to oppose the Afghans. Once Salim Shah gave the order to blow up a portion of the Gwaliyar Fort, where the state prisoners were kept. Kamal Khan, who was still confined, had a miraculous escape and was in consequence pardoned. Kamāl went to his kinsfolk; but as Sultan Adam had usurped all power, he lived obscurely, with his brother Sasid Khan, avoiding conflict with his uncle, Immediately after Akbar's accession, however, Kamal paid his respects to the emperor at Jalindhar, was well received, and distinguished himself in the war with Hemu and during the siege of Mankot. In the 3rd year he was sent against the Miyana Afghans, who had revolted near Saronj (Malwa) and was made on his return jagirdar of Karah and Fathpur Huswah. In the 6th year, he served under Khan Zaman (No. 13) against the Afghans under the son of Muhariz Khan Addi (p. 320). In the 8th year (970), he was called to Court, and as Akbar wished to reward him, Kamāl Khān begged the emperor to put him in possession of the Gakkhar district, which was still in the hands of his usurping uncle; Akbar ordered the Khān-i Kalān (No. 16) and other Panjābī grandees to divide the district into two parts, and to give one of them to Kamal Khan; if Sultan Adam was not satisfied with the other, they should occupy the country and punish Sultan Adam. The latter alternative was rendered necessary by the resistance of Sultan Adam. The Panjab,

army, therefore, and Kamāl Khān entered the Gakkhar district, and defeated and captured Ādam after a severe engagement near the "Qaṣba of Hīlā". ¹ Sulṭān Ādam and his son Lashkarī were handed over to Kamāl Khān, who was put in possession of the district. Kamāl Khān killed Lashkarī, and put Sulṭān Ādam into prison, where he soon after died. (Akbarnāma, II, 240 ff.)

It is stated in the <u>Tabaqāt</u> that Kamāl <u>Kh</u>ān was a Commander of Five Thousand, distinguished for courage and bravery, and died in 972.²

Mubārak Khān and Jalāl Khān served in the 30th year under Mīrzā Shāhrukh, Bhagwān Dās, and Shāh Qulī Māḥram, in Kashmīr (Akbarnāma, III, 485). The Tabaqāt calls both, as also Sa^çīd Khān, Commanders of Fifteen Hundred. A daughter of Sa^çīd Khān was married to Prince Salīm; vide No. 225, note.

172. Tash Beg Khan Mughul, [Taj Khan].

Tāsh Beg served at first under Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, king of Kābul, and entered, after the death of his master, Akbar's service. He received a jāgīr in the Panjāb. According to the Akbarnāma (III, 489), he went with Bīr Bar (No. 85) to Sawād and Bijor, and distinguished himself under 'Abdu' 'l-Maṭlab (No. 83) against the Tārīkīs (III, 541).

In the 40th year, he operated against the \$\cap\$\text{Isa} \text{Kh}\text{ayl} Afghans, though with little success. Two years later, he served under Asaf \text{Kh}\text{an} (No 98) in the conquest of Mau, and received the title of \$Taj \text{Kh}\text{an}\$. When Raja Basū again rebelled (47th year), \text{Kh}\text{waja Sulayman, Bakh}\text{sh}\text{of} of the Panjab, was ordered to march against him with the contingents of Qulij \text{Kh}\text{an} (No. 42), \text{Husayn Beg-i Shaykh \$Umar\text{of} (No. 167), Ahmad Beg-i K\text{abul\text{i}} (No. 191), and T\text{aj Kh}\text{an}. Without waiting for the others, T. \text{Kh} moved to Path\text{an}. Whilst pitching his tents, Jam\text{il Beg, T. \text{Kh}.'s son, received news of B\text{as}\text{u}'s approach. He hastily attacked him, and was killed with fifty men of his father's contingent.

Jahangir, on his accession, promoted him to a command of 3,000. In the second year of his reign, he officiated as governor of Kābul till the arrival of Shāh Beg Khān (No. 57). He was afterwards appointed governor of Thathah, where he died in the ninth year (1023).

¹ Not Hailā (مولي), south of Chiliānwālā between the Jhelam and the Chanāb; but Hīlā, or Hīl, which, Mr. Delmerick says, is a ferry on the Jhelam near Dāngalī, Sultān Ādam's stronghold.

is so in my MSN. of the Tabaqat. The author of the Ma dair found 970 in his MS., which would be the same year in which Kamal Khan was restored to his paternal inheritance; hence he adds a blad, the was certainly alive in the middle of 972. (Abbaraama, I, p. 302.)

173. Shaykh Abdu 'llāh, son of Shaykh Muḥammad Chaws [of Gwāliyār].

Shaykh Abdu 'llah at first lived a retired and saintly life, but entered subsequently the Emperor's service. He distinguished himself, and is said to have risen to the dignity of a Commander of Three Thousand. He died when young.

His brother Ziyā*u'llāh lived as a Faqīr. and studied during the lifetime of his father under the renowned saint Wajīhu 'd-Dīn in Gujrāt, who

himself was a pupil of Muhammad Ghaws.

Biographies of Muḥammad Ghaws (died 970 at Āgra, buried in Gwāliyār) will be found in the Masāṣir, Badā, mi (III, p. 4), and the Khazīnat 'l-Aṣfiyā' (p. 969). He was disliked by Bayrām Khān, Shaykh Gadā,ī, and Shaykh Mubārak, Abū 'l-Fazl's father. Vide also Masāṣir-i sālamgīrī, p. 166.

174. Rāja Bājsingh, son of Rāja Askaran, the Kachhwaha.

Rāja Askaran is a brother of Rāja Bihārī Mal (No. 23). He served in the 22nd year with Ṣādiq Khān (No. 43) against Rāja Madhukar of Udcha,¹ and in the 25th year under Todar Māl in Bihār. In the 30th year, he was made a Commander of One Thousand, and served in the same year under Azīz Koka (No. 21) in the Dakhin. In the 31st year, when Akbar appointed two officers to each ṣūba, Askaran and Shaykh Ibrāhīm (No. 82) were appointed to Āgra. In the 33rd year, he served a second time against Rāja Madhukar under Shihāb Khān (No. 26), and died soon after.

Abū 'l-Fazl has not given his name in this list of grandees. The Tabaqāt savs he was a Commander of Three Thousand.

Rāj Sing, his son, received the title of Rāja after the death of his father. He served for a long time in the Dakhin, was called in the 44th year to Court, and was appointed commandant of Gwāliyār. In the 45th year, he joined the Imperia! army, which under Akbar besieged Fort Āsīr. In the 47th year, he pursued, together with Rāy Rāyān Patr Dās (No. 196) the notorious Bir Singh Deo Bundela, who at Jahāngīr's instigation had murdered Abū 'l-Fazl. For his distinguished services in the operations against the Bundela clan, he was promoted, and held, in the 50th year the rank of a Commander of 4,000, 3,000 horse. In the 3rd year, of Jahāngīr's reign, he served in the Dakhin, where he died in 1024 (10th year).

¹ Dijeka is generally spelt on the maps troubs. It lies near Jhānai on the left bank of the Betwa. The name of the river "Dasthāra" mentioned on p. 382, is differently spelled in the MSS. In one place the Ma*āsir has Satdabārā.

Rām Dās, his son, was a Commander of 1,000, 400 horse. He received, in the 12th year, the title of Rāja, and was made, in the same year, a Commander of 1,500, 700 horse.

One of his grandsons, Prasuttam Singh, turned Muhammadan in the 6th year of Shāhjahan's reign, and received the name of \$\sigma Ibadatmand.\frac{1}{2}\$

175. Ray Bhoj, son of Ray Surjan Hada (No. 96).

When Būndī, in the 22nd year, was taken from Daudā, elder brother of Rāy Bhoj, the latter was put in possession of it. Bhoj served under Mān Singh against the Afghāns of Orīsā, and under Shaykh Abū 'l-Fazl in the Dakhin (Akbarn., III, 851, 855).

His daughter was married to Jagat Singh (No. 160).

In the first year of his reign, Jahangir wished to marry Jagat Singh's daughter. Ray Bhoj, her grandfather, refused to give his consent, and Jahangir resolved to punish him on his return from Kabul. But Ray Bhoj, in the end of 1016, committed suicide. The marriage, however, took place on the 4th Rabis I, 1017, (Tuzuk, pp. 68, 69).

It is said that Rāthor and Kachhwāha princesses entered the imperial Harem; but no Hādā princess was ever married to a Timuride.

XIV. Commanders of Eight Hundred.

176. Sher Khwaja.

He belonged to the Sayyids of Itāwa (سادات اتائي). His mother was a Naqshbandī (p. 466, note 2). Sher Kh.'s name was "Pādishāh Khwāja", but Akbar called him on account of his bravery and courage Sher Khwāja.

In the 30th year, Sh. Kh. served under Sa'īd Khān Chaghtā'ī (No. 25) against the Yūsuſzā,īs, and afterwards under Sulṭān Murād in the Dakhin. In the 40th year, the Prince sent with him a corps to Paṭan, where he distinguished himself against Ikhlāṣ Khān. He continued to serve in the Dakhin under Abū 'l-Faẓl. In the engagement near Bīr he was wounded. He entered the town victoriously but was besieged. From want of provisions, his men had to subsist on horse-flesh. As in consequence of the swelling of the Gangā (Godāvarī) he did not expect assistance from the north, he resolved to try a last sortic and perish, when Abū 'l-Faẓl arrived and raised the siege. Abū 'l-Faẓl proposed to leave his own son 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān at Bīr; but Sh. Kh. refused to quit his post. In the 46th year, he received a drum and a flag.

Regarding the Kachhwihas, see my article in the Calcutta Review, for April, 1871, entitled "A Chapter from Muhammadan History".

Sh. <u>Kh</u>. remained in favour during the reign of Jahangir. He was with the emperor when Mahabat <u>Kh</u>an near the Bahat had taken possession of Jahangir's person. After Jahangir's death, he served with Aṣaf <u>Kh</u>an against Shahryar in Lahor.

In the 1st year of Shāhjahan's reign, he was made a Commander of 4,000, with 1,000 horse, and received the title of <u>Khwāja Bāqī Khān</u>. He was also appointed governor of Thathah, vice Mīrzā ʿĪṣā Tarkhān (p. 392). He died on his way to his province in 1037. Pādishāhn., I, 181, 200.

His son Khwāja Hāshim was made a commander of 500 (Pādishāhnāma, I, b. 327). Another son, Asad^u 'llah, is mentioned as a Commander of 900, 300 horse, (Pādishāhn., II, 738).

177. Mīrzā Khurram, son of Khān-i A^czam Mīrzā ^cAzīz Koka (No. 21).

He has been mentioned above, p. 346.

XV. Communders of Seven Hundred.

178. Quraysh Sultan, son of Abdu 'r-Rashid Khan, king of Kashghar.

182. Sultān ^cAbd^u 'llāh, brother (by another mother) of Quraysh Sultān

310. - Shah Muhammad, son of Quraysh Sultan.

Quraysh Sultān is a descendant of Chingiz Khān.¹. His genealogical tree is given in the Akbarnāma (III, 584) and the Tārīkh-i Rashīdī as on following page.

After the death of 'Abd'' r-Rashid Khān (16), 'Abd'' l-Karīm Khān, elder brother of Quraysh Sultān, succeeded to the throne of Kāshghar. He treated his relations well, partly in fulfilment of his father's wish, partly from natural benevolence. But Khudabanda, son of Quraysh Sultān, quarrelled with Muḥammad Khān, his uncle, and Khudābanda occupied the town of Tarfān. 'Abd'' 'llāh, doubting the loyatty of his relations, ordered Quraysh Sultān to go to Makkah. Q. went first with his family to Badakhshān and Balkh, and lastly with the permission of 'Abd'' 'llāh Khān of Tūrān, to Hindūstān. He met Akhar, in the 34th year, at Shihāb'' 'd-Dīn-pūr, when the emperor was just returning from Kashmīr, was well received, and appointed to a command of Seven Hundred.

Quraysh died in the 37th year (1000), at Hajipūr.

179. Qarā Bahādur, son of Mīrzā Maḥmūd, who is the paternal uncle of Mīrzā Ḥaydar [Gurgānī].

¹ Chingiz Khān in the historice is often called Qa*du-i Busurg.

- Chingiz Khān.
- Chaghtagi Khan.
- Mawatkan (second son of Chaghtasi Khan).
- the MSS. give various readings).
- Yarāq¹ Khān (called after his conversion Sultān Ghiyas^u 'd-Dīn).
- Dawa Khan.
- Alsīnūqā, or Alsānūqā, Khān.
- 8. Tughlug Timür Khān.
- Khizr Khwāja Khān * (father-in-law of Tīmūr).
- (a) Muhammad Khān . . . (b) Sham S Jahān Khān . . . (c) Nagah Jahān Khān.
- 11. (a) Sher Muhammad Khan. (b) Sher CAli Ughlan.
- 12. Uwais Khan, son of Sher SAli Ughlan.
- 13. Yūnas Khān, father of Bābar's mother.
- 14. Sultan Ahmad Khan, known as Alancha Khan.
- Sultan Abū Sacid Khan.
- 16. SAbdu 'r-Rashid Khan.
- 17. (1) SAbd" 'l-Karıın Khan. (2) Quraysh Sultan (3) Sultan SAbd" 'lish (No. 168). (No. 178).
 - (1) Shah Muhammad (No. 310).
 - (2) Khudābanda.

Like the preceding, Qara Bahadur belonged to the royal family of Kāshghar. Mirzā Haydar's father, Muhammad Husayn, was the son of Bābar's maternal aunt.

Mirzā Ḥaydar, during his stay in Kāshghar, had accompanied the

[1 Buraq, VaniSbery, p. 153.--B].

Daws invaded India during the reign of CAlast 'd-Din; vide Journal As. Soc. Bengal for 1869, p. 194, and 1870, p. 44.

* His daughter is called Tukul Khānum Als JG. It is said that Timūr after the marriage received the title of Gurgan JGS, the Mughul term for the Persian damad, a son-in-law. Hence Timurides are often called Gurganis.

Mirzā Ḥaydar was a historian and poet. He wrote in 951 the Tarikh-i SAbda'r Rashidi, in honour of \$Abd" 'r-Rashid, king of Kashghar. The villa known as Bagh-i Safa was

erected by him. Akbarnamu, III, 585.

The MS. of the Tarikh-i Rashidi in the Library of the Asiatic Society (Persian MSS., No. 155, three parts, 19 lines per page) is a fair, though modern copy, and was brought by Capt. H. Strachey from Yarkand.

The Tarikh commences with the reign of Tughluq Timur, who was converted to Islam by Mawlana Arshadu 'd-Din, and goes down to the reign of SAbdu 'r-Rashid. The second daftar contains the Memoirs of Mirza Haydar. The style is elegant.

son of Sultan Abū Sasid on several expeditions to Kashmir, and had thus acquired some knowledge of the people and the state of that province. He subsequently went over Badakhshān to India, and arrived at Lāhor, where Mīrzā Kāmrān made him his nā ib during his absence on an expedition to Qandahar, which the Shah of Persia had taken from Khwaja Kalan Beg. M. Haydar afterwards accompanied Kamran to Agra, and tried on several occasions to persuade Humayun to take possession of Kashmir. When the emperor after his second defeat by Sher Shah retreated to Lahor, he gave M. Haydar a small corps and sent him to Kashmir. The country being in a distracted state, M. H. took possession of it without bloodshed, and ruled as absolute king for ten years. But afterwards he ordered the khutba to be read, and coins to be struck, in Humāyūn's name. He was killed in 958 by some treacherous Kashmīris.

The father of Qara Bahadur was Mîrza Mahmud; hence Q. B. was M. Haydar's cousin. As he had been with M. H. in Kashmir, Akbar, in the 6th year, ordered him to re-conquer the province, and gave him a large corps. But Q. B. delayed his march, and when he arrived in the hot season at Rajor, he found the passes fortified. Soon afterwards, he was attacked and defeated by Ghāzī Khān, who had usurped the throne of Kashmir. Q. B. discomfited returned to Akbar.

In the 9th year, he accompanied the emperor to Malwa, and was appointed, on Akbar's return, governor of Mandu. He died soon after.

For a relation of Qara Bahadur, vide No. 183.

180. Muzaffar Husayn Mīrzā, son of Ibrāhim Husayn Mīrzā [son of Muhammad Sultan Mirza].

Muzaffar Husayn Mirzā is a Timuride. His tree is as follows:-

CUmar Shaykh Mirza (second son of Timur). Mirza Baygra. Mirza Mansur. M. Baygrá.1 Wais Mirza. Muhammad Sultan Mirzā.

- (1) Ulugh Mirza. (2) Shah Mirza. (3) Ibrahim (4) Muhammad Hussyn M. (5) Masfud Hussyn M. Humyn M. (6) SAqil Husayn M. (1) Sikandar Mirzā, eice Ulugh Mirza. Muzaffar Humyn (2) Mahmud Sultan M., Mireā (No. 180). aive Shah Mirza.
 - 1 His brother is Abu 'l-Chazt Sultan Hasayn Mirza.—B.]

The mother of Muḥammad Sultān Mīrzā was the daughter of the renowned Sultān Ḥusayn Mīrzā, king of Khurāsān, at whose Court Muḥammad Sultān Mīrzā held a place of distinction. After Sultān Ḥusayn's death, Muḥammad Sultān Mīrzā went to Bābar, who treated him with every distinction. Humāyūn also favoured him, though on several occasions he rebelled, and extended his kindness to his sons, Ulugh Mīrzā and Shāh Mīrzā, who had given him repeatedly cause of dissatisfaction. Ulugh Mīrzā was killed in the expedition against the Hazāras, and Shāh Muḥammad died, soon after, a natural death.

Ulugh Mīrzā had two sons, Sikandar Mīrzā and Maḥmūd Sultān Mīrzā; but Humāyūn changed their names, and gave Sikandar the name of Ulugh Mīrzā, and Maḥmūd Sultān Mīrzā that of Shāh Mīrzā.

As Muḥammad Sultān Mīrzā was old, Akbar excused him from attending at Court (taklīf-i bār), and gave him the pargana of Aszampūr in Sambhal as a pension. He also bestowed several other places upon his grandsons Ulughand Shāh Mīrzā. At Aszampūr in his old age, Muḥammad Sultān M. had four other sons born to him—1. Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn Mīrzā, 2. Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā, 3. Massūd Ḥusayn Mīrzā, and 4. sāqil Ḥusayn Mīrzā.

In the 11th year of Akbra's reign, Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, king of Kābul, invaded India and besieged Lāhor; and when Akbar marched against him, Ulugh M. and Shāh M. rebelled. They were joined in their revolt by their (younger) uncles Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn M. and Muḥammad Ḥusayn M. The rebellious Mīrzās went plundering from Sambhal, to Khān Zamān (No. 13) at Jaunpūr; but as they could not agree with him, they marched on Dihlī, and from there invaded Mālwa, the governor of which, Muḥammad Qulī Khān Barlās (No. 31), was with the emperor. The consequence of their revolt was, that Akbar imprisoned the old Muḥammad Sultān Mīrzā. He died a short time after in his prison at Bi,ānā. In the 12th year, when Akbar had defeated and killed Khān Zamān, and conquered Chītor, he made Shihāb Khān (No. 26) governor of Mālwa, and ordered him to punish the Mīrzās.

About this time Ulugh M. died. The other Mīrzās unable to withstand Shihāb Khān fled to Chingiz Khān (p. 419), who then ruled over a portion of Gujrāt. Chingiz Khān was at war with Istimād Khān (No. 67) of Ahmadābād; and as the Mīrzās had rendered him good service, he gave them Bahrōch as jāgīr. But their behaviour in that town was so cruel that Chingiz Khān had to send a corps against them. Though the Mīrzās defeated his troops they withdrew to Khāndesh, and re-entered Mālwa. They were vigorously attacked by Ashraf Khān (No. 74), Ṣādīq Khān

No. 43), and others, who besieged Rantanbhūr (13th year), and were pursued to the Narbadā, where many soldiers of the Mīrzās perished in crossing. In the meantime Chingiz Khān had been murdered by Jhujhār Khān and as Gujrāt was in a state of disorder, the Mīrzās with little fighting, occupied Champānīr, Bahrōch, and Sūrat.

In the 17th year, Akbar entered Gujrāt and occupied Aḥmadabad. Dissensions having broken out among the Mīrzās, Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn M. left Bahrôch, and arrived at a place 8 miles from Akbar's camp. Most of Akbar's Amīrs had the day before been sent away towards Sūrat in search of Muḥammad Ḥusayn M. Hearing of Ibrahīm Ḥusayn's arrival, the emperor dispatched Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) after the Amīrs whilst he himself marched to the Mahindri River, where it flows past the town of Sarnāl. Akbar had about 40 men with him, few of whom had armour; but when the Amīrs returned, the number rose to about 200. The signal of attack was given and after a hard fight, Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn M. was defeated. He fled towards Āgra. whilst his wife, Gulrukh Begam, a daughter of Mīrzā Kāmrān, on hearing of his defeat, fled with Muzaffar Ḥusayn Mīrzā from Sūrat to the Dakhin.

Akbar now resolved to invest Sürat, and left M. Azīz Koka (No. 21) with a garrison in Aḥmadābād, ordering at the same time Quṭbu 'd-Dīn (No. 28) to join Azīz with the Mālwa contingent. Muḥammad Ḥusayn M. and Shāh M. thereupon united their troops with those of Sher Khān Fūlādī, a Gujrātī noble, and besieged Paṭan. Azīz marched against them, and defeated them (p. 432). Muḥammad Ḥusayn M. then withdrew to the Dakhin.

Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn M. and his younger brother Massūd Ḥusayn M. having met with resistance at Nāgor (p. 384), invaded the Panjāb. The governor, Ḥusayn Qulī Khān (No. 24) at that time besieged Nagarkot, and hearing of the inroad of the Mīrzās, made peace with the Rāja, attacked the rebels, defeated them, and captured Massud. Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn fled towards Multān, and was soon afterwards wounded, and captured by some Balūchīs. He then fell into the hands of Sasūd Khān (No. 25) and died of his wounds.

After Akbar's return to Āgra, Muḥammad Ḥusayn Mīrzā left the Dakhin, invaded Gujrāt, and took possession of several towns. He was defeated at Kambhā, it by Nawrang Khān (p. 354) and joined the party of Ikhtiyāru 'l-Mulk and the sons of Sher Khān Fūlādī. They then marched against Aḥmadābad and besieged M. SAzīz Koka. To relieve him Akbar hastened by forced marches from Āgra to Paṭan, and arrived, on the 5th Jumāda I, 981 (p. 458), with about 1,000 horse,

at a place 3 kos from Aḥmadābād. Leaving Ikhtiyār to continue the siege, Muḥammad Ḥusayn opposed the emperor, but was defeated and wounded. In his flight his horse fell over a bramble, when two troopers captured him, and led him to Akbar. Each of the two men claimed the customary reward, and when Bīr Bar, at Akbar's request, asked Muḥammad Ḥusayn which of the two had taken him prisoner, he said, "The salt of the emperor has caught me; for those two could not have done it." Ikhtiyār, on hearing of the defeat and capture of Muḥammad Ḥusayn, raised the siege, and fled with his 5,000 troopers. Akbar at once pursued him. Ikhtiyār got detached from his men, and in jumping over a shrub fell with his horse to the ground, when Suhrāb Turkmān who was after him, cut off his head, and took it to the emperor. Muḥammad Ḥusayn also had, in the meantime, been executed by Ray Singh (No. 44), whom Akbar had put over him.

Shah Mīrzā had fled in the beginning of the battle.

In the 22nd year, Muzaffar Husayn Mīrzā, whom his mother had taken to the Dakhin, entered Gujrāt and created disturbances. He was defeated by Rāja Todar Mal and Vazīr Khān (p. 379) and fled to Jūnāgadh. When the Raja had gone, Muzaffar besieged Vazīr in Ahmadābad. During the siege he managed to attach Vazīr's men to his cause, and was on the point of entering the town, when a cannon ball killed Mihr Alī Kolābī, who had led the young Muzaffar into rebellion. This so affected Muzaffar that he raised the siege, though on the point of victory, and withdrew to Nazrbar. Soon after, he was captured by Raja Alī of Khandesh, and handed over to Akbar. He was kept for some time in prison; but as he showed himself loyal, Akbar, in the 36th year, released him, and married him to his eldest daughter, the Sultan Khanum. He also gave him the Sarkar of Qanawj astuyūl. Muzaffar, however, was addicted to the pleasures of wine, and when complaints were brought to Akbar, he cancelled the tuyul, and again imprisoned him. But he soon after set him at liberty. In the 45th ear (1008), when Akbar besieged Asir, he sent Muzaffar to besiege Fort Lalang. But he quarrelled with Khwaja Fathu 'llah, and one day, he decamped for Guirāt. His companions deserted him; and dressing himself in the garb of a faqir, he wandered about between Sūrat and Baglāna, when he was caught by Khwāja Waisī and taken before the Emperor. After having been imprisoned for some time, he was let off in the 46th year. He died, not long after, a natural death.

His sister, Nūru 'n-Nisā, was married to Prince Salīm (vide No. 225, note). Gulrukh Begam, Muzaffar's mother, was still alive in 1023, when she was visited on her sick-bed by Jahāngīr at Ajmīr.

181. Qunduq Khan, brother of the well-known Bayram Oghlan.

The Akbarnāma (I, 411) mentions a Qundūq Sultān, who accompanied Humāyūn on his march to India.

For Qunduq, some MSS. read Qunduz. A grandee of this name served

in Bengal under Muncim, and died at Gaur (p. 407).

182. Sultān ʿAbdu 'llāh, brother (by another mother) of Quraysh Sultān (No. 178).

183. Mīrzā 'Abd" 'r-Raḥmān, son of Mīrzā Ḥaydar's brother (vide No. 179).

184. Qiya Khan, son of Sahib Khan.

In the Tabaqāt and the Akbarnāma he is generally called حسن, which may mean "Qiyā, the beautiful", or "Qiyā, son of Ṣāḥib Ḥasan". Proper nouns ending in a long vowel rarely take the Izāfat.¹ It looks as if the reading صاحب خان of the Ā'īn MSS. was a mistake. The words صاحب عسن are intended to distinguish him from Qiyā Gung (No. 33).

Qiya served under Shamsu 'd-Din Atga against Bayram (p. 332).

He was also present in the battle of Sarangpur (vide No. 120).

185. Darbär Khān, 'Ināyat [ullah], son of Takaltū Khān, the Reader. Darbār's father was Shāh Tahmāsp's reader. 'Ināyat, on his arrival in India, was appointed to the same post by Akbar, and received the title of Darbār Khān. He served in the 9th year (end of 971) in Mālwa, and in the 12th year, in the last war with Khān Zamān. He accompanied the emperor to Rantanbhūr, and when Akbar, in the 14th year, after the conquest of the fort, made a pilgrimage to the tomb of Mu'sīn-i Chishtī in Ajmīr, Darbār Khān took sick leave, and died on his arrival at Āgra.

According to his dying wish—to the disgust of the author of the Matasir—he was buried in the mausoleum of one of Akbar's dogs, which he had built. The dog had shown great attachment to its imperial

master.

186. Abdu 'r-Rahman, son of Mucayvid Dulday.

The name Dūlday had been explained above on p. 388. 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān's great-grandfather, Mīr Shāh Malik, had served under Tīmūr. 'Abdu 'r-Raḥmān was killed in a fight with the Bihār rebel Dalpat. Vide under his son Barkhurdār, No. 328, and under No. 146. Another son is mentioned below, No. 349.

¹ Thus you say الكرس مادون, for ماكر مادون; the accursed Hulagü.

187. Qāsim Alī Khān.

When Akbar, in the 10th year, moved against Khān Zamān (No. 13), Qāsim Alī Khan held Ghazīpur. In the 17th year, he served in the siege of Sūrat, and in the following year, with Khān Alam (No 58) in the conquest of Patna under Muncim. For some reason he returned to Court, and took Shujāsat Khān (No. 51) a prisoner to Munsim, whom he had slandered. In the 22nd year, he served under Sadiq (No. 43) against Madhukar Bundela, and in the 25th year, under Azīz Koka (No. 21) in Bihar. In the 26th year, he was employed to settle the affairs of Hajī Begam, daughter of the brother of Humāyūn's mother (taghā*ī zāda-yi wālida-yi Jannat-āstānī), who after her return from Makkah (see under 146) had been put in charge of Humāyūn's tomb in Dihlī, where she died. In the 31st year, when Akbar appointed two officers for each Şūba, Q. A. and Fath Khān Tughluq were sent to Audh. He returned, in the 35th year, from Khayrābād to Court, and soon after received Kālpī as jāgīr. "Nothing also is known of him." Ma^{*}āsir. brother, vide No. 390.

188. Baz Bahādur, son of Sharīf Khān (No. 63).

Vide above, p. 415.

189. Sayyid Abdu 'llah, son of Mir Khwananda.

Some MSS. have "Khwānd" instead of "Khwānanda." Sayyid 'Abdu'llāh had been brought up at Court. In the 9th year, he served in the pursuit of 'Abdu'llāh Khān Uzbak. In the 17th year, he was with the Khān-i Kalān (No. 16) in the first Gujrāt war. Later, he served under Mun'im in Bengal, and was with Khān 'Ālam (No. 58) in the battle of Takaroī (p. 406). In 984, he brought the news of Da'ūd's defeat and death at Āgmaḥal (p. 350) to Akbar. During the Bengal military revolt, he served under Mīrzā 'Azīz (No. 21) and under Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80), chiefly against Ma'ṣūm-i Farankhūdī (No. 157). In the 31st year, Akbar sent him to Qāsim Khān (No. 59) in Kashmīr. In the 34th year (997), he was one night surprised by a body of Kashmīrīs, and killed with nearly three hundred Imperialists.

190. Dhārū, son of Rāja Todar Mal (No. 39).

Vide above, p. 378.

191. Ahmad Beg-i Kābulī.

Ahmad Beg traces his origin to Mīr Ghiyāşu'd'Dīn Tarkhān, a Chaghtā'l noble who served under Tīmūr. Like Shāh Beg (No. 57), Tāj Khān

¹ Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk mentions a Qāsim SAlī on p. 58, l. 2 from below; but according to the Ma²agir, we have there to read Qāsim Beg for Qāsim SAlī.

(No. 172), Abū 'l-Qāsim (No. 199), Ma[°]ṣūm <u>Kh</u>ān (p. 476, note 1), and Takhta Beg (No. 195), A. B. entered, after M. Muḥammad Ḥakīm's death, Akbar's service. He was made a commander of 700, and received, in 1003, on the removal of Yūsuf <u>Kh</u>ān-i Razawī (No. 35), a jāgīr in Kashmīr. He married the sister of Ja[°]far Beg Āsaf <u>Kh</u>ān. (No. 98).

During the reign of Jahangir he rose to the post of a commander of 3,000, and received the title of <u>Khān</u>, and also a flag. He was for some time governor of Kashmīr. On his removal, he went to Court, and died.

From the Tuzuk we see that Ahmad Beg in the first year of Jahangir was made a commander of 2,000, and held Peshawar as jagir. In the second year he was ordered to punish the Afghan tribes in Bangash, and was for his services there promoted, in the 5th year, to a command of 2,500. In the 9th year, in consequence of complaints made by Qulij Khan (No: 42), he was called to Court, and confined to Fort Rantanbhur (Tuzuk, p. 136). In the following year, he was released (l.c., p. 146) and sent to Kashmir (l.c., p. 149).

Ahmad Beg's sons, especially his second eldest, were all distinguished

soldiers. They are :-

1. Muhammad Mas üd 1 (eldest son). He was killed in the war with the Tarīkis. His son, Ardsher, was a commander of 1,000, six hundred horse, and died in the 18th year of Shāhj.'s reign.

2. Sa^{\$\text{id}\$} Khān Bahādur Zafar-jang (second son). He rose during the reign of Shāhjahān to the high dignity of a commander of 7,000, and distinguished himself in every war. He was governor of Kābul, the Panjāb, and Bihāc. He died on the 2nd Şafar, 1062. Of his twenty-two sons, the two eldest, Khānazād Khān and Lutfu 'llāh, were killed in the Balkh war, where Sa^{\$\text{c}\$} id also was severely wounded. Two other sons, \$\text{Abdu}\$ 'llāh and Fathu 'llah, rose to high commands.

3. Mukhlis" 'llāh Khān Iftikhār Khān. He rose under Shāhjahān to a command of 2,000, one thousand horse, and was Fawydār of Jammū

(Pādishāhn., I, p. 258), and died in the 4th year of Shāhj.'s reign.

4. Abū 'l-Baqā. He was the younger brother (by the same mother) of Sasid, under whom he served. He was thanadar of Lower Bangash. In the 15th year, after the Qandahār expedition, he got the title of Iftikhār Khān, at the same time that his elder brother received that of Zafar-jang, and was made a commander of 1,500, one thousand horse.

192. Hakim Ali, of Gilan.

SAlī came poor and destitute from Persia to India, but was fortunate

enough to become in course of time a personal attendant (mulāzim) and friend of Akbar. Once the emperor tried him by giving him several bottles of urine of sick and healthy people, and even of animals. To his satisfaction, SAlī correctly distinguished the different kinds. In 988, he was sent as ambassador to SAlī SAdil Shāh of Bījāpūr, and was well received; but before he could be sent back with presents for his master, SAdil Shāh suddenly died.

In the 39th year, Ḥakīm ʿAlī constructed the wonderful reservoir (hawz), which is so often mentioned by Mughul historians. A staircase went to the bottom of the reservoir, from where a passage led to an adjoining small room, six gaz square, and capable of holding ten or twelve people. By some contrivance, the water of the reservoir was prevented from flowing into the chamber. When Akbar dived to the bottom of the reservoir and passed into the room, he found it lighted up and furnished with cushions, sleeping apparel, and a few books. Breakfast was also provided.

In the 40th year, 'Alī was a commander of 700, and had the title of Jālīnūs" 'z-Zamānī, " the Galenus of the age." His astringent mixtures enjoyed a great reputation at Court.

He treated Akbar immediately before his death. It is said that the Emperor died of dysentery or acute diarrhosa, which no remedies could stop. SAlī had at last recourse to a most powerful astringent, and when the dysentery was stopped, costive fever and strangury ensued. He therefore administered purgatives, which brought back the diarrhosa, of which Akbar died. The first attack was caused, it is said, by worry and excitement on account of the behaviour of Prince Khusraw at an elephant fight. Salīm (Jahāngīr) had an elephant of the name of Girānbār, who was a match for every elephant of Akbar's stables, but whose strength was supposed to be equal to that of $\bar{A}br\bar{u}p$, one of Khusraw's elephants. Akbar therefore wished to see them fight for the championship, which was done. According to custom, a third elephant, Rantahman, was selected as tabancha, i.e., he was to assist either of the two combatants when too severely handled by the other. At the fight, Akbar and Prince Khurram (Shāhjahān) sat at a window, whiist Salīm and Khusraw were on horse back in the arena. Giranbar completely worsted Abrup, and as he mauled

¹ Sādi! Shāh was murdered in 988 by a young handsome eunuch, whom he attempted to use for an immoral purpose. The king was known as much for his justice and goodwill towards his subjects as for his mania for boys and unnatural crimes. He obtained with some exertion two young and handsome eunuchs from Malik Barid of Bedar, and was stabbed by the elder of the two at the first attempt of satisfying his inordinate desires. Mawlānā Raṣā of Mashhad, poetically styled Raṣāi, found the tarīṣh of his death in the words Shāh-1 jāhān shud shahīd (988), "The king of the world became a martyr."

him too severely, the tabancha elephant was sent off to Abrūp's assistance. But Jahāngīr's men, anxious to have no interference, pelted Rantahman with stones, and wounded the animal and the driver. This annoyed Akbar, and he sent Khurram to Salīm to tell him not to break the rules, as in fact all elephants would once be his. Salīm said that the pelting of stones had never had his sanction, and Khurram, satisfied with the explanation, tried to separate the elephants by means of fireworks, but in vain. Unfortunately Rantahman also got worsted by Girānbār, and the two injured elephants ran away, and threw themselves into the Jamna. This annoyed Akbar more; but his excitement was intensified, when at that moment Khursaw came up, and abused in unmeasured terms his father in the presence of the emperor. Akbar withdrew, and sent next morning for Alī, to whom he said that the vexation caused by Khursaw's bad behaviour had made him ill.

In the end of 1017, Jajängir also visited Ali's reservoir, and made him a commander of 2,000. He did not long enjoy his promotion and died on the 5th Muharram, 1018. Jahängir says of him (Tuzuk, p. 74) that he excelled in Arabic, and composed a commentary to the Qānūn. But his subtlety was greater than his knowledge, his looks better than his walk of life, his behaviour better than his heart; for in reality he was a bad and unprincipled man." Once Jahängir hinted that Alī had killed Akbar. On the other side it is said that he spent annually 6,000 Rupees on medicines for the poor.

He had a son, known as Hakīm Abdu 'l-Wahhāb. He held a mansab. In the 15th year of Jahāngīr's reign, he claimed from certain Sayyids in Lāhor the sum of 80,000 Rs., which, he said, his father had lent them. He supported his claim by a certificate with the seal of a Qāzī on it, and the statements of two witnesses. The Sayyids, who denied all knowledge, seeing that the case went against them, appealed to the Emperor. Jahāngīr ordered Āṣaf Khān (No. 98) to investigate the case. Abdu 'l-Wahhāb got afraid, and tried to evade the investigation by proposing to the Sayyids a compromise. This looked suspicious, and Āṣaf by cross-questioning found that the claim was entirely false. He therefore reported Abdu 'l-Wahhāb, and the Emperor deprived him of his manṣab and jāgīr. He seems to have been afterwards restored to favour, for in the Pādishāh-nāma (I, 6, 328) he is mentioned as a commander of 500, fifty horse.

Badd, onl (fil, 166) says that CAll was the son of the sister of Hakimⁿ 'I Mulk of Clian, and learned medicine and science under Shah Fathⁿ 'liah of Shiraz. He was a rabid ShiCah, and a bad doctor who often killed his patients. Thus he killed Fathⁿ 'liah by prescribing harisa (vide p. 34, note). [Harisa is said to be some concection of meat and wheat.—P.]

193. Gūjar Khān, son of Quṭbu 'd-Dīn Khān Atga (No. 28). He was mentioned above under No. 28.

194. Sadr Jahan Muftī.

Mīrān Ṣadr Jahān was born in Pihānī, a village near Qanawj.¹ Through the influence of Shaykh ʿAbdu ʾn-Nabī he was made Muftī. When ʿAbdu ʾllāh Khān Uzbak, king of Tūrān, wrote to Akbar regarding his apostacy from Islām, Mīrān Ṣadr and Ḥakīm (No. 205) were selected as ambassadors. The answer which they took to ʿAbdu ʾllāh contained a few Arabic verses which ʿAbdu ʾllāh could construe into a denial of the alleged apostacy—

قيل أن الآله أن ولد قيل أن الرسول قد كهناً ما مجا الله والرسول معا من لسان الوري فكيف إنا

"Of God people have said that He had a son; of the Prophet some have said that he was a sorcerer. Neither God nor the Prophet has escaped the slander of men—Then how should I?"

Mīrān returned in the 34th year, and was made Ṣadr (vide p. 284). In the 35th year, at the feast of Ābānmāh, the Court witnessed a curious spectacle. The Ṣadr and ʿAbdu 'l-Ḥay (No. 230), the Chief Justice of the empire, took part in a drinking feast, and Akbar was so amused at seeing his ecclesiastical and judicial dignitaries over their cups, that he quoted the well-known verse from Hāfiz:—

در دور پادشاء خطابخش جرم بوش حافظ قرابه کش شد و مفتی پیالهنوش Up to the 40th year, he had risen to the dignity of a commander of 700; but later, he was made an Amīr, and got a manṣab of 2,000 (vide p. 217–18).

During the reign of Jahāngīr, who was very fond of him, he was promoted to a command of 4,000, and received Qanawj as tuyūl. As Şadr under Jahāngīr he is said to have given away more lands in five years than under Akbar in fifty. He died in 1020, at the age, it is believed, of 120 years. His faculties remained unimpaired to the last.

His position to Akbar's "Divine Faith" has been explained above (p. 217-18). There is no doubt that he temporized, and few people got more for it than he. He also composed poems, though in the end of his life, like Badā,onī, he repented and gave up poetry as being against the spirit of the Muhammadan law.

He had two sons :-

- 1. Mir Badr-i Alam. He lived a retired life.
- 2. Sayyid Nizām Khān. His mother was a Brāhman woman, of

¹ So Badā, onī. The Masagir says, Pihānī lies near Lakhnau.

whom his father had been so enamoured that he married her; hence Nizām was his favourite son. He was early introduced at Court, and, at the death of his father, was made a commander of 2,500, two thousand horse. In the first year of Shāhjahān's reign, he was promoted to a command of 3,000, and received, on the death of Murtazā Khān Injū (p. 501) the title of Murtazā Khān. He served a long time in the Dakhin. His tuyūl was the Pargana of Dalamau, where he on several occasions successfully quelled disturbances. He was also Fawjdār of Lakhnau. In the 24th year of Shāhj.'s reign he was pensioned off, and received 20 lacs of dāms per annum out of the revenue of Pihānī, which was one kror. He enjoyed his pension for a long time.

His sons died before him. On his death, his grandsons, 'Abdu'l-Muqtadir and 'Abdu'llāh were appointed to manṣabs, and received as tuyūl the remaining portion of the revenue of Pihānī. 'Abdu'l-Muqtadir rose to a command of 1,000, six hundred horse, and was Fawjdār of Khayrābād.

195. Takhta Beg-i Kābulī [Sardār Khān].

He was at first in the service of M. Muḥammad Ḥakīm, and distinguished himself in the wars with India; but on the death of his master (30th year) he joined Akbar's service. He served under Mān Singh and Zayn Koka against the Yūsufzāīs. As Thānahdār of Peshāwar he punished on several occasions the Tārīkis. In the 49th year, he was made a Khūn.

After Jahängīr's accession, he was made a commander of 2,000, and received the title of Surdār Khān. He was sent with Mīrzā Ghāzī Tarkhān (p. 392), to relieve Shāh Beg Khān (No. 57) in Qandahār. As Shāh Beg was appointed governor of Kabul, Takhta was made governor of Qandahār, where, in 1016, he died.

He had a villa near Peshāwar, called the Bāyh-i Sardār Khān. His two sons, Ḥayāt Khān and Hidāyatu 'llāh got low manṣabs.

196. Ray Patr Das [Raja Bikramajit], a Khatri.

Patr Dās was in the beginning of Akbar's reign accountant (muskrif) of the elephant stables, and had the title of Rāy Rāyān. He distinguished himself, in the 12th year, during the siege of Chitor. In the 24th year, he and Mir Adham were made joint diwāns of Bengal. At the outbreak of the Bengal military revolt, he was imprisoned by the rebels (p. 485), but got off and served for some time in Bengal. In the 30th year, he was made diwān of Bihār. In the 38th year, he was ordered to occupy Bāndhū (p. 446), the capital of which after a siege of 8 months and 25 days surrendered (42nd year). In the 43rd year, he was made diwān of Kābul,

but was in the following year again sent to Bāndhū. In the 46th year, he was made a commander of 3,000. When Abū 'l-Fazl, in the 47th year, had been murdered by Bīr Singh, Akbar ordered Patr Dās to hunt down the rebel, and bring his head to Court. Patr defeated Bīr Singh in several engagements, and blockaded him in Īrich. When the siege had progressed, and a breach was made in the wall, Bīr Singh escaped and withdrew to the jungles with Patr close at his heels. Akbar, at last, in the 48th year, called P. to Court, made him in the next year a commander of 5,000, and gave him the title of Rāja Bikramājīt.

After Jahangir's accession, he was made Mir Atash, and was ordered to recruit and keep in readiness 50,000 artillery (topchi) with a train of 3,000 gun-carts, the revenue of fifteen parganas being set aside for the maintenance of the corps (Tuzuk, p. 10).

When the sons of Muzaffar of Gujrāt created disturbances, and Yatīm Bahādur had been killed, Patr was sent to Aḥmadābād with powers to appoint the officers of the rebels who submitted up to commands of Yūzbāshīs, or to recommend them, if they had held higher commands, for appointments to the Emperor.

"The year of his death is not known." Masagir.

The Ray Mohan Das mentioned occasionally in the Akbarnama and the Tuzuk (p. 50) appears to be his son.

197. Shaykh 'Abd" 'r-Rahim, of Lakhnau.

He belongs to the Shaykhzādas of Lakhnau, and was in the 40th year a commander of 700. He was a great friend of Jamāl Bakhtyār (No. 113), from whom he learned wine-drinking. In fact he drank so hard that he frequently got insane. In the 30th year, when Akbar was in the Panjāb, 'Abdu 'r-Raḥīm wounded himself in a fit whilst at Siyālkot in Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fath's dwelling. Akbar looked after the wound himself.

His wife was a Brāhman woman of the name of Kishnā. After the death of her husband, she spent his money in laying out gardens and villas. In one of them her husband was buried, and she entertained every one who passed by the tomb, from a panjhazārī to a common soldier, according to his position in life.

Abdu 'r-Rahim was mentioned above on p. 359-60.

198. Mednī Rāy Chauhān.

From the Akbarnāma we see that he served, in the 28th and 32nd years, in Gujrāt. Niṣāmu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad, who was with him in Gujrāt, says in the Tabqāt—" Mednī Rāy is distinguished for his bravery and liberality, and is now (i.e., in 1001) a commander of 1,000."

199. Mîr Abû 'l-Qasim Namakîn [Qasim Khan].

The MSS. have almost invariably Tamkin (تمكين) instead of Namakin. He is not to be confounded with Nos. 240 and 250.

Mīr Abū 'l-Qāsim was a Sayyid of Hirāt. He was at first in the service of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother and king of Kābul. But he left Kābul, and on entering Akbar's service, he received Bhīra and Khushāb in the Punjāb as jāgīr. As his lands lay within the Namaksār, or salt range, he once presented Akbar, evidently in allusion to his faithful intentions (namak-ḥalālī), with a plate and a cup made of salt (namakīn), from which circumstance he received the nickname of Namakīn.

Abū 'l-Qāsim served in the war with Dā ūd of Bengal. In the 26th year, he was in Kābul, and accompanied, in the 30th year, Ismā īl Qulī Khān (No. 46) on his expedition against the Balūchīs. In the 32nd year, the Afghān chiefs of Sawād and Bajor, and Terāh waited with their families on Akbar, who made Abū 'l-Qāsim Krorī and Fawjdār of those districts, and ordered him to take the families of the chiefs back to Afghānistān. The chiefs themselves were retained at Court. Renewed fights, in the 33rd year, gave him frequent occasions of distinguishing himself.

Up to the 40th year, he rose to a command of 700. In the 43rd year, he was appointed to Bhakkar. He built the great mosque in Sukkhar, opposite to Bhakkar. The inhabitants accused him of oppressions, and he was deposed. A party of the oppressed arrived with him at Court. and lodged a new complaint against him with 'Abdu 'l-Hay (No. 230), the Qazī of the imperial camp (urdū). But Abū 'l-Qasim, though summoned, did not appear before the judge, and when the matter was reported to Akbar, he was sentenced to be tied to the foot of an elephant, and paraded through the bazars. To avoid the disgrace, he came to an immediate settlement with the complainants, chiefly through the mediation of Shaykh Masruf, Sadr of Bhakkar, and prevailed on them to return the very day to their homes. The next day he went to the Emperor, and complained of the Qazi, stating that there were no complainants, and Abdu 'l-Hay tried in vain to produce the oppressed parties. This case led to the order that Qāzīs should in future prepare descriptive rolls of complainants, and present them to the Emperor.

¹ The namukair, or salt-range, says the Makasir is a district 20 hos long, and belongs to the Sind Sayar Du, ab, between the Bahat and the Indus. People break off pieces from the salt rocks, and carry them to the banks of the river, where the price is divided between the miners and the carriers, the former taking and the latter a of the amount realized. Merchants buy the salt at a price varying from half a dam to two dams (one rupes = 40 dams) per man, and export it. The Government takes 1 Rupes for every 17 mens. The salt is also often made into ornaments.

Abū 'l-Qāsim was, soon after, made a <u>Kh</u>ān, got a higher mansab, and received Gujrāt in the Panjāb as tuyūl. In the first year of Jahāngīr's reign, he was made a commander of 1,500. The part which he played in the capture of Prince <u>Kh</u>usraw has been mentioned above (p. 456, note 1, where *Tamkīn* is to be altered to *Namakīn*). For his services he was again appointed to Bkakkar with the rank of a commander of 3,000. He now resolved to make Bhakkar his home. Most of his illustrious descendants were born there. On a hill near the town, southwards towards Loharī, near the branch of the river called *Kahārmātrī* (Loharī, hear the branch of the river called *Kahārmātrī* (Loharī, hear the branch of the river called *Kahārmātrī* (Loharī, hear the branch of the gave the name of Ṣuffa-yi Ṣāfā (the dais of purity). He and several of his descendants were buried in it.

He is said to have been a most voracious man. He could est—historians do not specify the time—1,000 mangoes, 1,000 sweet apples, and 2 melons, each weighing a man. The Ma*āṣir says, he had 22 sons, and the Tuzuk

(p. 13) says he had 30 sons and more than 15 daughters.

The following tree is compiled from several notes in the Maragir:

Mir Abū 'l-Qāsim Namakīn (settled at Bhakkar in 1015).

3. M. Husamu 'd-Din. 1. Mir Abū 'l-Bagā. 2. Mirzā Kash-Amir Khān. (djed 1057 A.H.) 1. M. ÇAbdu 'r-Razzāq. 2. Ziyā^su 'd-Dîn Yüsuf. 3. Mir ÇAbdu 'l-Karim A daughter, Khān. Sindhī Amīr Khān. married in (under Awrangzib to 1066 to Prince Farrukh Sivar). Murād Bakhah. A son. M. Abū 'l-Wafā. Abū 'l-Khayr Khan. (end of Awrang-(under Farrukh Siyar). zib's reign).

Mīr Abū 'l-Baqā Amīr Khān rose under Jahāngīr to a command of 2,500, fifteen hundred horse. Through the influence of Yamīnu 'd-Dawla he was made governor of Multān, and in the 2nd year of Shāhjahān, he was made a commander of 3,000, two thousand horse, and appointed to Thathah, vice Murtaṣā-yi Injū deceased (p. 501). In the 9th year, he was made Tuyūldār of Bīr in the Dakhin, and was sent, in the 14th year, to Sīwistān vice Qarāq Khān. In the following year he was again appointed to Thathah, where, in 1057 (20th year), he died. He was buried in the mausoleum built by his father. Under Jahāngīr he was generally called Mīr Khān. Shāhjahān gave him the title of Amīr Khān.

One of his daughters was married in 1066, after his death, to Prince Murad Bakhsh, who had no children by his first wife, a daughter of

Shahnawaz Khan-i Şafawi.1 Amīr Khan had a large family. His eldest son, Mīr Abdu r'Razzāg, was a commander of 900, and died in the 26th year of Shahjahan's reign. His second son, Ziyasu 'd-Din Yusuf, was made a Khān, and held under Shāhjahān a mansab of 1,000, six hundred horse. Ziyā 's grandson, Abū 'l-Wafā, was in the end of Awrangzīb's reign in charge of his majesty's prayer room (dārogha-vi jā-namāz). Amīr Khān's youngest son, Mir Abdu'l-Karim, was a personal friend of Awrangzib. He received in succession the titles of Multafit Khan, Khanazad Khan (45th year of Awrangzib), Mir Khanazad Khan, and Amir Khan (48th year), and held a command of 3.000. After Awrangzib's death, he was with Muhammad Aczam Shah; but as he had no contingent, he was left with the baggage (bungah) at Gwaliyar. After the death of Muhammad Aszam in the battle of Sarāy Jāju, Bahādur Shāh made him a commander of 3,500. He was generally at Court, and continued so under Farrukh Siyar. After Farrukh's death, the Barha brothers made Amīr Khan sadr of the empire. He died shortly after. His son, Abū 'l-Khayr, was made a Khān by Farrukh Siyar; the other sons held no mansabs, but lived on their zamindārīs.

- 2. Mīrzā Kashmīrī was involved in the rebellion of Prince Khusraw. As the associates were to be punished in an unusual way (siyāsat-i ghayr-mukarrar, Tuzuk, p. 32) Jahangīr ordered his venis to be cut off.
 - 3. Mīrzā Husān" 'd-Dīn. He held a manşab, but died young.
 - 4. Mīrzā Zā id 'llāh. He was in the service of Khan Jahan Lodi.
 - 200). Wazir Beg Jamil.3

Wazir Jamīl, as he is often called, served in the 9th year of Akbar's reign against Abdu 'llāh Khān Uzbak, and in the war with Khān Zamān (No. 13). In the final battle, when Bahādur Khān (No. 22) was thrown off his horse, W. J., instead of taking him prisoner, accepted a bribe from him, and let him off. But Nazar Bahādur, a man in the service of Majnūn Khān (No. 50) saw it, and took Bahādur prisoner. Afterwards, he received a jāgīr in the Eastern Districts, and took part in the expeditions to Bengal and Orīsa under Mun'sim Khān. At the outbreak of the Bengal military revolt, he joined the Qāqshāls: but when they separated from Ma'sūm-i

Sarāy Jājū, near Dholpūr. The battle was fought on the 18th Rabiç I, 1119, and Muhammad Aczam was killed with his two sons, Bedar Rakht and Walā-jāh.

Jamil is a common name among Turks. It is scarcely ever used in Hindustia.

¹ Shahnawāz Khān-i Safawī is the title of Mīrzā Badīça 'z-Zamān, alius Mīrzā Dakhinī, son of Mīrzā Rustam (No. 9). One of his daughters, Dilras Bānū Begum, was married, in the end of 1046, to Awrangzīb. Another was married, in 1052, to Prince Murād Balhah. Elphinstone (History of India, 5th edition, p. 607) calls Shahnawāz Khān by mistake the brother of Shāyista Khān; but Shāyista is the son of Yamīna 'd-Dawla Āṣaf Khān, elder brother of Nūr Jahān.

Kābulī (p. 476, note) and tendered their submission, W. J. also was pardoned. In the 29th year, he came to Court, and served in the following year under Jagnāth (No. 69) against the Rānā. He seems to have lived a long time. Jahāngīr, on his accession, made him a commander of 3,000 (Tuzuk, p. 8.).

He is not to be confounded with the Jamil Beg mentioned under

No. 172.

201. Tähir, [son of] Sayfu 'l-Mulūk.

The Tabaqāt says that Tāhir was the son of Shāh Muḥammad Sayfu'l-Mulūk.¹ His father was governor of Gharjistān in Khurāsān, and was killed by Shāh Tahmāsp of Persia. Tāhir went to India, was made an Amīr at Akbar's Court, and served in Bengal, where he was when the author of the Tabaqāt wrote (1001).

He is also mentioned in Dowson's Edition of Elliot's Historians, I, pp. 241, 242.

202. Babu Mankli.

Regarding the name "Mankli", vide p. 400, note 1. The Tabaqāt says that Bābū Mankli was an Afghān, and a commander of 1,000.

He was at first in Dā²ūd's service, and occupied Ghorāghat at the time when Mun^cim <u>Kh</u>ān had invaded Orīsā (p. 400). Soon after, he entered Akbar's service, but continued to be employed in Bengal. In the 30th year, he suppressed disturbances at Ghorāghāt (Akbarn. III, 470), and took part, in the 35th year, in the operations against Qutlū <u>Kh</u>ān. Two years later he accompanied Mān Singh's expedition to Orīsā.

He may have lived under Jahängir; for the Mankli Khān mentioned in the Tuzuk (pp. 70, 138) can only refer to him. The Tuzuk (p. 12) mentions a son of his, Hātim. Another son, Maḥmūd, appears to have been a commander of 500, three hundred horse, under Shāhjahān (Pādishāhn., I, b., p. 323) though the text edition of the Bibl. Indica calls him son of Yāhū Maikulī (بابو منكلي, for يابو ميكلي).

XVI. Commanders of Six Hundred.

203. Muhammad Quli Khan Turkman [Afchar, p. 452].

He served at first in Bengal. At the outbreak of the military revolt, he took the side of the rebels, but left them, and was pardoned by Akbar. In the 30th year, he marched with Man Singh to Kabul, where he greatly distinguished himself. In the 39th year, when Qulij Khan (No. 42) was

appointed to Kābul, Muḥammad Quli Khān, his brother Hamza Beg (perhaps No. 277), and others, were sent to Kashmir, vice Yūsuf Khān (No. 35, and p. 452). In the 45th year, a party of Kasmīris tried to set up Ambā Chak¹ as king; but they were defeated by ʿAli Quli, son of M. Q. Kh. In the 47th year, M. Q. Kh. was made a commander of 1,500, six hundred horse; and Hamza Beg, one of 700, three hundred and fifty horse. New disturbances broke out when in the following year ʿAli Rāy, king of Little Tibet, invaded the frontier districts of Kashmīr. He retreated on M. Q. Kh.'s arrival. and was vigorously pursued, when the imperialists were enforced by Sayfu 'llāh (No. 262) from Lāhor. In the 49th year, Ambā again appeared, but was driven, with some difficulty, from his mountains.

In the 2nd year of Jahangir's reign, M. Q. Kh. was removed from Kashmir. Hamsa Beg was, in the 49th year of Akbar's reign, a commander of 1,000.

204. Bakhtyár Beg Gurd-i Shāh Mansur.

The Izāfat most likely means that he was the son of Shah Manşūr, in which case the word gurd (athlete) would be Bakhtyār's epithet. Two MSS. have the word pisar (son) instead of gurd.

The Tabaqat says: "Bakhtyar Beg Turkman is an Amir, and governs at present (1001) Siwistan." In the 32nd year, he served against the Tarikis.

205. Hakim Humam, son of Mir Abdu 'r-Rassaq of Gilan.

Regarding his family connection, vide No. 112, p. 468. Humām's real name is Humāyūn. When he came to Akbar's Court, he discreetly called himself Humāyūn Qulī, or "slave of Humāyūn"; but soon afterwards Akbar gave him the name of Humām. He held the office of Bakāwal Beg (p. 59), and though only a commander of 600, he was a personal friend of Akbar, and possessed great influence at Court. In the 31st year he was sent with Ṣadr Jahān (No. 194) to Tūrān as ambassador. Akbar often said that he did not enjoy his meals on account of Humām's absence. He returned to India about a month after his brother's death. He died in the 40th year, on the 6th Rabī's I, 1004. Badā,onī (II, p. 406) says, the day after Humām's death, Kamālā (p. 264) also died, and their property was at once put under seal and escheated to the government, so that they were destitute of a decent abroud.

¹ The MSS, have Us. The Tusus mentions" a Kashmiri of royal blood ", of the name of ast. He was killed by Sher Afkan (side No. 284) at Bardwan, on the 3rd Safar, 1016.
² Human, not Hamman, is the Indian pronunciation.

Humam had two sons:—

- 1. Ḥakim Ḥāzīq (حانة). He was born at Fatḥpūr Sīkrī, and was a young man when his father died. At Shahjahan's accession, he was made a commander of 1,500, six hundred horse, and was sent, in the 1st year, to Türän as ambassador. He rose to a command of 3,000. Later, for some reason, his mansab was cancelled, and he lived at Agra on a pension of 20,000 rupees per annum, which in the 18th year was doubled. He died in the 31st year (1068).1 He was a poet of some distinction, and wrote under the name of Hāziq. His vanity is said to have been very great. A copy of his diwan was cept on a golden stool in his reception room, and visitors, when it was brought in or taken away, were expected to rise and make salāms; els: he got offended.
- 2. Hakīm Khush'hāl. He grew up with Prince Khurram. Shāhjahān, on his accession, made him a commander of 1,000. He was for some time Bakhshī of the Dakhin.

206. Mīrzā Anwar, son of Khān-i A^czam Mīrzā Koka (No. 21). He was mentioned above on page 346.

XVII. Commanders of Five Hundred.

207. Baltū Khān of Turkistān.

He was a grandee of Humayun, and served in the Kabul war, and in the battles which led to H.'s restoration.

208. Mīrak Bahādur Arghūn.

The Tabagat says he reached a command of 2,000, and died.* From the Akbarnāma (II, 170, 248) we see that he served in the conquest of Mālwa (vide No. 120) and in the pursuit of Sharafu 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn (No. 17).

209. Laci Khan Kolabi.

He is also called Lacl Khan Badakhshī (vide p. 484), and served under Humāyūn in the war of the restoration (Akbarn. I. 411). He distinguished himself in the defeat of Hemu. Later, he served under Muncim in Bengal and Orisa, and died of fever at Gaur (p. 407).

210. Shaykh Ahmad, son of Shaykh Salīm.

He is the second (miyānī) son of Shaykh Salīm of Fathpūr Sikrī. He served at Court with Shaykh Ibrāhīm (No. 82), and died in the 22nd vear (985).3

¹ The Matagir says that the author of the Mir-tate 'l-SAlam mentions 1080 as the year of his death; but my MS. of the Mir*-at (Chapter on the poets of the period from Humayun to Awrangzib) mentions no year.

[* Died in 975. He was blown up before Chitor; Sawdnih, p. 201.—B.]

[* Sawanih, p. 370.—B.]

211. Iskandar Beg-i Badakhshi.

He is mentioned in the Akbarnama (II, 251) as having served in the pursuit of Abul 'l-Macali (end of the 8th year).

212. Beg Nürin Khan Qüchin.

He served under Mucizzu 'l-Mulk (No. 61) in the battle of Khayrabad. In the 32nd and 33rd years, he served under Abdu'l-Matlab (No. 83) and Şadiq Khan (No. 43) against the Tarikis.

The Tabagat says he was a commander of 1,000, and was dead in 1001.

Jalal Khan Qurchi. 213.

Akbar was much attached to him. In the 7th year, he was sent to Ram Chand Bhagela (No. 89) with the request to allow Tansin to go to In the 11th year, it came to the Emperor's ears that J. was passionately attached to a beautiful boy. Akbar had the boy removed; but J. managed to get him again, and fled with him from Court. M. Yüsuf Razawi pursued and captured them. After some time, J. was restored to favour. Later, he took a part in the expedition to Siwana and distinguished himself, in the 20th year, in the war with Raja Chandr Sen of Mārwār. During the expedition a Rājpūt introduced himself to him who pretended to be Devî Das, who had been killed at Mirtha, evidently with a view of obtaining through him an introduction to Court. The stranger also reported that Chandr Sen had taken refuge with Kalla, son of Ram Ray, and brother's son to Ch. S., and a detachment of imperialists was sent to Kalla's palace. Kalla now wished to take revenge on the stranger for spreading false reports, and induced Shimal Khan (No. 154) to help him. Shimal therefore invited the stranger; but though surrounded by Sh.'s men, the pretender managed to escape. He collected a few men and entered one night a tent which he supposed to belong to Shimal. But it happened to be that of Jalal, who was cut down by the murderers (end of 983, Akbarn., 111, 140).

It was Jalal who introduced the historian Bada.oui at Court.

214. Parmānand, the Khatrī.

He is mentioned in Dowson's edition of Eiliot's Historians, 1, p. 244. 215. Timür Khan Yakka.

He served under Munsim (No. 11) in Kibul, and, in the 10th year, against Khan Zaman (Akbarn., II, 236, 326).

The Timur-i Badakhshi mentioned several times in the Akbarnama (III, 165, 174) appears to be another officer. Vide No. 142.

216. Saní Khan, of Hirat.

He was born at Hirat, and belonged to the Arlat (ا، لات) clan. According to the Akbarnama (I, 379), Mawlana Sani, "who is now called Sani <u>Khān</u>", was in the service of Mīrzā Hindāl; but after the Mīrzā's death (21st Zī Qa^cda, 958) he was taken on by Humāyūn. He served in the wars with <u>Kh</u>ān Zamān.

Badā,onī (III, 206) says that his real name was Alī Akbar. He was a fair poet, but a heretic, and like Tashbīhī of Kāshān, wrote treatises on the Man of the Millennium, according to the Nuqṭawī doctrines (p. 502). Hence he must have been alive in 990.

217. Sayyid Jamāl^u 'd-Dīn, son of Sayyid Aḥmad Bārha (No. 91). *Vide* above, p. 447. He had also served in the final war with <u>Kh</u>ān

218. Tagmal, the Püwar.

Zamān.

He served in the second Gujrāt war after Akbar's forced march to Patan and Ahmadābād (p. 458 note).

219. Husayn Beg, brother of Husayn Khan Buzurg.

220. Hasan Khān Batanī.1

The Tabaqāt classes him among the commanders of 1,000. He was at first in the service of the Bengal king Sulaymān, and was present with Sulaymān Manklī (p. 400) and Kālā Pahār at the interview between Mun's and Khān Zamān (No. 13) at Baksar (Buxar). Akbarn., 11, 325.

Hasan was killed with Bir Bar in the Khaybar Pass; vide p. 214. MSS. often call him wrongly Husayn instead of Hasan.

221. Sayyid Chhajhū,3 of Bārha.

The <u>Tabaqāt</u> says that S. Chhajhū was a brother of S. Maḥmūd (No. 75) and distinguished for his courage and bravery. From the family genealogies of the Bārha clan it appears that S. Ch. was a Kūndlīwāl. His tomb still exists at Majhera, and according to the inscription he died in 967.

222. Munsif Khan, Sultan Muhammad of Hirat.

223. Qāşī Khān Bakhshī.

Some MSS. have Badakhshī instead of Bakhshī. Vide No. 144.

224. Hājī Yūsuf Khān.

He was at first in Kāmrān's service. In the 12th year, he joined the corps of Qiyā Khān (No. 33), and rendered assistance to M. Yūsuf Khān, whom Khān Zamān (No. 13) besieged in Qanawj. In the 17th year, he operated under Khān Ālam (No. 58) against M. Ibrāhīm Ḥusayn, and was present in the battle of Sarnāl. In the 19th year, he went with Muncim to Bengal and Orīsā, and died after his return at Gaur (p. 407).

Bajani is the name of an Afghan tribe, N.W. of Dera Ismaïil Khan.
 The spelling "Chhajhū" is preferable to "Jhajhū".

225. Rāwul Bhīm, of Jaisalmīr.

The Tuzuk says (p. 159):—"On the 9th Khurdåd (middle of 1025), Kalyān of Jaisalmīr was introduced at Court by Rājā Kishn Dās, whom I had sent to him. Kalyān's elder brother was Rāwul Bhīm, a man of rank and influence. When he died, he left a son two months old, who did not live long. Bhīm's daughter had been married to me when I was prince, and I had given her the title of Malika-yi Jahān. This alliance was made, because her family had always been faithful to our house. I now called Bhīm's brother to Court, invested him with the fikā, and made him Rāwul."

For Kalyan, vide under No. 226. In the 12th year of Jahangir's reign he was made a commander of 2,000, one thousand horse (Tuzuk, p. 163).

226. Häshim Beg, son of Qasim Khan (No. 59).

After the death of his father (39th year) and the arrival of Qulij Khān (No. 42), the new governor of Kābul, Hāshim returned to Court. In the 41st year, he served under M. Rustam (No. 9) against Bāsū and other rebellious zamīndārs in the north-eastern part of the Panjāb, and distinguished himself in the conquest of Mau. In the 44th year, he served under Farīd-i Bukhārī (No. 99) before Āsīr. Later, he went with Sasādat Khān to Nāsik. After the conquest of Tiranbak, he returned to Court (46th year), and was appointed, in the following year, to a command of 1,500.

In the first year of Jahangir's reign, he was made a commander of 2,000, fifteen hundred horse. In the 2nd year, his mansab was increased to 3,000, two thousand horse, and he was made governor of Orisa. In the 6th year, he was transferred to Kashmir, his uncle Khwajagi Muhammad

This SaGadat Khan had first been in the service of the Dakhin kings as commander

of the Forts of Gaina and Tiranbak; but later he entered Akbar's service.

¹ The list of Jahangir's wives on p. 323 may be increased by ten other princesses.

(1) Malika-yi Jahan, daughter of Rāwul Bhīm of Jaisaimīr. (2) The beautiful daughter of Zayn Koka, mentioned on p. 369. There is a curious discreparcy between Turuk, p. 8, and Akbarnāma, 111, 594: Jahāngīr says that Parwīz was his son by Zayn Koka's daughter, and Abū 'l-Fazl says that Parwīz's mether was the daughter of Khwājah Hasan, Zayn Khān's uncle (ride also p. 367), but there is no doubt that Parwīz was born in the 34th year, on the 19th Ābān. 997, whilst Jahāngīr, only in the 41st year, fell in love with Zayn Khān's daughter (p. 363). It is therefore evident, assuming that Sayyid Ahmad's text of Tuzuk, p. 8, be correct, that Jahāngīr had forgotten who among his many wives was mother to his second son (3) Nūre 'n-Nisā Begum (married in Jumādha, II, 1000), sister of Mīrzā Muzaffai Husayn, p. 464. (4) A daughter of the King of Khandesh. This princess died in the 41st year of Akbar's reign (5) Saliha Hānū, daughter of Qā'im Khan, p. 401. (6) A daughter of Khwāja Jahān-i Kābulī (Dost Muḥammad) (7) A daughter of SaCīd Khān Gakkhar. Her daughter, Ciffat Bānū, is mentioned. Akbarnāma, III, 561 (8) The mether of Dawlat Nisā, Akbarn., III, 597. The MSS. do not clearly give the name of the father of this princess. (9) A daughter of Rām Chand Bundela (No. 248) married in 1018; Turuk, p. 77.

Ḥusayn (No. 241) officiating for him there till his arrival from Orīsā. His successor in Orīsā was Rāja Kalyān, brother of Bhīm (No. 225).

Hāshim's son is the renowned Muhammad Qasim Khan Mir Ātish. He was, in the 18th year of Shahjahan's, a commander of 1,000, five hundred and ninety horse. Dārogha of the Topkhāna and Kotwāl of the camp. He distinguished himself in Balkh, Andkhūd, received the title of Mu^ctamid Khān,1 and was made, in the 21st year, a commander of 2,000, one thousand horse, and Akhta Begi. In the following year, he was promoted to a command of 3,000, and also got the title of Qasim Khān. He then served under Awrangzīb in Qandahār, and was made, in the 28th year, a commander of 4,000, two thousand five hundred In the next year, he destroyed Fort Santur (سانتو,), which the ruler of Srinagar had repaired. Later, he was made by Dara Shikoh a commander of 5,000, five thousand sihaspa duaspa, received a present of a lac of rupees, and was appointed governor of Ahmadabad (Gujrat), whilst Jaswant Singh was made governor of Malwa. Both were ordered to unite their contingents near Ujjain, and keep Prince Murad Bakhsh in check. When the Prince left Gujrat, the two commanders marched against him via Baswara; but when approaching Khachrod, Murad suddenly retreated 18 kos, and joined, 7 kos from Ujjain, the army of Awrangzib. The two chiefs had received no information of Awrangzib's march. They attacked him, however, but were totally defeated (near Ujjain, 22nd Rajab, 1068). In the first battle between Awrangzīb and Dārā, at Samogar,2 Qasim commanded the left wing. Soon after, he made his submission, and received Sambhal and Murābādād as tuyūl, as Rustam Khān-i Dakhini, the former jāgirdār, had fallen at Samogar. Qāsim was then charged with the capture of Sulayman Shikoh In the 3rd year of Awrangzib's reign he was appointed to Mathura. On the way, he was murdered by a brother of his, who is said to have led a miserable life (1071). The murderer was executed at Awrangzib's order.

227. Mirzā Farīdūn, son of Muḥammad Qulī Khān Barlās (No. 31). He has been mentioned above, p. 364. His death took place at Udaipūr in 1023 (Tuzuk, p. 181).

228. Yüsuf Khan (Chak), king of Kashınır.

Yüsuf's father was 'Alī Khān Chak, king of Kashmīr. He died from a hurt he received during a game at chaugān (p. 309), having been violently thrown on the pommel of the saddle (pesh-koha-yi zīn). On his death, Yüsuf was raised to the throne (Akbarnāma, III, 237). He first surrounded

^{[1} Succeeded by Kalyan, commander of 1,500, eight hundred.—B.]
2 Vide Journal Asiatic Society Bengal, 1870, p. 275.

the palace of his uncle Abdāl, who aimed at the crown, and in the fight which ensued, Abdāl was shot. A hostile party thereupon raised one Sayyid Mubārak to the throne, and in a fight which took place on the maydān of Srīnagar, where the 'Id prayer is said, Yūsuf was defeated. Without taking further part in the struggle, he fled, and came, in the 24th year, to Akbar's Court, where he was well received. During his stay at Court, Sayyid Mubārak had been forced to retire, and Lohar Chak, son of Yūsuf's uncle, had been made king. In the 25th year (Akbarn., III, 288) the Emperor ordered several Panjāb nobles to reinstate Yūsuf. When the Imperial army reached Pinjar, the Kashmīrīs sued for mercy, and Yūsuf, whom they had solicited to come alone, without informing Akbar's commanders, entered Kashmīr, seized Lohar Chak without fighting, and commenced to reign.

Some time after, Salih Diwana reported to the Emperor how firmly and independently Yusuf had established himself, and Akbar sent Shaykh Yaqqub-i Kashmiri, a trusted servant, with his son Haydar to Kashmir, to remind Yusuf of the obligations under which he lay to the Emperor. In the 29th year, therefore, Yusuf sent his son Yacqub with presents to Akhar, but refused personally to pay his respects, although the Court, in the 30th year, had been transferred to the Paniab; and Yasqub, who had hitherto been with the Emperor, fled from anxiety for his safety. The Emperor then sent Hakim Ali (No. 192) and Bahasu 'd-Din Kambū to Yūsuf to persuade him to come, or, if he could not himself come, to send again his son. As the embassy was without result, Akbar ordered Shahrukh Mirza (No. 7) to invade Kashmir. The Imperial army marched over Pakhli, and was not far from Barah Mülah, when Yüsuf submitted and surrendered himself (Akbarn., III, 492).1 Shahrukh was on the point of returning, when he received the order to complete the conquest. Yūsuf being kept a prisoner, the Kashmīris raised Awlad Husayn, and, soon after, Yacqub, Yusuf's son, to the throne. but he was everywhere defeated. Information of Yusuf's submission and the defeat of the Kashmiris was sent to Court, and at Srinagar the khutba was read, and coins were struck, in Akbar's name. The cultivation of zasfarān (p. 89) and silk, and the right of hunting, were made Imperial monopolies (p. 452). On the approach of the cold season, the

army returned with Yusuf Khan, and arrived, in the 31st year, at Court, Todar Mal was made responsible for Yūsuf's person.

As Yasqub Khan and a large party of Kashmiris continued the struggle, Qasim (No. 59) was ordered to march into Kashmir to put an end to the rebellion. Yacqub was again on several occasions defeated.

In the 32nd year Yusuf was set at liberty, received from Akbar a jägir in Bihar (Akbarn., III, 547) and was made a commander of 500. He served in Bengal. In the 37th year, he accompanied Man Singh to Orisa, and commanded the detachment which marched over Jharkand and Kokra 1 (Chutiyā Nāgpūr) to Mednīpūr (Akbarn., III, 641).

Yacqub Khan, soon after, submitted, and paid his respects to Akbar, when, in the 34th year, the Court had gone to Kashmir (p. 412).

Yüsuf Khān is not to be confounded with No. 388.

229. Mir Qulij, son of Altun Qulij.

Altun or altun is Turkish, and means "gold".

Nur Qulij was a relation of Qulij Khan (No. 42). He served under him in the expedition to Idar, which Akbar had ordered to be made when moving, in the 21st year, from Ajmīr to Gogunda. In the fight with the zemändär of Idar, N. Q. was wounded. In the 26th year, he served under Sultan Murad against Mirza Muhammad Hakim. In the 30th year, he again served under Qulij Khān, who had been made governor of Gujrāt. He continued to serve there under Khankhanan (No. 29), and returned with him, in the 32nd year, to Court.

230. Mir SAbdu 'l-Hay, Mir SAdl.

The Tabagat calls him Khwaja Abdu 'l-Hay, and says that he was an Amir. He had been mentioned above on pp. 468, 471.

231. Shah Quil Khan Maranil.

Abū 'l-Fazl says that Shāh Quli was a Kurd from near Baghdad. He

Khān's detechment, to which the contingents also of Sangrām Singh Shāhā of Kharakpūr (p. 446 and Proceedings A.S. Bengal, for May, 1871), and Püran Mal of Gidhor belonged

(Akbornāma III. 641).

The Tusuk has (i.e.) a few interesting notes on the diamonds of Kokra.

¹ Kobra was mentioned above on p. 438. It is the old name of Chutiya Nägpür, one of the parganas of which is still called Kokra or Khukra, as spelt on the survey maps. The Rāja, Col. Dalton informs me, once resided in Kokra, at a place in lat. 23° 20' and long. 88° 87', nearly, where there is still an old fort. Vide also Vth Report (Madras edition, vol. I, p. 603; old edition, p. 417).

The Rāja of Kokra, who, in the 60th year, succumbed to Shāhbāz Khān (p. 438) is called Mādhū. In the 37th year, Mādhū and Lakhmī Rāy of Kokra, served in Yūsuf

Kokra is again mentioned in the Tusuk-i Jahangiri (pp. 154, 155), where it is defined as a hilly district between south Bihar and the Dukhin. It was run over in the beginning of 1025, by firehim Khan Fath-jang, governor of Bihar, who was diseatisfied with the few diamonds and elephants which the Rajas sent him as tribute. The then Raja is called Durjan Sal. He was captured with several of his relations in a cave, and the district was ennexed to Bihar.

was an old servant of Humāyūn. In the first year of Akbar's reign, he served under Khizr Khān (p. 394, note 1) in the Panjāb. He was much attached to Bayrānf. In the 11th year, he was sent to Gadha, when Mahdī Qāsim Khān (No. 36) had left that province without permission for Makkah.

The Tabagat calls him a commander of 1,000.

His son, Pādishāh Qulī, was a poet, and wrote under the name of Jazbī. A few verses of his are given below in the list of poets.

232. Farrukh Khān, son of Khān-i Kalān (No. 16).

He was mentioned on pp. 338 and 384. According to the *Tabaqāt*, he served, in 1001, in Bengal.

233. Shādmān, son of Khān-1 A^czam Koka (No. 21).

Vide above, p. 346.

.234. Hakim Aynu 'l-Mulk, of Shīrāz.

He is not to be confounded with Ḥakīmu 'l-Mulk; vide below among the Physicians of the Court:

He was a learned man and a clever writer. He traced his origin, on his mother's side, to the renowned logician Muhaqqiq-i Dawwani. The historian Bada, onf was a friend of his. Akbar also liked him very much. In the 9th year he was sent as ambassador to Chingiz Khan of Guirat. In the 17th year he brought 15timad Khan (No. 67) and Mir Abu Turab to the Emperor. He also accompanied Akbar on his march to the eastern provinces of the empire. Afterwards, in 983, he was sent to SAdil Khan of Bijāpūr, from where, in 985, he returned to Court (Badā,onī II. 250). He was then made Fawjdar of Sambhal. In the 26th year, when Arab Bahadur and other Bengal rebels created disturbances, be fortified Baxell, and refusing all offers, held out till the arrival of an Imperial corps, when he defeated the rebels. In the same year he was made Sadr of Bengal, and in the 31st year Bakhshi of the Suba of Agra. He was then attached to the Dakhin corps of Azīz Koka (No. 21), and received Handi, as jagir. When Aziz, for some reason, cancelled his jagir, he went without permission to Court (35th year), but was at first refused audience. On inquiry, however, Akbar reinstated him.

He died at Handia on the 27th Zi Hijja. 1003 (Bada,oni II. 403).

The Mīrzā'ī Masjid, also called Pādishāhī Masjid, in Old Barelī, Mīrzā'ī Maḥalla, was built by him. The inscription on it bears the date 987 (24th year), when the Ḥakīm was Fawjjdār of Sambhal.

He was also a poet, and wrote under the takhallus of Dawa,i.

235. Jänish Bahadur.

Janish Bahadur was mentioned on p. 368. He was at first in the

service of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm king of Kābul. After the death, in the 30th year, of his master, he came with his sons to India. Soon after, he served under Zayn Koka (No. 34) against the Yūsufzāī*s, and saved Zayn's life in the Khaybar catastrophe. In the 35th year, he served under the Khānkhānān in Thathah, and returned with him, in the 38th year, to Court. Later, he served in the Dakhin. He died in the 46th year (1009). He was an excellent soldier.

His son, Shujā at Khān Shādī Beg. He was made, in the 7th year of Shāhjahān's reign, a commander of 1,000, and received the title of Shād Khān. In the 12th year, he was sent as ambassador to Nazr Muhammad Khān of Balkh. On his return, in the 14th year, he was made a commander of 1,500, and was appointed governor of Bhakkar, vide Shāh Qulī Khān. Afterwards, on the death of Ghayrat Khān, he was made governor of Thathah and a commander of 2,000. In the 19th vear he was with Prince Murad Bakhsh in Balkh and Badakhshan. In the 21st year he was appointed governor of Kābul, vice Sīwā Rām, and held, in the following year, an important command under Awrangsib in the Qandahar expedition and the conquest of Bust. In the 23rd year. he was made a commander of 3,000, two thousand five hundred horse, and received the coveted distinction of a flag and a drum. later, in the 25th year, he served again before Qandahar, and was made, on Shahjahan's arrival in Kabul, a commander of 3,500, three thousand horse, with the title of Shujāsat Khān. In the 26th year, he served under Dārā Shikoh before Qandahār, and with Rustam Khān Bahādur at Bust. He died soon after. He had a son of the name of Muhammad Sacid.

236. Mîr Tāhir-i Mūsawī.

He is not to be confounded with Nos. 94, 111, and 201. According to the *Tabaqāt*, Mîr Tāhir is "the brother of Mīrzā Yūsuf Pazawī (No. 37), and was distinguished for his bravery". It would thus appear that Abū 'l-Fazl makes no difference between the terms *Razawī* and *Mūsāwī* (vide p. 414, under No. 61).

237. Mīrzā Alī Beg, Alamshāhī.

He is mentioned in the Akburnāma among the grandees who accompanied Mun'sim to Bengal and Orīsā, and took part in the battle of Takaro,ī (p. 406). After the outbreak of the Bengal Military revolt, he joined a conspiracy made by Mīr Zakī, 'Abdī Kor, Shihāb-i Badakhshī, and Kūjak Yasāwul, to go over to the rebels. The plot, however, was discovered; they were all imprisoned, but Mīr Zakī alone was executed. Akbarnāma, III, 262.

His epithet Alamshāhī is not clear to me.

He must not be confounded with the more illustrious [Mīrzā ʿAlī Beg-i Akbarshāhī].¹

He was born in Badakhshān, and is said to have been a highly educated man. When he came to India he received the title of Akbarshāhī. In the 30th year, he commanded the Aḥadīs on Shāhrukh's expedition to Kashmīr (p. 535).

Later, he served under Prince Murad in the Dakhin. When the prince, after making peace, returned from Ahmadnagar, Sādiq Khān (No. 43) occupied Mahkar. But new disturbances broke out under the Dakhin leaders, Azhdar Khān and SĀyn Khān, against whom Sādiq sent a corps under M. Ali Beg. He suddenly fell on them and routed them, carrying off much plunder and many dancing girls (zanān-i akhāra). In consequence of this defeat, Khudawand Khan and other Amirs of the Nizāmshāh marched against the Imperialists with 10,000 horse, but Şādiq and M. A. B. defeated them. In the 43rd year, M. A. B. took Fort Rāhūtara (الحواتية) near Dawlatābād, after a siege of one month, occupied, in the same year, Patan on the Dodavari, and took Fort Longadh. "Both forts," says the author of the Matasir, "have, from want of water, become uninhabitable (mismār shuda), and are so to this day." Later, M. A. B. served under Abu 'l-Fazl, and distinguished himself in the conquest of Ahmadnagar. In the 46th year, he received a drum and a flag, and continued to serve, under the Khankhanan, in the Dakhin.

In the beginning of Jahängir's reign, he was made a commander of 4,000, jägirdär of Sambhal, and governor of Kashmir. He served in the pursuit of Khusraw (Turuk, p. 30). Later, he received a tuyūl in Audh. When Jahängir went to Ajmir, he went to Court. One day, he paid a visit to the tomb of Musinu 'd-Din-i Chishti. On seeing the tomb of Shāhhāz Khān (p. 439), he stooped down, and embracing it, exclaimed: "Oh! he was an old friend of mine." The same moment, he fell forward a corpse, and was buried at the same spot (22nd Rabīs I, 1025).

It is said that he kept few soldiers and servants, but paid them well. In his habits he was an epicurean. He was looked upon as a great patron of the learned. He died childless, at the age of seventy-five (Turuk, p. 163).

238. Rām Dās, the Kachwāba.

His father was a poor man of the name of Ordat (أبريت), and lived at Lünī (or Baulī, vide p. 435). Rām Dās was at first in the service of Rāy Sāl Darbārī (No. 106), and was recommended by him to the Emperor.

¹ The Tuzuk (p. 11) says he belonged to the ulür-i Dikli, a very doubtful term, as he belonged to Badakhahân. Perhaps we have to read ulüs-i dulduy (p. 422).

His faithfulness was almost proverbial. In the 17th year, when Todar Mal was ordered to assist Mun^cim in Bihār, he was made his $n\bar{a}^*i\bar{b}$ in the Financial Department, and gained Akbar's favour by his regularity and diligence. He amassed a fortune, and though he had a palace at Agra near Hatiyāpul, he lived in the guard house, "always watching with his 200 Rājpūts, spear in hand."

Immediately before Akbar's death he put his men over the treasures of the palace with a view to preserve them for the lawful heir. Jahangir, with whom he stood in high favour, sent him, in the 6th year, with Abdu 'llah Khan to Gujrat and the Dakhin, and gave him the title of Rāja and a flag, Rantanbhūr being assigned to him as jāgīr (Tuzuk, p. 98). It seems that he received the title of Raja Karan. After the defeat of the Imperialists, Jahangir wished to make an example of the Amirs who had brought disgrace on the Imperial arms. He ordered their pictures to be drawn, and taking the portraits one after the other into his hand, abused each Amīr right royally. Looking at Rām Dās's portrait, he said: "Now, when thou wert in Ray Sal's service, thou hadst a tanka per diem; but my father took an interest in thee, and made thee an Amir. Do not Rājpūts think flight a disgraceful thing? Alas! thy title, Rāja Karan, ought to have taught thee better. Mayest thou die without the comforts of thy faith." Ram Das was immediately sent to Bangash, where, in the same year, he died (1022). When Jāhāngīr heard of his death, he said, "My curse has come true; for the Hindus believe that a man who dies beyond the Indus, will go straight to hell."

He was a liberal man, and gave rich presents to jesters and singers.

His closest son, Naman Dās, in the 48th year of Akbar's reign, left the Court without permission, and went home. At the request of his father, Shāh Qulī Khān's men were to bring him back to Court by force. But Naman defied them; a struggle ensued, and he was killed. Rām Dās was so grieved, that Akbar paid him a visit of condolence.

His second son, $Dalap \ D\bar{a}s$, had the same character as his father; but he died young.

In the Tuzuk (p. 312) a villa near a spring called Inch (2), between Bānpūr¹ and Kākāpūr in Kashmīr, is mentioned, which Akbar had given Rān Dās. Vide also Tuzuk, p. 39, l. 3.

239. Muhammad Khān Niyāzī.

Abū 'l-Fazl ranks him among the commanders of 500. Under Jahāngīr he rose to a command of 2,000. Like Mīrzā Rustam Şafawī and Abū

'l-Hasan Turbatī, he refused a title; for he said that his name was Muḥammad, than which no better name existed.

He served under Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80) in Bengal, and distinguished himself in the fights near the Brahmaputra. It is said that Shāhbāz was so anxious to retain his services, that he gave him a lac of rupees per annum. Later, he served, under the Khānkhānān in the conquest of Thathah, and inflicted the final blow on Mīrzā Jānī Beg (No. 47) near Lakhī, where he obtained a signal victory, though far outnumbered by the enemies. From that time, the Khānkhānān was his friend.

Under Jahängīr, he took a leading part in the Dakhin wars, especially in the fights with Malik Ambar near Kharkī, a famous battlefield (vide note to No. 255), and continued to serve there under Prince Shāhjahān.

He died in 1037. The tārīkh of his death is "" Muḥammad Khān, the saint, is dead." He was a man of great piety. His day was carefully divided; religious exercises, the reading of commentaries on the Quran, conversing with holy men, sleeping and eating, each had its fixed time. Nor did he ever depart from his routine except on the march. He never neglected the ablution (wūzū) prescribed by the law. People told many miraculous stories (khawāriq) of him.

During his long stay in the Dakhin, he held Āshtī (in the Warda district) as jāgīr, and made it his home. He adorned the town with several mosques, houses, and gardens. "At present," says the author of the Masāṣir, "there is only one of his hundred houses left, the store house where his lamps were kept; the whole town and the neighbourhood are deserted, and do not yield a tenth part of the old revenue. Even among his descendants there is none left that may be called a man of worth (kas-ī ra-mānd ki rushd-ī dāshta bāshad)." **

magnetrate."

"Karanja. A small octroi town in the Arvi tabsil of the Warda district. It was founded some 260 years by Nawab Muhammad Khan Niyasi of Ashti." Extracts from C. Grant's Gazetteer of the Central Provinces of India, second edition, 1870, pp. 7 and 236.

¹ Vide Dowson's edition of Elliot's Historians, Vol. I, p. 250.

[&]quot;The Emperor Jahängir gave the Åshti, Amner, Paunär, and Täligaw (Barår) parganas in jägir to Muhammad Khān Niyāzi. He restored Åshti, and brought the country round under cultivation. A handsome mausoleum was built over his grave in Mughul style. Muhammad Khān was succeeded by Ahmad hhān, who died in 1001. A similar mausoleum was erected over his tomb, but smaller and of interior workmanship. The two stand side by side within an enclosure, and are the sights of Åshti. They are indeed striking monuments of art to find in such a remote spot as this. After the death of Ahmad Khān, the power of the Niyāzīs gradually declined; in time Åshti itself passed from their hands into the possession of the Marhatta officials, and now nothing remains to them save a few ront-free fields, sufficient merely for their subsistence. The tembs of their ancestors were stready falling into disrepair, owing to the poverty of the family, when they were taken in hand by the district authorities as worthy objects of local interest, and restored from municipal funds. Lately, in consideration of the past history of the family, and the local respect which it commands, the Government conferred on Nawāb Wāhid Khān, one of its representatives in Āshtī, the powers of an honorary magnetrate."

He was buried in Ashtī. People often pray at his tomb.

The men of his contingent were mostly Niyāzī Afghāns. If one of them died, he gave a month's pay to his family; or, if he had no children, half a month's pay to his heirs.

His son, Aḥmad <u>Kh</u>ān Niyāzī, was in the 20th year of Shāhjahān's reign a commander of 2,500 (*Pādishāhnāma*, II, 386, 725).

240. Abū 'l-Muzaffar, son of Ashraf Khān (No. 74).

From the Akbarnāma (III, 248) we see that in the 24th year (987) he was stationed in Chanderī and Narwar, and was ordered to assist in suppressing the Bihār rebels (III, 273). In the 28th year he served in Gujrāt (III, 423), and Badā,oni. II (323). Vide also under No. 74.

241. Khwajagi Muhammad Husayn, Mir Barr.

He is the younger brother of Qāsim Khān (No. 59) and had the title of Mīr Barr, in contradistinction to that of his brother. He came in the 5th year with Mun^cim (No. 11) from Kābul to India. When dissensions broke out between Chanī Khān, Mun^cim's son, and Ḥaydar Muḥammad Khān Ākhtabegī (No. 66), whom Mun^cim had left as his nā ibs in Kābul, Ḥaydar was called to Court, and Abū 'l-Fatḥ, son of Mun^cim's brother, was sent there to assist Chanī. Muḥammad Ḥusayn accompanied Abū 'l-Fatḥ. He remained a long time in Kābul. After his return to India, he accompanied the Emperor on his march to Kashmīr. His honesty and punctuality made him a favourite with the Emperor, and he was appointed Mīr Bakāwal (master of the Imperial kitchen) and was also made a commander of 1,000.

In the 5th year of Jahangir, he officiated for Hashim (No. 256) as governor of Kashmir. On Hashim's arrival he returned to Court, and died in the end of the 7th year (1021; *Tuzuk*, p. 114).

He had no children. The Tuzuk says that he was quite bald, an i had neither moustache nor beard. His voice was shrill like that of a et such.

242. 'Abū 'l-Qāsim, brother of 'Abū 'l-Qādir Ākhūnd.

He is not to be confounded with Nos. 199 and 251. Badā, oni (II 323), calls him a native of Tabrīz, and says that his brother was A bar's teacher (ākaūna). In 991, Abū 'l-Qāsim was made Dīwan of Gujr t.

243. Qamar Khan, son of Mir Abdu 'l-Latif of Qazwin (No. 1 1).

He served under Muncim (No. 11) in Bengal, and was present: 1 the battle of Takaro, i (p. 406). In the 22nd year he served under S ihab

¹ Abû 'l-Fath, who on p. 333, has erroneously been called SAizlu 'l Fath, w s the son of Fazil Beg, MunSim's brother. Bada, oni, II, 56, has Fazû*il Beg, but the Akba nama and the Ma*āşir have Fazîl.

in Gujrāt (Akbarn., III, 190) and in the 24th year under Todar Mal in Bihār. In the 25th year he took part in the battle near Sultanpūr Bilharī¹ (p. 400, and Akbarn., III, 305).

His son, Kawkab, fell into disgrace under Jahangir for some fault. He was flogged and imprisoned. Regarding his restoration to favour, vide Tuzuk, p. 219.

244. Arjum Singh,

245. Sabal Singh, sons of Rāja Mān Singh (No. 30).

246. Sakat Singh.

Some MSS. have Durjan² instead of Arjun. The name of Sakat Singh, moreover, recurs again at No. 342. There is little doubt that at the latter place we should read *Himmat Singh*, though all MSS. have Sakat.

Nor is it clear why Abū 'l-Fazl has not entered the name of Bnā,o Singh, who at Akbar's death was a commander of 1,000, and was gradually promoted during Jahāngīr's reign to a manṣab of 5,000. Like his elder brother Jagat Singh (No. 160), he died from excessive drinking (1030). His name often occurs in the Tuzuk.

Arjun Singh, Sabal Singh, and Sakat Singh, served in the 37th year in the conquest of Orīsā. Sakat Singh, in the 26th year (989), had served in Kābul. They died before their father.

Himmat Singh distinguished himself under his father in the wars with the Afghans.

Col. J. C. Brooke in his Political History of the State of Jeypore (Selections from the Records, Government of India, Foreign Department, No. LXV, 1868) mentions six sons of Man Singh, Jagat, Arjun, Himmat, Sakat, Buim, and Kalyan Singh. The last two are not mentioned by Muhammadan historians; nor are Bha,o and Sabal mentioned by Brooke. Vide. "A Chapter from Muhammadan History," in the Calcutta Review, April, 1871.

246. Mustafa Ghilzi.

A Sayyid Muştafa is mentioned in the Akburnāma (III. 416). He served in the 28th year in Gujrāt, and was present in the battle near Maisāna. 18 kms S.E. of Patan, in which Sher Khan Fülädi was defeated.

247. Mazar Khan, son of Sacid Khan, the Gakkhar.

A brother of his is mentioned below. No. 232. Vide Nos. 170, 171.

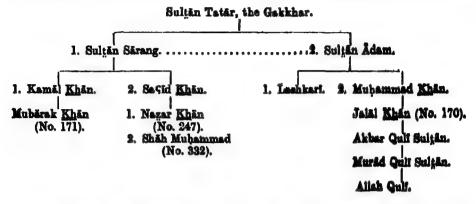
^{[1} Or Bilahri.—B.]

The Lucknow edition of the Abbarnama (III, 642) has also Durjan, and (by mistake).

Sil for Sabal Singh. The Subian Gaugh mentioned in the same passage, would also appear to be a son of Man Singh.

The <u>Tabaqāt</u> calls him Nazar Beg, son of Sa^cīd <u>Khān</u>, and says that in 1001 he was a Hazārī.

Mughul historians give the following tree of the Gakkhar chiefs:-



Jalal Khan was killed in 1620 (15th year) in Bangash, and his son Akbar Quli, who then served at Kangra, was made a commander of 1,000, and sent to Bangash (*Tuzuk*, pp. 307, 308).

Jahangir, after the suppression of Khusraw's revolt, passed on his way to Kābul through the Gakkhar district (Tuzuk, pp. 47, 48). He left the Bahat (1st Muharram, 1016) and came to Fort Rohtas, the cost of which he states to have been 161,000,000 dams, "which is equal to 4,025,000 rupees in Hindüstäni money, or 120,000 Persian tümäns, or 1 wb, 2,175,000 silver Halis of Turani money." After a march of 42 kos, he came to Tila, tile in the Gakkhar dialect meaning "a bill". He then came to Dih Bhakrāla, bhakrā meaning "forest". The way from Tila to Bhakra passes along the bed of the Kahan river, the banks of which are full of kanir 1 flowers. He then came to Hatya, which was built by a Gakkhar of the name of Hathi (mentioned in Mr. Delmerick's History of the Gakkhars, Journal Asiatic Society Bengal, 1871). The district from Mårgala to Hatvå is called Pothwär; and from Rohtas to Hatvå dwell the Bhūgivals, a tribe related to the Gakkhars. From Hatya, he marched 42 kos and reached Pakka, so called because it has a "pucca" sarā,ī. Four and a half kee further on, he came to Kurar, which means in the Gakkhar dialect "rugged". He then went to Rawalpindi, which is said to have been built by a Hindu of the name Rawal, pinds meaning "a village", and gives a few curious particulars regarding the river and the pool of the place. From Rawalpindi he went to Kharbuza, where a dome may be seen which has the shape of a melon (kharbūza). The Gakkhars used

^{[1} Kanir, probably haner m. " a species of cleander."--P.]

formerly to collect tolls there. He then came to the Kālāpānī, and to the Margala pass, mar meaning "killing" and gala "a carawan". "Here ends the country of the Gakkhars. They are a brutish race, always at feud with each other. I asked them to live in peace; but they will not." 1

The Pādishāhnāma (II, 240, 264, 266, 722, 733, 740) mentions several

Gakkhar chiefs :-

- 1. Akbar Quli Sultan, a commander of 1,500, 1,500 horse, died in the 18th year of Shāhjahān's reign. His son Murād Qulī Sultān, was under Shahjahan, a commander of 1,500, 1,000 horse (Padishahn., II, 410, 485, 512, 523, 565, 595, 655, 730).
 - 2. Jabbar Quli (brother of Jalal Khan), 1,000, 800 horse,
- 3. Khizr Sultan (son of Nazar Khan), \$800, 500 horse, died in the 12th year Shahi,'s reign.

The Pādishāhnāma (I, p. 432) mentions these Gakkhars' mules as famous.

The Ma asir-i Alamoiri (p. 155) also mentions Murad Ouli and his son Allah Quli. Allah Quli's daughter was married to Prince Muhammad Akbar, fourth son of Awrangzib, on the 3rd Rajab, 1087.

248. Räm Chand, son of Madhukar [Bundela].

He is also called Rām Sāh, and was mentioned on p. 356. He was introduced at court by Sädiq Khan (No. 43), when Akbar was in Kashmir In the first year of Jahangir's reign we find him in rebellion, evidently because his right of succession was rendered doubtful by the predilection of the emperor for Bir Singh De,o, Ram Chand's younger brother. In the end of the first year, he was attacked by Abdu 'llah Khan, who moved his jagir from Kalpi to Udcha. On the 27th Zi Qasda, 1015, Ram Chand was brought fettered to court; but Jahangir had his fetters taken off, gave him a dress of honour, and handed him over to Rāja Bāsû of Dhamerī. "He never thought that he would be treated so kindly" (Tuzuk, p. 42). But Üdcha was handed over to Bir Singh De,o as a reward for the murder of Abū 'l-Fazl.

and may that the river hear manys or majorys, is called Rais, and that hear Rawalpings is the Lahi, which forces a passage through low hills where there is a very deep pool, just before its junction with the Sohan. Sarās Khārbūza is also called Sarās Mādhū.

On the same page of Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk, we have to read Khātar and Dila-sāk for Khar and Dila-sāk. The Khattars occupy the district called Khātar, and the Dila-sāks are found in the Chhach valley of the Indus. [Vide No. 373.—B.]

Pothwār is the country between the Jhelam and the Sohas; but Jahāngir extends

It a: the Margala pass from Hatya (30 miles from the Jhelam).
So according to Mr. Delmerick.

¹ For the geographical details of this passage, I am indebted to Mr. J. G. Delmerick. The Tusuk has Pila of Tila; Bhakrā for Bhakrāla, and the Persian word has for Kāhan (2014), the name of the river near Bhakrāla—a most extraordinary mistake; how for Kurar or Gūrā, a village near Manikyāla; Ponhūkār for Pothuār. Mr. Delmerick also says that the river near Hatiyā or Hāthiyā, is called Kāsī, and that near Rāwalpindi

In the 4th year of his reign (1018), Jahangir married Ram Chand's daughter at the request of her father (vide Tuzuk, p. 77; and also No. 225, note).

He appears to have died in 1021, and was succeeded by his son

Bharat Singh. Tuzuk, p. 112.

Muhammadan historians give the following tree of the Udcha

Rāja Partā, founds Ūdoha in A.D 1531. 2. Madhukar Singh 1. Bharat Chand (died 1000). (died childless). 3. Bir Singh De,o, the murderer of Abū 'l-Faşl (died 1036). 1. Ram Chand 2. Hodal Ra.o (died 1021). (killed, p. 382). A son. Bhirat. 1. Jhujhar Singh. 2. Pahar Singh. 3. Chandr Man. 4. Beni Die. Debi Singh. Bikramájít. Subhin Singh. Bhagwin Die. Prith! Singh. Sawai Singh.

The Masagir contains biographical notes of nearly all of them. Vide also Thornton's Gazetteer, under Oorcha.

Benī Dās and Bhagwān Dās were killed by a Rājpūt in the 13th year of Shāhjahān's reign. They held commands of 500, 200 horse, and 1,000, 600 horse, respectively.

Chandr Man was in the 20th year of Sh. a commander of 1,500, 800 horse.

Vide Pädishāhnāma, I, 172 (where another Bundela of the name of Suhk Dev is mentioned), 205, 241, 368, 372, 425; II, 731, 734.

The Ma^{*}āṣir-i ^{*}Alamgīrī mentions several Bundelas, as Satr Sāl, Jāswant Singh, Indarman (died 1088) and the rebellious sons of Champat (l.c., pp. 161, 163, 169, 273, 424). Vide also under No. 249.

Bir Singh De,o, the murderer of Abū 'l-Fazl is often called in bad MSS. Nar Singh Deo. Thus also in the printed editions of the Tuzuk, the 1st volume of Pādishāhnāma, the 'Ālamgīrnāma, etc., and in Elphinstone's History. The temples which he built in Mathurā at a cost of 33 lacs of rupees, were destroyed by Awrangzīb in 1080. (Ma'āṣir-i 'Ālamgīrī, p. 95.)1

¹ The Dutch travelier De Last has an interesting passage regarding Abi 'l-Fasl's death (De Imperio Magni Mogulie, Loyden, 1631, p. 209). He calls Bir Singh Rudeis Bertsingh Bendela.

249. Raja Mukatman, the Bhadauriya.

Bhadawar is the name of a district S.E. of Agra; its chief town is Hatkanth (vide p. 341, note 4). The inhabitants are called Bhadauryas. They were known as daring robbers, and though so near the capital, they managed to maintain their independence till Akbar had their chief trampled to death by an elephant, when they submitted.

The next chief, Mukatman, entered the imperial service, and rose to a manaab of 1,000. In 992, he served in Gujrāt (Akbarnāma, III, 423, 438).

Under Jahängir, we find a chief of the name of Rāja Bikramājīt, who served under 'Abdu' llāh against the Rānā, and later in the Dakhin. He died in the 11th year of Jahāngīr and was succeeded by his son Bhoj. Sayyid Aḥmad's edition of the Tuzuk (p. 108) mentions a Bhadaurya chief Mangat, who in the 7th year served in Bangash; but the name is doubtful.

Under Shāhjahān, the head of the Bhadauriya clan was Rāja Kishn Singh. He served in the first year under Mahābat Khān against Jhujhār Singh, and in the 3rd year against Khān Jahān Lodī and the Nigāmu 'l-Mulk, who had afforded Khān Jahān protection. In the 6th year, he distinguished himself in the siege of Dawlatābād. Three years later, in the 9th year, he served under Khān Zamān against Sāhū Bhōnsla. He died in the 17th year (1053).

In the *Pādishāhnāma* (I, b., 309) he is mentioned as a commander of 1,000, 600 horse.

As Kishn Singh had only a son by a concubine, he was succeeded by Badan Singh, grandson of Kishn's uncle. He was made a Rāja and a commander of 1,000. In the 21st year, at a darbār, a mast elephant ran up to him, took up one of his men with its tusks, when Badan Singh stuck his dagger into the animal, which, frightened as it was at the same time by a fire wheel, dropped the unfortunate man. Shāhjahān rewarded the bravery of the Rāja with a khilsat, and remitted 50,000 Rs. out of the 2 lacs which was the assessment of the Bhadāwar district. In the 22nd year he was made a commander of 1,500. In the 25th year he served under Awrangzīb, and in the 26th under Dārā Shikoh, before Qandahār, where in the following year he died.

His son Mahā Singh was then made a Rāja and received a manṣab of 1,000, 800 horse. He served in the 28th year in Kābul. After Dārā's defeat he paid his respects to Awrangzib, in whose reign he served against

¹ So Padichahnams, II, 752. The Masteir calls him Bad Singh or Bud Singh.

the Bundela rebels. In the 10th year he served under Kāmil <u>Kh</u>ān against the Yūsufzā^sīs. He died in the 26th year.

He was succeeded by his son Odat Singh (vide Ma^{*}āṣir-i ʿĀlamgūrī, p. 226 and p. 228, where the Bibl. Ind. edition has wrongly Rūdar Singh for Odat S.). He had before served under Jai Singh in the Dakhin, and was in the 24th year made commandant of Chitor (l.c., p. 196).

250. Rāja Rām Chandr, zamīndār of Orīsā.

Regarding him, vide Stirling's report of Orīsā, Asiatic Researches, vol. xv. His name occurs often in the narrative of Mān Singh's conquest of Orīsā (37th year of Akbar's reign).

The province of Khurda (South Oṛīsā) was conquered and annexed to the Dihlī empire by Mukarram Khān (vide No. 260), in the 12th year of Jahāngīr's reign (Tuzuk, p. 215).

251. Sayyid Abū 'l-Qāsim, son of Sayyid Muḥammad Mīr 'Adl (No. 140).

He served in the 25th year (998) in Bihār, and in the battle of Sultanpūr Bilharī; also, in the 33rd year, against the Yüsufzā*īs.

The Tārīkh Ma^cṣūmī (Dowson, Elliot's Historians, I, p. 243) gives earlier but perhaps more correct dates regarding the appointment to Bhakkar and the death of the Mīr cAdl, viz. his arrival at Bhakkar, 11th Ramazān, 983, and his death there, 8th Shacbān, 984 (October, 1576). He was succeeded by his son Abū'l-Fazl, who is not mentioned in the Ā^cīn. On the 9th Zī'l-ḥijjah, 985 (Feb., 1578), Īctinād (No. 119) arrived at Bhakkar.

252. Dalpat, son of Ray Ray Singh. He has been mentioned above, p. 386.

XVIII. Commanders of Four Hundred.

253. Shaykh Fayşî, son of Shaykh Mubarak of Nagor.

The name of this great poet and friend of Akbar was Abū 'l-Fayz. Fayzī is his takhalluş. Towards the end of his life in imitation of the form of the takhalluş of his brother 'Allāmī, he assumed the name of Fayyāzī.

Fayzī was the eldest son of Shaykh Mubārak of Nāgor. Shaykh Mubārak (vide pp. 178, 195, 207, 219) traced his origin to an Arabian dervish from Yaman, who in the 9th century of the Hijrah had settled in Sīwistān, where he married. In the 10th century, Mubārak's father went to Hindūstān and settled at Nāgor. Several of his children having died one after the other, he called his next child Mubārak. He was born in 911. When a young man, Mubārak went to Gujrāt and studied under

Khatib Abū 'l-Fazl of Kāzarūn and Mawlānā 'Imād of Lāristān. In 950, Mubārak settled at Āgra. It is said that he often changed his religious opinions. Under Islam Shāh, he was a Mahdawi, and had to suffer persecution in the beginning of Akbar's reign; he then became a Naqshbandī, then a Hamadānī, and lastly, when the court was full of Persians, he inclined to Shī'sism. But whatever his views may have been; the education which he gave his sons Fayzī and Abū 'l-Fazl, the greatest writers that India has produced, shows that he was a man of comprehensive genius. Shaykh Mubārak wrote a commentary to the Qur'ān, in four volumes, entitled Mambas' 'l-suyūn,' and another work of the title of Jawāmis' 'l-kalām. Towards the end of his life, he suffered from partial blindness, and died at Lāhor, on the 17th Zī Qas'da, 1001, at the age of 90 years. The tārīkh of his death will be found in the words Shaykh-i kāmil.

Shaykh Fayzī was born at Agra in 954. His acquirements in Arabic Literature, the art of poetry, and in medicine, were very extensive. He used to treat poor people gratis. One day he appeared with his father before Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabī, the Sadr (p. 282), and applied for a grant of 100 bighas; but he was not only refused, but also turned out of the hall with every contumely on account of his tendencies to Shisism. But Fayzi's literary fame reached Akbar's ears, and in the 12th year, when Akbar was on the expedition to Chitor, he was called to court. Fayzi's bigoted enemies in Agra interpreted the call as a summons before a judge and warned the governor of the town not to let Fayzi escape. He therefore ordered some Muchula to surround Mubarak's house; but accidentally Fayzi was absent from home. Mubarak was ill-treated, and when Fayzī at last came, he was carried off by force. But Akbar received him most favourably, and Fayzi in a short time became the emperor's constant companion and friend. He was instrumental in bringing about the fall of Shaykh Abdu 'n-Nabi.

In the 30th year he planned a khamsa, or collection of five epics, in imitation of the Khamsa of Nizāmī. The first, Markiz" 'l-adwār, was to consist of 3,000 verses, and was to be a jawāb (imitation) of Nizāmī's Makhran" 'l-asrār; the Sulaymān e Bilqīs and the Nal Daman were to consist of 4,000 verses each, and were to be jawābs of the Khusraw 'Shīrīn and Layla 'Majnūn respectively; and the Haft Kishwar and the Akbarnāma, each of 5,000 verses, were to correspond to the Haft Paykar and the Sikandarnāma. In the 33rd year he was made Malik" 'sh-Shusarā.

Badā, oni (III, 74) calls it Mambas= nafās is 'l-s nyūn.

or Poet Laureate (Akbarn., III, 559). Though he had composed portions of the Khamsa, the original plan was not carried out, and in the 39th year Akbar urged him to persevere, and recommended the completion of the Nal Daman. Fayzī thereupon finished the poem and presented, in the same year, a copy of it to his imperial master.

Fayzī suffered from asthma, and died on the 10th Ṣafar, 1004 (40th year). The tārīkh of his death is Fayyāz-i ʿAjam. It is said that he composed 101 books. The best known, besides his poetical works, are the Sawāṭi * °l-Ilhām, and the Mawārīd* 'l-Kalām, regarding which vide below the poetical extracts. His fine library, consisting of 4,300 choice MSS., was embodied with the imperial library.

Fayzī had been employed as teacher to the princes; sometimes he also acted as ambassador. Thus, in 1000, he was in the Dakhin, from where he wrote the letter to the historian Badā,onī, who had been in temporary disgrace at court.

Vide also pp. 112, 113, 192, 194, 207, 216, 218; and Journal Asiatic Society Bengul for 1869, pp. 137, 142.

254. Hakim Mişri.

According to Badā, onī (III, 165) Ḥakīm Miṣrī was a very learned man and a clever doctor. He also composed poems. A satire of his is mentioned which he wrote against Khwāja Shamsu 'd-Dīn Khawāfī (No. 159). He died in Burhānpūr and was buried there.

Miṣrī is mentioned in the Akbarnāma, III, p. 629, and p. 843. In the latter passage, Abū 'l-Fazl mentions his death (middle of 1009), and states that he saw his friend on the deathbed. It is impossible to reconcile Abū 'l-Fazl's date with Badā,onī s statement; for Bādā,onī died in 1004 (Journal Asiatic Society Bengal for 1869, p. 143). But both Abū 'l-Fazl and Badā,onī speak of the Ḥakīm as a man of a most amiable and unselfish character.

255. Īrij, son of Mīrzā Khānkhānān (No. 29).

He was mentioned on p. 339. During the reign of Jahangir he was made Şübadar of Barar and Ahmadnagar. He greatly distinguished himself during several fights with Malik Ambar, especially as Kharki, 1

Lachmi Narā, in Shafiq, the author of the Haqiqat-i Hindūstān, says that it was called Kharki from the Dakhin word , which means etony ", " a stony place". It lies 5 kos S.E. of Dawlatābād (the old Dhārāgarh and De, ogir of CAlātu 'd-Din Khiljt). Kharki under Jahāngir was called Fathābad. In 1024 a canal was dug from Kharki to Dawlatābād. Its name was Chahārnahri, and the tārikh of its completion is khayr-i jārī (pr. a running benefit). Later Awrangaib changed the name of Kharki to Awrangābād, under which name it is now known. Kharki was the seat of Malik CAmbar.

for which victories he was made a commander of 5,000. In the 12th year he served under Prince Shāhjahān in the Dakhin.

It is said that he was a good soldier, but stingy, and careless in his dress. A daughter of his was married (2nd Ramazān, 1026) to Prince Shāhjahān. The offspring of this marriage, Prince Jahān-afroz, was born at Āgra on the 12th Rajab, 1028, and died at Burhānpūr, at the age of 1 year 9 months (*Padishāhnāma*).

According to Grant's Gazetteer of the Central Provinces (2nd edition, p. 128), Irij's tomb is at Burhānpūr. "The tomb was built during his lifetime, and is really a handsome structure." The statement of the Gazetteer that Irij, towards the end of his life, "lived as a recluse" at Burhānpūr, is not borne out by the histories; for according to the Tuzuk (p. 270) he died of excessive wine drinking.

At his death (1028) he was only thirty-three years of age. The mansab of 400, which Abū 'l-Fazl assigns him, must therefore have been conferred upon him when he was a mere child.

256. Sakat Singh, son of Rāja Mān Singh (No. 30).

Vide above, under No. 244.

257. 'Abdu 'llāh [Sarfarāz <u>Kh</u>ān] son of <u>Kh</u>ān-i A'zam Mîrzā Koka (No. 21).

Vide p. 316.

It was stated (p. 316) on the authority of the Ma*āṣir that he received the title of Sardār Khān, which had become vacant by the death of Takhta Beg (No. 195). But the Tuzuk (p. 71) gives him the title of Sarfarāz Khān. This is evidently a mistake of the author of the Ma*āṣir; for the title of Sardār Khān was in the 8th year (1022) conferred on Khwāja Yādgār, brother of 'Abdu'llāh Khān Fīrūz-jang (Tuzuk, p. 116) when 'Abdu'llāh Sarfarāz Khān was still alive.

The Macasir also says that 'Aid" 'liah accompanied his father to Gwalyar (p. 317); but the Tuzuk (p. 141) states that he was imprisoned in Rantanbhur, from where, at the request of his father, he was called to court.

358. SAll Muhammad Asp.

Badā, oni says (II, p. 57) that "S Ali Muhammad Asp, who is new in the service of the emperor, at the instigation of Jūjak Begum, killed Abū 'l-Fath Beg (p. 333)." In the 9th year he was in the service of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakim, king of Kābul. Afterwards, he came to India. In the 26th year (989) he served under Prince Murād against his former master (Akbarnāma, 1II, 345); in the 30th year (993) he served in Kābul (III, 487, 490). In the 32nd year he distinguished himself under 'Abdu'l-Maṭlab (No. 83) against the Tārīkīs (III, p. 541).

In the Lucknow edition of the Akbarnāma he is wrongly called Alī Muhammad Alīf.

259. Mīrzā Muhammad.

A. Mīrzā Muḥammad was mentioned on p. 399.

260. Shaykh Bāyazīd [Mu^cazzam <u>Kh</u>ān], grandson of Shaykh Salīm of Fathpūr Sīkrī.

Bāyazīd's mother nursed Prince Salīm (Jahāngīr) on the day he was born (*Tuzuk*, p. 13). In the 40th year of Akbar's reign B. was a commander of 400 and gradually rose to a command of 2,000. After Jahāngīr's accession he received a manṣab of 3,000 and the title of Mu^cazzam Khān. Soon after he was made Ṣūbahdār of Dihlī (*l.c.*, p. 37), and in the 3rd year a commander of 4,000, 2,000 horse. On his death he was buried at Fatḥpūr Sīkrī (*l.c.*, p. 262).

His son Mukarram Khān was son-in-law to Islām Khān Shaykh 'Alā'u 'd-Dīn (another grandson of Shaykh Salīm), under whom he served in Bengal.¹ He distinguished himself in the expedition to Kūch Hājū, and brought the zamīndār Parīchhit before the governor.² At the death of his father-in-law, Muḥtashim Khān Shaykh Qāsim, brother of Islām Khān, was made governor of Bengal, and Mukarram Khān continued for one year in his office as governor of Kūch Hājū; but as he could not agree with Qāsim he went to court.

Later, he was made governor of Orīsā, and conquered the province of Khurdah (l.c., pp. 214, 215), for which he was made a commander of 3,000, 2,000 horse. He seems to have remained in Orīsā till the 11th year (1029) when Ḥasan ʿAlī Turkmān was sent there as governor (Tuzuk, p. 308). In the 16th year M. Kh. came to court and was made Ṣūbadār of Dihlī and Fawjdār of Mewāt (l.c., p. 352).

¹ Islām Khān was married to a sister of Abū 'l-Fazl, by whom he had a son called Hoshang. Islām Khān died as governor of Bengal on the 5th Rajab, 1022 (Tuzuk, p. 126).

² The Pūšishāhnāma (II, 64) where Mukarram Khān's expedition is related, distinguishes between Kūch Hājū and Kūch Bihār. The former was in the beginning of Jahāngīr's reign under Parichhit, the latter under Lachmi Narā,in. Hājū is the name of a famous leader of the Kūch people, who in ethnological works is said to have expelled the Kachāris and founded a dynasty which lasted two hundred years. His descendants still exercise jura regalia in Kūch Bihār Proper. Materials for a history of Kūch Bihār will be found in the Abbarnāma (Lucknow Edition, III, p. 208, annals of the 41st year); in the Tuzuk-i Jahāngīrī (pp. 147, 220, 221, 223); in the Pādishāhnāma, I, 496; II, 64 to 79, 87, 88, 94; and in the Fath-i Ashām; vide also Journal Asiatic Society Bengal, vol. vii; Stewart's History of Bengal, p. 96; and above, pp. 315, 340, 343.

In the 21st year he was sent to Bengal as governor, vice Khānazād Khān. He travelled by boat. One day he ordered his ship to be moved to the bank, as he wished to say the afternoon prayer, when a sudden gale broke forth, during which he and his companions were drowned.

261. Ghaznīn Khān, of Jālor.

Ghaznin Khān was in the 40th year of Akbar's reign a commander of 400. He is mentioned in the *Pādishāhnāma* (I, 167)¹ as having served during the reign of Jahāngīr against the Rānā.

Bird, in his History of Gujrāt (pp. 124, 405), calls him Ghaznawi Khān and Ghaznī Khān, and says he was the son of Malik Khanjī Jālorī. Chaznīn Khān seems to have been inclined to join the insurrection of Sultān Muzaffar. The Khānkhānān, on the 9th Muharram, 998, sent a detachment against Jālor; but perceiving that he was not in a fit condition to offer resistance, Ghaznīn went submissively to court. The emperor took compassion on him, and confirmed him in his hereditary possessions.

His son Pahār was executed by Jahāngīr. "When I came to Dih Qāziyān, near Ujjain, I summoned Pahār. This wretch had been put by me, after the death of his father, in possession of the Fort and the district of Jālor, his ancestral home. He is a young man, and was often checked by his mother for his bad behaviour. Annoyed at this, he entered with some of his companions her apartments, and killed her. I investigated the case, found him guilty, and had him executed." (Ṣafar, 1026; Tuzuk, p. 174).

Another son of Ghaznin Khān is Nizām who died in the 6th year of Shāhjahān's reign. He was a commander of 900, 550 horse (*Pādishāhn*., I, b., 313).

Ghāznīn's brother Fīrūz was a commander of 600, 400 horse, and died

in the 4th year (Pādishāhn., I, b., 319).

The Pādishāhnāma (II, 739) mentions also a Mujāhid of Jālor, who in the 20th year of Shāhjahān's reign was a commander of 800, 800 horse.

262. Kījak Khwāja, son of Khwāja 'Abdu' 'llāh.

The first volume of the Akbarnama (p. 411) mentions a Kijak Khwaja among the graudees who accompanied Humayun to India. The third

¹ Wrongly called in the Bibl. Indica Edition of the Padishahnama (I, 167), Charall

Channin's jdgir, before Akbar's conquest of Gujrát, as detailed by Bird (p. 124) includes portions of Nagor and Mirths, and fixes the revenue at nearly 10 lacs of rupees, with 7,000 horse. This can only have been nominal. Abu 'l-Faşl, in his description of Süba jmir, IIIrd book, mentions 3½ lacs of rupees, with 2,000 horse, as the james of Jälor and Sänchor (S.W. of Jälor).

volume of the same work (p. 470) mentions a Kījak Khwāja, who in 993 served against Qutlū Lohānī in Bengal. Vide No. 109.

263. Sher Khan Mughul.

264. Fathu 'llah, son of Muhammad Wafa.

He appears to be the Fath^u 'llāh mentioned in the Akbarnāma (III, 825) as the sharbatdār of the emperor. Akbar made him an Amīr. For some fault he was sent to the Dakhin; but as he got ill, he was recalled. He recovered and went on sick leave to Māndū, where he died (1008).

265. Rāy Manchar, son of Rāja Lökaran.

Rāja Lōkaran belonged to the Shaykhāwat branch of the Kachhwāhas. He served, in the 21st year, under Mān Singh, against the Rānā, and went in the same year with Rāja Bīr Bar to Dongarpūr, the zamīndār of which wished to send his daughter to Akbar's harem. In the 24th year he served under Todar Mal in Bihār, and in the 24th year under the Khān Khānān in Gujrāt.

Manohar, in the 22nd year, reported to the emperor on his visit to Amber that in the neighbourhood an old town existed the site of which was marked by huge mounds of stone. Akbar encouraged him to rebuild it, and laid the foundation himself. The new settlement was called Mol Manoharnagar.² In the 45th year he was appointed with Rāy Durgā Lāl (No. 103) to pursue Muzaffar Ḥusayn Mīrzā (p. 516), who was caught by Khwāja Waisī.

In the 1st year of Jahangir's reign he served under Prince Parwiz against the Rana, and was made, in the 2nd year, a commander of 1,500, 600 horse (Tuzuk, p. 64). He served long in the Dakhin and died in the 11th year.

His son Prithi Chand received after the death of his father the title of Ray, and was made a commander of 500, 300 horse (l.c., p. 160).

Manohar wrote Persian verses, and was called at court Mīrzā Manohar; vide my article, "A Chapter from Muhammadan History," Calcutta Review, April, 1871.

266. Khwaja 'Abd" 's-Samad, Shirin-qalam (sweet-pen).

He is not to be confounded with No. 353.

Khweja Aldu 'ş-Şamad was a Shîrazi. His father Khwaja Nizamu

The word dongar, which occurs in the names of places from Sorath to Mālwa and Central India, is a Gond word meaning a forest. There are many Dongarpūrs, Dongargūwa, Dongartāls, Dongare, etc. Similarly, the word bir in Mundārl signifies a jungle, whence Birbhüm (Western Bengal). Thus also Jhārkand, or jungle region, the general name of Chutya Nāgpūr. The above-mentioned Dongarpur lies on the N.W. frontier of Gujrāt (Akbarn., III, 169, 170, 477).

The maps give a Manoharpūr north of Amber, about Lat. 27° 20.

'l-Mulk was Vazīr to Shāh Shujās of Shīrāz. Before Humāyun left Īrān he went to Tabriz, where 'Abdu's-Samad paid his respects. He was even at that time known as a painter and calligraphist. Humayun invited him to come to him, and though then unable to accompany the emperor. he followed him in 956 to Kābul.

Under Akbar A. was a commander of 400; but low as his mansab was, he had great influence at court. In the 22nd year he was in charge of the mint at Fathpur Sikri (Akbarnama, III, 195); and in the 31st year, when the officers were redistributed over the several subas, he was appointed Diwan of Multan.

As an instance of his skill it is mentioned that he wrote the Surat" 'l-ikhlas (Qur'an, Sur. ('XII) on a poppy seed (danah-y khashkhash). Vide p. 111.

For his son, vide No. 351.

267. Silhadī, son of Rāja Bihārī Mal (No. 23).

268. Rām Chand Kachhwāha.

Vide p. 422.

[Rām Chand Chauhān.] The Matasir says that he was the son of Badal Singh, and a commander of 500. In the 17th year he served under M. Azīz Koka (No. 21) in Gujrat, and in the 26th year under Sultan Murad against M. Muhammad Hakim, king of Kabul. In the 28th year he was under M. Shahrukh in the Daklan. In the fight, in which Raja SAli of Khandesh fell, R. Ch. received twenty wounds and fell from his horse. Next day he was found still alive. He died a few days later (41st year, 1005).

Bahadur Khan Qurdar. 269

He served in the beginning of the 18th year in Gujrāt (Akbarnama, 111, 25), in the 20th in Käbul (l.c., 333) and in the slege of $\bar{\text{A}}$ sir (1003).

The Padishahmima (I. b., pp. 311, 315) mentions Ababake and SUsman, sons of Bahadur Khan Qurbegi, who seems to be the same officer. They died in the 5th and 9th years of Shahjahan.

270 Banka, the Kachleraha.

He served in the 26th year in Kābul (Akbarn, III, 333). His son Hari-it Ram was under Shāhjahān a commander of 1,500, 1,600 horse, and died in the 9th of his reign.

XIX. Commanders of Three Hundred and Fifty

Mirzá Abū Sacid! 271. Mirza Sanjar

272.

sons of Sultan Husavn Mîrza.

33

They were mentioned above on p. 328. Mirzā Saniar is not to be confounded with the Mīrzā Sankar mentioned on p. 533, note 1.

273. SAlī Mardan Bahadur.

The Tabagat mentions him as having been in 984 (21st year) at court, from where he was sent to Qulij Khan (No. 42) at Idar, who was to go to Gujrāt to see the ships off which under Sultan Khwaja (No. 108) were on the point of leaving for Makkah. Later he served under the Khan Khānān in Sind, and in the 41st year in the Dakhin. Subsequently, he commanded the Talingana corps. In the 46th year, he marched to Påthri to assist Sher Khwaja (No. 176) when he heard that Bahadur Khān Gīlānī, whom he had left with a small detachment in Talingāna, had been defeated. He returned and attacked the enemies who were much stronger than he; his men fled and he himself was captured. In the same year Abū 'l-Fazl made peace, and 'Ali Mardan was set at liberty. In the 47th year he served with distinction under Mīrzā Īrij (No. 255) against Malik Ambar.

In the 7th year of Jahangir's reign he was attached to the corps commanded by Abdu 'llah Khan Fīrūz-jang, who had been ordered to move with the Gujrāt army over Nāsik into the Dakhin, in order to cooperate with the second army corps under Khan Jahan Lodi. Abdu 'llah entered the hostile territory without meeting the second army, and returned towards Gujrat, now pursued by the enemies. In one of the fights which ensued, SA. M. was wounded and captured. He was taken before Malik Ambar, and though the doctors did everything to save him, he died two days later of his wounds, in 1021 A.H. (Tuzuk, p. 108).

His son Karamu 'llah served under Jahangir (Tuzuk, p 269) and was under Shāhjahān a commander of 1,000, 1,000 horse. He was for some time commandant of Fort Odgir, and died in the 21st year of Shahi.'s reign.

274. Rază Quli, son of Khan Jahan (No. 24).

Vide above, p. 351.

275. Shaykh Khūbū [Qutbu 'd-Din Khān-i Chishti] of Fathpūr Sikri.

His father was a Shaykhzāda of Badā,on, and his mother a daughter of Shaykh Salim. Khūbū was a foster-brother of Jahangir.2 When the prince was at Ilāhābād in rebellion against Akbar, he conferred upon Khūbū the title of Qutbu 'd-Dīn Khān, and made him Şūbadār of Bihār.

Vide Dowson, Elliot's Historians, I, p. 248.
 Jahängir says that Khübü's mother was dearer to him than his own mother.

On his accession he made him Şübadār of Bengal, vice Mān Singh (9th Jumāda I, 1015; Tuzuk, p. 37).

At that time, Sher Afkan Ali Quli Istajlü (vide No. 334) was tuvüldär of Bardwan, and as his wife Mihru 'n-Nisa [Nur Jahan] was coveted by the emperor, Qutb was ordered to send Sher Afkan to court, who however, refused to go. Qutb, therefore, went to Bardwan, sending Ghiyasa, son of his sister, before him, to persuade Sher Afkan that no harm would be done to him. When Qutb arrived, Sher Afkan went to meet him, accompanied by two men. On his approach, Q. lifted up his horse-whip as a sign for his companions to cut down Sher Afkan. "What is all this?" exclaimed Sher. Qutb waved his hand to call back his men, and advancing towards Sher, upbraided him for his disobedience. His men mistaking Qutb's signal to withdraw, closed round Sher, who rushed with his sword against Qutb and gave him a deep wound in the abdomen. Qutb was a stout man, and seizing the protruding bowels with his hands, called out to his men to cut down the scoundrel. Amba Khan, a Kashmiri noble of royal blood, thereupon charged Sher Afkan, and gave him a sword cut over the head; but he fell at the same time, pierced through by Sher's sword (p. 529, note 1). The men now crowded round him and struck him to the ground. Quthu 'd-Din was still on horseback, when he heard that Sher Afkan had been killed, and he sent off Chiyasa to bring his effects and his family to Bardwan. He then was removed in a palki. He died whilst being carried away. His corpse was taken to Fathpur Sikri and buried.

In 1013 he built the Jamis mosque of Badason.

His son, Shaykh Ibrāhim, was, in 1015, a commander of 1,000, 300 horse, and had the title of Kichwar Khān. He was for some time governor of Rohtās, and served in the beginning of 1021 against Susman.

Ilahdiya, son of Kishwar Khan, is mentioned in the *Pādishāknāma* (I, b., 100, 177, 307; II, 344, 379, 411, 484).

276. Ziya "l-Mulk, of Kashan.

The Akbarnāma (III, 490, 628) and the Tuzuk (p. 11) mention a Ziyā^au 'd-Dīn.

The Hakim Ziyā^{su} 'd-Din of Kāshan, who under Shāhjahān held the title of Rahmat <u>Kh</u>ān, can scarcely be the same.

277. Hamza Bog Ghatraghali.

He may be the brother of No. 203. The Abburnama (III, 255) mentions also a Husayn Beg Ghatraghali.

278. Mukhtar Beg, sen of Achā Muliā.

Mukhtär Beg served under Acgam Khan Koka (No. 21) in Bihar,

Gadha-Rā,isīn (Akbarn. III, 276, 473), and in the 36th year, under Sulţān Murād in Mālwa.

Nașru 'llāh, son of Mukhtār Beg, was under Shāhjahān a commander of,700, 150 horse, and died in the 10th year.

Fathu 'llah, son of Nașru 'llah, was under Shahjahan a commander of 500, 50 horse (*Pādishāhn.*, I, b., 318; II, 752).

Abū 'l-Fazl calls Mukhtār Beg the son of Āghā Mullā. This would seem to be the Āghā Mullā Dawātdār, mentioned on p. 398. If so, Mukhtār Beg would be the brother of Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dīn ʿAlī (No. 126), The Āghā Mullā mentioned below (No. 376), to judge from the Tuzuk (p. 27), is the brother of Āṣaf Khān III (No. 98), and had a son of the name of Badīʿu 'z-Zamān, who under Shāhjahān was a commander of 500, 100 horse (Pād., I, b., 327; II, 751). In Muhammadan families the name of the grandfather is often given to the grandchild.

279. Haydar Ali Arab.

He served, in the 32nd year, in Afghānistān (Akbarn., III, 540, 548). 280. Peshraw Khān [Mihtar Sasādat].

Mihtar Sasadat had been brought up in Tabrīz, and was in the service of Shah Tahmasp, who gave him as a present to Humayun. Humāyūn's death he was promoted and got the title of Peshraw Khūn. In the 19th year Akbar sent him on a mission to Bihar, where he was caught on the Ganges by Gajpati, the great zamindar (p. 437, note 2). When Jagdespür, the stronghold of the Raja, was conquered, Gajpati ordered several prisoners to be killed, among them Peshraw. executioner, however, did not kill him, and told another man to do so. But the latter accidentally could not get his sword out of the scabbard; and the Raja, who was on the point of flying, having no time to lose, ordered him to take P. on his elephant. The elephant was wild and restive, and the man who was in charge of P. fell from the animal and got kicked, when the brute all at once commenced to roar in such a manner that the other elephants ran away frightened. Although P.'s hands were tied, he managed to get to the kalāwa (p. 135) of the driver and thus sat firm; but the driver, unable to manage the brute, threw himself to the ground and ran away, leaving P. alone on the elephant. Next morning it got quiet, and P. threw himself down, when he was picked up by a trooper who had been searching for him.

In the 21st year he reported at court the defeat of Gajpatī¹ (Akbarn., III, 163). In the 25th year he served in Bengal (l.c., p. 289). Later he

¹ Gajpati's brother, Bairi Sāl, had been killed (Akbarn., 111, 162).

was sent to Nizam^u 'l-Mulk of the Dakhin, and afterwards to Bahādur Khān, son of Rāja 'Alī Khān of Khāndesh. His mission to the latter was in vain, and Akbar marched to Āsīr. P. distinguished himself in the siege of Mālīgadh.

Jahangir made him a commander of 2,000, and continued him in his office as superintendent of the Farrash-khāna (Quartermaster).

P. died in the 3rd year, on the 1st Rajab, 1017. Jahängīr says (Tuzuk, p. 71) "He was an excellent servant, and though ninety years old, he was smarter than many a young man. He had amassed a fortune of 15 lacs of rupees. His son Ryāyat is unfit for anything; but for the sake of his father, I put him in charge of half the Farrāsh-khāna.

281. Qaşı Hasan Qazwini.

In the 32nd year (995) he served in Gujrāt (Akbarn., III, 537, 554, where the Lucknow edition has Qāẓī Ḥusayn), and later in the siege of Āsīr (l.c., III, 825).

282. Mir Murād-i Juwayni.

He is not to be confounded with No. 380, but may be the same as mentioned on p. 380.

Juwayn is the Arabic form of the Persian Gūjān, the name of a small town, in Khurāsān, on the road between Bistām and Nīshāpūr. It lies, according to the Ma^cāgir in the district of Bayḥaq, of which Sabzwār is the capital, and is renowned as the birthplace of many learned men and poets.

Mír Murad belongs to the Sayyids of Juwayn. As he had been long in the Dakhin, he was also called *Dakhini*. He was an excellent shot, and Akbar appointed him rifle-instructor to Prince Khurram. He died, in the 46th year, as Bakhshi of Lahor. He had two sons, Qasim Khan and Hashim Khan.

Qāsim Khān was an excellent poet, and rose to distinction under Islām Khān, governor of Bengal, who made him treasurer of the suba. Later, he married Manija Begum, sister of Nür Jahān, and thus became a friend of Jahāngīr. An example of a happy repartee is given. Once Jahāngīr asked for a cup of water. The cup was so thin that it could not bear the weight of the water, and when handed to the emperor it broke. Looking at Qāsim, J. said (metre Ranul):—

کاسه نازک بود آب آرام نتوانست کرد
The cup was lovely, so the water lost its rest—

¹ Fide Wüstenfeld's Yacut, II, 164

when Qasim, completing the verse, replied:-

دید حالم را وچشمش ضبط اشک خود نکرد

It saw my love-grief, and could not suppress its tears.

In the end of J.'s reign, he was Şūbadār of Āgra, and was in charge of the treasures in the fort. When the emperor died, and Shāhjahān left the Dakhin, Qāsim paid his respects in the Bāgh-i Dahra (Āgra), which in honour of Jahāngīr had been called Nūr Manzil, and was soon after made a commander of 5,000, 500 horse, and appointed governor of Bengal, vide Fidā^aī Khān.

As Shāhjahān when prince, during his rebellion, had heard of the wicked practices of the Portuguese in Bengal, who converted natives by force to Christianity, he ordered Qāsim to destroy their settlement at Hūgli. In the 5th year, in Shasbān, 1041, or February, A.D. 1632 (Pādishāhn., I, 435, 437), Q. sent a corps under his son sīnāyatu 'llāh and Allah Yār Khān to Hūgli. The Portuguese held out for three months and a half, when the Muhammadans succeeded in laying dry the ditch in front of the Church, dug a mine, and blew up the church. The fort was taken. Ten thousand Portuguese are said to have perished during the siege, and 4,400 were taken prisoners. About 10,000 natives whom they had in their power were liberated. One thousand Musulmāns died as martyrs for their religion.

Three days after the conquest of Hügli, Qāsim died (l.c., p. 444). The Jāmi^c Masjid in the Atga Bāzār of Āgrah was built by him.

283. Mir Qasin Badakhshi.

He served in the Dakhin (Akbarn., III, 830).

284. Banda Ali Maydani.

Maydani is the name of an Afghan clan; vide No. 317. Banda Ali served in the 9th year with Muhammad Hakim of Kabul, who was attacked by Mirza Sulayman of Badakhshan (No. 5) and had applied to Akbar for help. In the 30th and 32nd years he served in Kabul (Akbarn., II, 299; III, 477, 540).

The Akbarnama (II, 209) also mentions a Banda Ali Qurbegi.

285. Khwājagī Fath^u 'llāh, son of Ḥājī Ḥabīb^u 'llāh of Kāshān.

He was mentioned above on pp. 386, 516. He served in the 30th year under Mīrzā Azīz Koka (No. 21). Akbarn., III, 473.

The Portuguese church of Bandel (a corruption of bandar !) bears the year 1590 on

ite beystene.

¹ The siege of Hägli commenced on the 2nd Zi Hijjah, 1041, or 11th June, 1632, and the town was taken on the 14th Rabis I, 1042, or 10th September, 1632. The village of Haldipür, mentioned in the Pddishdhadma as having for some time been the head-quarters of the Mughul army, is called on our maps Holodpür, and lies N.W. of Hagil.

286. Zāhid

287. Dost [Muḥammad] sons of Ṣādiq Khān (No. 43).

288. Yar [Muḥaramad]

They have been mentioned above on p. 384. Zāhid, in the end of 1025, served against Dalpat (No. 252).

Regarding Zāhid, vile also a passage from the Tārikh-i Massumi,

translated Dowson's edition of Elliot's Historians, I, 246.

289. Slzzatu 'llah Ghujdwani.

Ghujduwān is a small town in Bukhārā.

The Akbarnāma (III, 548) mentions a Qāzī SIzzatu 'llāh, who, in the 32nd year, served in Afghānistān.

XX. Communders of Three Hundred.

290. Altun Qulij.

291. Jan Qulij.

Two MSS, have Ältūn Qulij, son of Khān Qulij, which latter name would be an unusual transposition for Qulij Khān. They are not the sons of Qulij Khān (No. 42), vide Nos. 292 and 293.

Altūn Qulij is mentioned in the Akbārnāma (III, 554) as having served in Baglana with Bharji, the Rāja who was hard pressed in Fort Molher by his relations. Bharji died about the same time (beginning of the 33rd year).

292. Sayf^u'llāh [Qulij^u'llah] sons of Qulij Khān (No. 42).

Sayf is Arabic, and means the same as the Turkish qulij, a sword. Sayf 'liān was mentioned under No. 203. In the beginning of the 33rd year he served under Sādiq Khān (No. 43) in Afghānistān.

Regarding Mîrză Chin Qulij, the Ma*āsir says that he was an educated, liberal man, well versed in government matters. He had learned under Mullā Muştafa of Jaunpūr, and was for a long time Fawidār of

Jaunpilr and Banāras.

At the death of his father, his younger brother Mirza Lahauri, the spoiled pet son of his father, joined Chin Qulij in Jaunpur. He had not been long there when he interfered in government matters and caused disturbances, during which Chin Qulij lost his life. His immense property escheated to the state, it is said that it took the clerks a whole year to make the inventory.

In 1022, when Jahangir was in Ajmir, he summoned Mulla Mustafa, who had been the Mirza's teacher, with the intention of doing him harm.

While at court he got acquainted with Mulla Muḥammad of Thathah, a teacher in the employ of Āṣafjāh (or Āṣaf Khān IV; vide p. 398), who had scientific discussions with him, and finding him a learned man, interceded on his behalf. Mustafa was let off, went to Makkah and died.

Mīrzā Lāhaurī was caught and imprisoned. After some time, he was set at liberty, and received a daily allowance (yaumiyya). He had a house in Āgra, near the Jamna, at the end of the Darsan, and trained pigeons. He led a miserable life.

The Ma²āṣir mentions a few instances of his wicked behaviour. Once he buried one of his servants alive, as he wished to know something about Munkir and Nakīr, the two angels who, according to the belief of the Muhammadans, examine the dead in the grave, beating the corpse with sledge hammers if the dead man is found wanting in belief. When the man was dug out he was found dead. Another time, when with his father, in Lāhor, he disturbed a Hindū wedding-feast and carried off the bride; and when the people complained to his father, he told them to be glad that they were now related to the Ṣūbadār of Lāhor.

The other sons of Qulij <u>Kh</u>ān, as Qulij^u 'llāh, Chīn, Qulij, Bāljū Q., Bayrām Q., and Jān Q., held mostly respectable mansabs.

The Tuzuk-i Jahāngīrī relates the story differently. Both M. Chīn Qulij and M. Lāhaurī are described as wicked men. Chīn Q., after the death of his father, came with his brothers and relations to court (Ṣafar, 1023; Tuzuk, p. 127) and received Jaunpūr as jāgīr. As the emperor heard of the wicked doings of M. Lāhaurī, from whom no man was safe, he sent an Aḥadī to Jaunpūr to bring him to court, when Chīn Qulij fled with him to several zamīndārs. The men of Janāngīr Qulī Khān, governor of Bihār, at last caught him; but before he was taken to the governor, Chīn died, some say, in consequence of an attack of illness, others from wounds he had inflicted on himself. His corpse was taken to Jahāngīr Qulī Khān, who sent it with his family and property to Ilāhābād. The greater part of his property had been squandered or given away to zamīndārs (1024; Tuzuk, p. 148).

294. Abū 'l-Fattah Ataliq.

295. Sayyid Bayazīd of Barha.

He served in the 33rd year (996) in Gujrāt (Akbarn., III, 553). In the beginning of the 17th year of Jahāngīr's reign (1031) he received the title of Mustafa Khān (Tuzuk, p. 344).

In the 1st year of Shāhjahān's reign he was made a commander of 2,000, 700 horse (*Pād.*, I, 183). His name is not given in the list of grandees of the *Pādishāhnāma*.

296. Balbhadr, the Rathor.

297. Abū 'l-Masalī, son of Sayyid Muhammad Mir sAdl (No. 140).

298. Bāqir Anşārī.

He was in Bengal at the outbreak of the military revolt. In the 37th year he served under Man Singh in the expedition to Orisa (Akbarn., III, 267, 641).

299. Bayasid Beg Turkman.

He was at first in Mun'im's service (Akbarn., II, 238, 253). The Pādishāhnāma (I, b., 328) mentions Maḥmūd Beg, son of Bāyazīd Beg. Vide No. 335.

300. Shaykh Dawlat Bakhtyar.

301. Husayn, the Pakhliwal.

The story of the origin of his family from the Qarlüqs under Tīmūr (vide p. 504) is given in the Tuzuk (p. 290). Jahāngīr adds, "but they do not know who was then their chief. At present they are common Panjābīs (Lāhaurī-yi maḥaz) and speak Panjābī. This is also the case with Dhantūr" (vide No. 392).

Sultan Husayn, as he called himself, is the son of Sultan Mahmud. His rebellious attitude towards Akbar has been mentioned above on p. 504. When Jahangir in the 14th year (beginning of 1029) paid him a visit, Husayn was about seventy years old, but still active. He was then a commander of 400, 300 horse, and Jahangir promoted him to a mangab of 600, 350 horse.

Husayn died in the 18th year (end of 1032; Tuzuk, p. 367). His command and the district of Pakhli were given to his son Shādmān.

Shādmān served under Dārā Shikoh in Qandahār (beginning of 1052) and was in the 20th year of Shāhjahāu's reign a commander of 1,000, 900 horse. Pādishāhnāna, II, 293, 733.

The Tuzuk (p. 290) mentions a few places in the district of Pakhli, and has a remark on the thick strong beer which the inhabitants made from bread and rice.

302. Kesti Dás, son of Jai Mal.

Vide No. 408. One MS. has Jait Mal, instead of Jai Mal. The Pädichähnäma (1, b., 310) mentions a Raja Girdhar, son of Kesü Das, grandson of Jat Mal of Mirths. The Tuzuk frequently mentions a Kesü Das Marū (Tuzuk, pp. 9, 37, 203)

303. Mirae Khain of Nishapür. One MS. has Jön for Khan.

304. Mugaffar, brother of Khan Alam (No. 58).

My text edition has wrongly Khān-i A'sam for Khān Alam.

305. Tulsī Dās Jādon.

He served in 992 against Sultān Muzafiar of Gujrāt (Akbarn., III, 422). The Akbarnāma (III, 157, 434, 598) mentions another Jādō Rāja Gopāl. He died in the end of the 34th year, and is mentioned in the Tabagāt as a commander of 2,000.

306. Rahmat Khān, son of Masnad-i SAlī.

Masnad-i 'Alī is an Afghān title, as Majlis" 'l Majālis, Majlis-i Ikhtiyār, etc. It was the title of Fattū Khān, or Fath Khān, a courtier of Islam Shāh, who afterwards joined Akbar's service. He served under Husayn Qulī Khān Jahān (No. 24) in 980 against Nagarkot (Badā*onī, II, 161). The Tabaqāt makes him a commander of 2,000). He seems to be the same Fath Khān whom Sulaymān Kararānī had put in charge of Rohtās in Bihār (Bad., II, 77).

He died in the 34th year in Audh (Akbarn., III, 599).

A Rahmat Khān served in the 45th year in the Dakhin. Rahmat Khān's brother, Shāh Muḥammad, is mentioned below, No. 395.

307. Ahmad Qāsim Koka.

He served in 993 against the Yūsufzā*īs, and in 996 under Ṣādiq Khān, against the Tārīkīs (Akbarn., III, 490, 552).

The Tuzuk (p. 159) mentions a Yar Beg, son of A. Q.'s brother.

308. Bahādur Gohlot.

309. Dawlat Khān Lodi.

He was a Lodi Afghān of the Shāhū-khayl clan, and was at first in the service of 'Asiz Koka (No. 21). When 'Abdu'r-Raḥīm (No. 29) married the daughter of 'Azīz, Dawlat Khān was transferred to 'Abdu'r-Raḥīm's service, and 'Azīz, in sending him to his son-in-law, said, "Take care of this man, and you may yet get the title of your father (Khān Khānān)." Dawlat distinguished himself in the wars in Gujrāt (p. 355, l. 24, where for Dost Khān, as given in the Ma'āşir, we have to read Dawlat Khān), in Thatha and the Dakhin. His courage was proverbial. In his master's contingent he held a command of 1,000. Sulţān Dānyāl won him over, and made him a commander of 2,000.

He died in the end of the 45th year (Sha'ban, 1009) at Ahmadnagar (Akkarn., III, 846). It is said that Akkar stood in awe of him, and when he heard of his death, he is reported to have said, "To-day Sher Khan Sür died."

Dawlat Khan's eldest son, whom the Ma'āgir calls Maḥmūd, was half mad. In the 46th year, on a hunting tour, he left his companions, got into a quarrel with some Kolis near Pāl, and perished.

Dawlat's second son is the renowned Pir Khān, or Pīrū, better known in history under his title Khān Jahān Lodī. If Akbar's presentiments were deceived in the father, they were fulfilled in the son.

Pir <u>Kh</u>ān, when young, fell out with his father, and fled with his elder brother, whom the *Ma*āṣir* here calls Muḥammad <u>Kh</u>ān, to Bengal, where they were assisted by Mān Singh. Muḥammad <u>Kh</u>ān died when young.

Like his father, P. Kh. was in the service of Sultan Danyal, who treated him like a friend, and called him "son". On the death of the Prince, Pir, then twenty years old, joined Jahangir's service, was made in the second year a commander of 3,000, and received the title of Salahat Khan (Tuzuk, p. 42). He gradually rose to a mansab of 5,000, and received the title of Khan Jahan, which was looked upon as second in dignity to that of Khan Khanan. Although Jahangir treated him like an intimate friend rather than a subject, Khan Jahan never got his position and formed no ambitious plans.

When Prince Parwiz, Raja Man Singh and Sharif Khan (No. 351) were sent to the Dakhin to reinforce the Khan Khanan and matters took an unfavourable tura, Khan Jahan, in 1018, was sent with 12,000 troopers to their assistance. At the review, Jahangir came down from the state window, put his turban on Kh. J.'s head, seized his hand, and helped him in mounting. Without delaying in Burhanpur, Kh. J. moved to Bălaghāt, where the imperial army was. At Mulkapur, a great fight took place with Malik Ambar, and the imperialists unaccustomed to the warfare of the Dakhinis, lost heavily. The Khan Khanan met him with every respect, and took him to Balaghat. According to the original plan, Kh. J. was to lead the Dakhin corps, and Abdu 'llah Khan the Gujrat army, upon Daulatābād (under No. 273). Malık Ambar, afraid of being attacked from two sides, succeeded in gaining over the Khan Khanan, who managed to detain Kh. J. in Zafarnagar; and Abdu 'llah, when marching forward, found no support, and had to retreat with heavy losses. Kh. J. got short of provisions; his horses died off, and the splendid army with which he had set out, returned in a most disorderly state to Burhanpür.

Kh. J. accused the Khan Khanan of treason, and offered to conquer Bijapur in two years, if the emperor would give him 30,000 men and absolute power. This Jahangir agreed to, and the Khan-i Acram (No. 21) and Khan Calam (No. 328) were sent to his assistance. But though the Khanan had been removed, the duplicity of the Amirs remained what it had been before, and matters did not improve. The command

was therefore given to the <u>Kh</u>ān-i A^czam and <u>Kh</u>. J. received Thālner as-jāgīr, and was ordered to remain at Īlichpūr. After a year, he returned to court, but was treated by the emperor in as friendly a manner as before.

In the 15th year, when the Persians threatened Qandahār, <u>Kh</u>. J. was made governor of Multān. Two years later, in the 17th year, Shāh 'Abbās took Qandahār after a siege of forty days. <u>Kh</u>. J. was called to court for advice, having been forbidden to attack Shāh 'Abbās, because kings should be opposed by kings. When he came to court, Prince <u>Kh</u>urram was appointed to reconquer Qandahār, and <u>Kh</u>. J. was ordered back to Multān to make preparations for the expedition. It is said that the Afghān tribes from near Qandahār came to him in Multān, and declared themselves willing to be the vanguard of the army, if he would only promise every horseman five tankas, and each foot soldier two tankas per diem to keep them from starving; they were willing to go with him to Iṣfahān, and promised to be responsible for the supplies. But <u>Kh</u>. J. refused the proffered assistance, remarking that Jahāngīr would kill him if he heard of the attachment of the Afghāns to him.

In the meantime matters changed. Shāhjahān rebelled, and the expedition to Qandahār was not undertaken. The emperor several times ordered Kh. J. to return, and wrote at last himself, adding the curious remark that even Sher Khān Sūr, in spite of his enmity, would after so many requests have obeyed. The delay, it is said, was caused by severe illness. On his arrival at court, Kh. J. was made commandant of Fort Agra, and was put in charge of the treasures.

In the 19th year, on the death of the Khān-i Aczam, he was made governor of Gujrāt, and when Mahābat Khān was sent to Bengal, he was appointed atālīq to Prince Parwiz, whom he joined at Burhānpūr.

In 1035, the 21st year, Parwiz died, and the Dakhin was placed under Kh. J. He moved against Fath Khān, son of Malik Ambar, to Bālāghāt. His conduct was now more than suspicious: he accepted proposals made by Hamīd Khān Habehī, the minister of the Nizām Shāh, to cede the conquered districts for an annual payment of three lacs of hūns though the revenue was 55 krors of dāms (Pādishāhn., I, 271), and ordered the imperial Fawjdārs and Thānahdārs to give up their places to the agents of the Nizām Shāh and repair to Burhānpūr. Only Sipahdār Khān, who stood in Aḥmadnagar, refused to do so without express orders from the emperor.

Soon after, Mahābat Khān joined Shāhjahān at Junīr, and was honoured with the title of Sipaheālār. On the death of Jahāngīr, which

took place immediately afterwards, Shāhjahān sent Jān Niṣār Khān to Kh. J., to find out what he intended to do, and confirm him at the same time in his office as Ṣūbadār of the Dakhin; but as he in the meantime had formed other plans, he sent back Jān Niṣār without answer. He intended to rebel. It is said that he was misled by Daryā Khān Rohīla and Fāzil Khān, the Dīwān of the Dakhin; Dāwar Bakhsh, they insinuated, had been made emperor by the army, Shahryār had proclaimed himself in Lāhor, whilst Shāhj. had offended him by conferring the title of Sipahsālār on Mahābat Khān, who only lately had joined him; he, too, should aim at the crown, as he was a man of great power, and would find numerous adherents.

Shāhj, sent Mahābat to Māndū, where Kh. J.'s family was. Kh. J. renewed friendly relations with the Nizam Shāh, and leaving Sikandar Dutānī in Burhānpūr, he moved with several Amīrs to Māndū, and deposed the governor Muzaffar Khān Macmūrī. But he soon saw how mistaken he was. The Amīrs who had come with hum, left him and paid their respects to Shāhj.; the proclamation of Dāwar Bakhsh proved to be a scheme made by Āṣaf Khān in favour of Shāhj., and Kh. J. sent a vakīl to court and presented, after Shāhj.'s accession, a most valuable present. The emperor was willing to overlook past faults, and left him in possession of the government of Mālwah.

In the second year, after punishing Jhujhar Singh, Kh. J. came to court and was treated by the emperor with cold politeness. Their mutual distrust soon showed itself. Shahi, remarked on the strong contingent which he had brought to Agra, and several parganas of his jāgirs were transferred to others. One evening, at a darbār, Mīrzā Lashkari, son of Mukhlis Rhan, foolishly said to the sons of Kh. J., " He will some of these days imprison your father." Kh. J., on hearing this, shut himself up at home, and when the emperor sent Islam Khan to his house to inquire, he begged the messenger to obtain for him an amannama, or letter of safety, as he was hourly expecting the displeasure of his master. Shahj, was generous enough to send him the guarantee; but though even Asaf Khan tried to console him, the old suspicions were never forgotten. In fact it would seem that he only feared the more for his safety, and on the night from the 26th to the 27th Safar, 1039, after a stay at court of eight months, he fled from Agrs. When passing the Hatyapul 1 Darwaza, he humbly threw the reigns of his horse over

¹ The two large stone elephants which stood upon the gate were taken down by Awrangsib in Rajab, 1079, because the Muhammadan las forbids sculpture. Ma*agir-i \$\alpha Alamgiri, p. 77.

his neck, bent his head forward on the saddle, and exclaimed, "O God, thou knowest that I fly for the preservation of my honour; to rebel is not my intention." On the morning before his flight, Aşaf had been informed of his plan, and reported the rumour to the emperor. But Shāhj. said that he could take no steps to prevent Kh. J. from rebelling; he had given him the guarantee, and could use no force before the crime had actually been committed.

An outline of Kh. J.'s rebellion may be found in Elphinstone's history, where the main facts are given.

When he could no longer hold himself in the Dakhin, he resolved to cut his way to the Panjab. He entered Malwah, pursued by Abdu 'llah Khān and Muzaffar Khān Bārha. After capturing at Sironj fifty imperial elephants, he entered the territory of the Bundela Rajah. Bikramājīt, son of Jhujhār Singh, fell upon his rear (17th Jumāda, II. 1040), defeated it, and killed Darya Khan (a commander of 4,000) and his son, Kh. J.'s best officers (Padishāhn., I, 339; I, b., 296). On arriving in Bhander, 1 Kh. J. met Sayyid Muzaffar, and sending off his baggage engaged him with 1,000 men. During the fight Mahmud Khan, one of Kh. J.'s sons, was killed. On approaching Kälinjar, he was opposed by Sayyid Almad, the commandant of the Fort, and in a fight another of his sons, Hasan Khan, was captured. Marching farther, he arrived at the tank of Sehoda, where he resolved to die. He allowed his men to go away as his cause was hopeless. On the 1st Rajab, 1040, he was again attacked by SAbdu 'llah Khan and S. Muzaffar, and was mortally wounded by Mādhū Singh with a spear. Before Muzaffar could come up, the soldiers had cut him and his son Azīz to pieces (Pādishāhn., 1, 351). Their heads were sent to Shahjahan at Burhanpur, fixed for some time to the walls of the city, and then buried in the vault of Dawlat Khan, Kh. J.'s father.

Kh. J. had been a commander of 7,000 (Pādishāhn., I, b., 293).

Several of <u>Kh</u>. J.'s sons, as Ḥusayn Azınat, Maḥmūd, and Ḥasan, had perished during the rebellion of their father. Another, Aṣālat <u>Kh</u>ān, a commander of 3,000, died during the rebellion at Dawlatābād, and Muzaffar had left his father and gone to court. Farīd and Jān Jahān

Bhander lies N.E. of Jhansi. Schöda lies N. of Kalınjar, on the Ken.

¹ So the Masanr. The Bibl. Ind. Edition of the Padishahnama, I, 348, has Bandha. So likewise for Salvans (Pad., I, 290), the Masanr has Lanjhi (Gondwansh), where Kh. J., after the fight near Dholpur and his march through the Bundels State, for the first time rested.

were captured; 'Alam and Ahmad had fled, and went after some time to court. "But none of his sons ever prospered."

The historical work entitled Makhzan-i Afghānī, or some editions of it, contain a chapter in praise of Khān Jahān, after whom the book is sometimes called Tārīkh-i Khān Jahān Lodī.

- 310. Sháh Muḥammad, son of Quraysh Sultán (No. 178).
- 311. Hasan Khan Miyana.

He was at first a servant of Şādiq Khān (No. 43), but later he received a manşab. He died in the Dakhin wars.

Of his eight sons, the eldest died young (Tuzuk, p. 200). The second is Buhlūl Khān. He rose to a manṣab of 1,500 under Jāhangīr (l.c., pp. 184, 200), and received the title of Sarbuland Khān. He was remarkable for his courage and his external appearance. He served in Gondwāna.

At the accession of Shāhjahān, B. was made a commander of 4,000, 3,000 horse, and jāgirdār of Bālāpūr. He joined Khān Jahān Lodī on his march from Condwāna to Bālāghat. When he saw that Khān Jahān did not succeed, he left him, and entered the service of the Nizām Shāh.

A grandson of Buhlül, Abū 'l-Muḥammad, came in the 12th year of Awrangzīb's reign to court, was made a commander of 5,000, 4,000, and got the title of *Ikhlūṣ Khan (Ma*āṣ.* \$ *Ilamgīrī*, p. 81).

For other Miyana Afghans, vide Pādishāhn., I. 241; Ma*āş. SAlamgīrī, p. 225.

- 312. Tāhir Beg, son of the Khān-i Kalān (No. 16).
- 313. Kishn Das Tunwar.

He was under Akbar and Jahängir accountant (mushrif) of the elephant and horse stables. In the 7th year of J., he was made a commander of 1,000. A short time before he had received the title of Rāja (Tuzuk, p. 110).

314. Man Singh Kachhwaha.

The Akbarnama (III, 333, 335) mentions a Man Singh Darbari.

315. Mir Gada'i, son of Mir Abū Turāb.

Abū Turāb belonged to the Salāmi Sayyids of Shīrāz. His grand-father, Mīr Ghiyāṣū 'd-Dīn, had come to Gujrāt during the reign of Qutbū 'd Dīn, grandson of Sulṭān Aḥmad (the founder of Aḥmadābād); but he soon after returned to Persia. The disturbances, however, during the reign of Shāh Ismā'īl Ṣafawī obliged him to take again refuge in Gujrāt, where he arrived during the reign of Sulṭān Maḥmād

Bigara. He settled with his son Kamālu 'd-Dīn (Abū Turāb's father) in Champānīr-Maḥmūdābād, and set up as a teacher and writer of school books (darsiya kitāb). Kamālu 'd-Dīn also was a man renowned for his

learning.

The family has for a long time been attached to the Sileila-vi Maghribyya, or Maghribī (Western) Sect, the "lamp" of which was the saintly Shaykh a Ahmad-i Khattū. The name "Salāmī Sayyids" is explained as follows. One of the ancestors of the family had visited the tomb of the Prophet. When coming to the sacred spot, he said the customary salām, when a heavenly voice returned his greeting.

Abū Turāb was a highly respected man. He was the first that paid his respects to Akbar on his march to Guirat, and distinguished himself by his faithfulness to his new master. Thus he was instrumental in preventing Istimad Khan (No. 67) from joining, after Akbar's departure for Kambhayat, the rebel Ikhtīyāru 'l-Mulk. Later, Akbar sent him to Makkah as Mir Haji, in which quality he commanded a large party of courtiers and begams. On his return he brought a large stone from Makkah, which bore the footprint of the prophet (qadam-i sharif, or qadam-i mubārak); vide p. 207. The "tarīkh" of his return is khayr" 'l aqdam (A.H. 987), or "the best of footprints". The stone was said to be the same which Sayyid Jalal-i Bukhari at the time of Sultan Firus had brought to Dihli. Akbar looked upon the whole as a pious farce, and though the stone was received with great éclat. Abu Turab was graciously allowed to keep at in his house.

When Istimad was made governor of Gujrat, Abū Turab followed him as Amin of the Suba, accompanied by his sons Mir Muhibbu 'llah and Mir Sharin 'd-Din.

Abū Turāb died in 1005, and was buried at Ahmadābād.

His third son Mir Gadasi, though he held a mansab, adopted the saintly

Champanir, according to Bird, is also called Mahmudabad. The Matter has Champanir-Muhammadabad.

ا بكرة. This word is generally pronounced بكرة, and is said to mean having conquered two forts (gark), because Mahmūd's army conquered on one day the forts of Champānīr and Jūnāgarh. But Jahāngīr in his "Memoirs", says that بكرة means burāt-i bargasāta, "having a turned up, or twisted, moustache," which Sultān Mahmūd is said to have had (Tuzuk, p. 212).

³ Born s.H. 738 died at the age of 111 (lunar) years, on the 10th Shawwal, 849. Shaykh Ahmad lies buried at Sarkhej near Ahmadabad. The biographical works on Sainte give many particulars regarding this personage, and the share which he had, as one of the four Guirati Ahmada, in the foundation of Ahmadabad (founded 7th Zi Qacda, 813). Khasinat I Agiya (Lahor), p. 957.

Khattu, where Shayih Ahmad was educated by his adoptive father Shayih Is-haq-i Maghribi (died A.E. 776) lies east of Nagor.

mode of life which his ancestors had followed. In the 46th year he served in the Dakhin.

316. Qasim Khwaja, son of Khwaja Abde 'l-Bari. Vide No. 320.

317. Madi SAli Maydani.

In MSS, he is often wrongly called Yad Ali.

The word nad' is an Arabic Imperative, meaning " call". It occurs in the following formula used all over the East for amulets.

> Nad' S Aliyan mazhara 'l-Saja' vb. Tajid-hū Saronan fī kulli 'l-maṣāsib. Kullu hammin wa ahammin sa yanjali Bi-mubuwati-ka yā Muhammad, bi-wilāyiti-ka yā SAlī. Yā SAlī, yā SAlī, yā SAlī.

Call upon SAli in whom all mysteries reveal themselves,

Thou wilt find it a help in all afflictions.

Every care and every sorrow will surely vanish

Through thy prophetship, O Muhammad, through thy saintliness, O SAli.

O SAli, O SAli, O SAli !

The beginning of the amulet suggested the name.

In the 26th year Nadi SAli served against M. Muhammad Hakim, in 993 (the 30th year) in Kābul, and two years later under Zayn Koka

(No. 34) against the Tarikis.

In the 6th year of Jahangir's reign, he was made a commander of 1,500, chiefly for his services against the Kabul rebel Ahdad. In the 10th year he served in Bangash, when he was a commander of 1,500, 1,000 horse. He died in the following year (1026); ride Tuzuk. p. 172. His sons were provided with mansabe.

His son Bizan (or Bizhan) distinguished himself, in the 15th year, in Bangash, and was made a commander of 1,000, 500 horse (l.c., pp. 307,

309).

The Padishahnama (I, b., 322) mentions a Muhammad Zaman, son of Nādi Ali Arlāt, who in the 10th year of Shāhjahān was a commander

of 500, 350 horse Nadi sAli is not to be confounded with the Hafig Nadi sAli, who served under Jahangir as Court Hang (Turuk, p. 155, and its Dibajo, p. 19), nor with the Nadi Ali who served under Shahjahan (Padishaha., II, 749) as a commander of 500, 200 horse.

Hil Kanth, Zamindar of Orisa.

319. Ghiyas Bog of Tihran (Ictimadu 'd-Dawla).

His real name is Mīrzā Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dīn Muḥammad. In old European histories his name is often spelled Ayās, a corruption of Ghiyāş, not of

Ayāz (: 61).

Chiyas Beg's father was Khwaja Muhammad Sharif, who as poet wrote under the assumed name of Hijri. He was Vazīr to Tātār Sultān, son of Muhammad Khān Sharafu 'd-Dīn Ughlū Taklū, who held the office of Beglar Begī of Khurāsān. After Tātār Sultān's death, the Khwāja was continued in office by his son Qazāq Khān, and on Qazāq's death, he was made by Shāh Tahmāsp Vazīr of Yazd.

Khwāja Muhammad Sharīf is said to have died in A.H. 984. He had two brothers, Khwāja Mīrzā Aḥmad, and Khwājagī Khwāja. The son of Kh. Mīrzā Aḥmad was the well-known Khwāja Amīn Rāzī (, i.e., of the town of Ray of which he was kalāntar, or magistrate), who travelled a good deal and composed the excellent work entitled Haft Iqlīm, A.H.1002. Khwājagī Khwāja had a son of the name of Khwāja Shāpūr, who was likewise a literary man.

Ghiyās Beg was married to the daughter of Mīrzā ʿAlāʿu 'd-Dawlah, son of ʾ Āghā Mullā. After the death of his father, in consequence of adverse circumstances, Gh. B. fled with his two sons and one daughter from Persia. He was plundered on the way, and had only two mules left, upon which the members of the family alternately rode. On his arrival at Qandahār, his wife gave birth to another daughter, who received the name of Mihru 'n-Nisā (" the Sun of Women "), a name which her future title of Nūr Jahān has almost brought into oblivion. In their misfortune, they found a patron in Malik Masʿūd, leader of the caravan, who is said to have been known to Akbar. We are left to infer that it was he who directed Ghiyās Beg to India. After his introduction at Court in Fatḥpūr Sīkrī, Gh. rose, up to the 40th year, to a command of 300. In the same year he was made Dīwān of Kābul, and was in course of time promoted to a manṣab of 1,000, and appointed Dīwān-i Buyūtāt.

² The words son of are not in the Matasir, but in the Tusuk and the Ishalmana. Two Agha Mulias have been mentioned on p. 398, and under Nos. 278, 319, and 375.

¹ The Dibàja (preface) of the Tuzuk (p. 20) and the Ighālasma (p. 54) agree verbation in Ghiyās Beg's history. They do not mention Qāzāq Khān. For Yand of the Macheir, Sayyid Ahmad's text of the Tuzuk has Marse; and the Bibl. Indica edition of the Ighālnāma has see "he made him his own Vazir."

It is said that Nür Jahan at her death in 1055 was in her seventy-second year. She would thus have been born in A.R. 984; hence Chiyda Beg's flight from Persia must have taken place immediately after the death of his father.

It is well to bear this in mind; for when Nür Jahän was married by Jahängir (in 1020), she must have been as old as 34 (solar) years, an age at which women in the East are looked upon as old women.

* Where he had some distant relations, as Jaffar Beg (No. 98).

Regarding Mihre 'n-Nisa's marriage with SAli Quli, oide No. 394.

In the beginning of Jahangir's reign, Chiyas Beg received the title of Istimadu 'd-Dawla. In the second year, his eldest son, Muhammad Sharif, joined a conspiracy to set Khusraw at liberty and murder the emperor; but the plot being discovered, Sharif was executed, and Istimad himself was imprisoned. After some time he was let off on payment of a fine of two lacs of rupees. At the death of Sher Afkan (under 275) Mihra'n-Nisa was sent to court as a prisoner "for the murder of Qutbu'd-Din", and was handed over to Ruqayya Sultān Begum, with whom she lived "unnoticed (ba-nākāmā) and rejected". In the 6th year (1020) she no longer slighted the emperor's proposals, and the marriage was celebrated with great pomp. She received the title of Nūr Mahall, and a short time afterwards that of Nūr Jahān.

Chiyas, in consequence of the marriage, was made Vakilei kul, or prime-minister, and a commander of 6,000, 3,000 horse. He also received a flag and a drum, and was in the 10th year allowed to beat his drum at court, which was a rare privilege. In the 16th year, when J. was on his way to Kashmir, Chiyas fell ill. The imperial couple were recalled from a visit to Kängra Fort, and arrived in time to find him dying. Pointing to the emperor, Nür Jahan asked her father whether he recognized him. He quoted as answer a verse from Anwari:—

آنکه نابینای مادرزاد اگر حاصر بود در جبین عالم آرا پس به بیند مهتری "If one who is blind from birth stood here, he would recognize his majesty by his august forehead."

He died after a few hours. The Tuzuk (p. 339) mentions the 17th Bahman, 1031 (Rabis I, 1031) as the day of his death, and says that he died broken-hearted three months and twenty days after his wife, who had died on the 29th Mihr, 1030, i.e., 13th Zi Qasda, 1030).

Chivas Beg was a poet. He imitated the old classics, which ruling passion, as we saw, showed itself a few hours before he died. He was a clever correspondent, and is said to have written a beautiful Shikasta hand. Jahangir praises him for his social qualities, and confessed that his society was better than a thousand mufarrih-i yāqūts. He was generally liked, had no enemies, and was never seen angry. Chains,

Who according to custom had the same name as his grandfather; wide p. 497, No. 278,

The Tunuk and the Ightlandma have Ruqaiya Sultan Begum (p. 309). The Medgir
has Salima Sultan Begum (p. 309). The Ightlandma (p. 56) has wrongly 43, for 43,.

In accordance with the name of her husband Ndr d-Dia Jahlangir.

[&]quot;In accordance with the name of ner number of the "enter".

As the diamond when reduced to powder was looked upon in the East as a deadly poison, so was the cornelian (yaga) [garnet !—P.] supposed to possess exhibitating properties. Mujarrib means an exhibitative.

the whip, and abuse, were not found in his house." He protected the wretched, especially such as had been sentenced to death. He never was idle, but wrote a great deal; his official accounts were always in the greatest order. But he liked bribes, and showed much boldness in demanding them.1

His mausoleum near Agra has often been described.

Nur Jahan's power over Jahangir is sufficiently known from the histories. The emperor said, "Before I married her, I never knew what marriage really meant," and, "I have conferred the duties of government on her; I shall be satisfied if I have a ser of wine and half a ser of meat per diem." With the exception of the khutba (prayer for the reigning monarch), she possessed all privileges of royalty. Thus her name was invariably mentioned on farmans, and even on coins. The jagirs which she held would have conferred on her the title of a commander of 30,000. A great portion of her zamindaris lay near Ramsir, S.E. of Ajmir (Tuzuk, p. 169). She provided for all her relations; even her nurse, Dá,ī Dilārām, enjoyed much influence, and held the post of "Sadr of the Women" (sadr-i ands), and when she conferred lands as suyurqhals, the grants were confirmed and sealed by the Sadr of the empire. Nur Jahan is said to have particularly taken care of orphan girls, and the number whom she betrothed or gave outfits to is estimated at five hundred. She gave the tone to fashion, and is said to have invented the fatr-i jahangiri (a peculiar kind of rosewater). She possessed much taste in adorning apartments and arranging feasts. For many gold ornaments she laid down new patterns and elegant designs, and her dudāmī for peshwāz (gowns), her pächtoliya for orhnis (veils), her badla (brocade), kinari (lace), and farsh-i chandani, are often mentioned.

Herinfluence ceased with Jahangir's death and the capture of Shahryar, fifth son of the emperor, to whom she had given her daughter (by Sher Afkan) Lâdli Begum, in marriage. She had no children by Jahangir, Shāhjahān allowed her a pension of two lacs per annum.3

She died at Lahor at the age of 72, on the 29th Shawwal, 1055, and lies buried near her husband in a tomb which she herself had built (Pādishāhn., II, 475).4 She composed occasionally Persian poems, and

⁴ So the Tusuk and the Iqbiliama.

⁵ Dudâmi, weighing two dâms; pāchtoliya, weighing five tolas. The latter was mentioned on p. 101. Farsh-i chendani carpets of sandalwood colour.

⁵ Ephinetone has by mitake 2 lace per mensem. The highest allowance of Begams on record is that of Mumtas Mahall, vis 10 lace per annum. Vide Pādishāha, I, 96.

⁶ In the Pādishāhama, Nür Jahān is again called Nür Maḥall.

like Salima Sulțăn Begum and Zebu 'n-Nisă Begum wrote under the assumed name of Makhfi.

Chivas Beg's sons. The fate of his eldest son Muhammad Sharif has been alluded to. His second son, Mirzā Abū 'l-Hasan Āşaf Khān (IV), also called Asaf-jah or Asaf-jahi, is the father of Muntaz Mahall (Tai Bibl), the favourite wife of Shahjahan whom European historians occasionally call Nur Jahan II. He received from Shahjahan the title of Yamin's 'd-Daula and Khan Khanan Sipahsalar, and was a commander of 9,000. He died on the 17th Shacban, 1051, and was buried at Lahor, north of Jahangir's tomb. As commander of 9,000 du-aspa and si-aspa troopers, his salary was 16 krors, 20 lacs of dams, or 4,050,000 rupees, and besides, he had jagirs yielding a revenue of five millions of rupees. His property at his death, which is said to have been more than double that of his father, was valued at 25 millions of rupees, and consisted of 30 lacs of jewels, 42 lacs of rupees in gold muhurs, 25 lacs of rupees in silver, 30 lacs of plate, etc., and 23 lacs of other property. His palace in Lahor which he had built at a cost of 20 lacs, was given to Prince Dārā Shikoh, and 20 lacs of rupees, in cash and valuables, were distributed among his three sons and five daughters. The rest escheated to the State.

Aşaf Khān was married to a daughter of Mīrzā Ghiyāşu 'd-Dīn 'Alī

Äsaf Khan II (p. 398).

His eldest son is the renowned Mirzā Abū Tālib Shā*ista Khān, who, as governor of Bengal, is often mentioned in the early history of the E.I. Company. Shā*ista was married to a daughter of Irij Shāhnawās Khān (No. 255), son of 'Abdu 'r-Raḥīm Khān Khānān, by whom he had, however, no children. He died at Āgra in 1105, the 38th year of Awrangzīb's reign. His eldest sou, Abū Tālib.¹ had died before him. His second son was Abū 'l-Fath Khān. One of his daughters was married to Rūhu 'llāh (1), and another to Zū 'l-Faqār Khān Nuṣrat-jang.

Aşaf Khan's second son, Bahmanyar, was in the 20th year of Shahj.

a commander of 2,000, 200 horse (Pādishāhn., II, 728).

Chiyas Beg's third son is Ibrahim Khan Fath-jang, who was the governor of Bihar (vide note to Kokra under No 328) and Bengal. He was killed near his son's tomb during Shahjahan's rebellion. His son had died young and was buried near Rajmahall. on the banks of the Clanges (Tusuk, p. 383). Ibrahim Khan was married to Haji Hür Parwar Khanum, Nür Jahan's maternal aunt (khāla). She lived up to the middle of Awrangzib's reign, and held Kol Jalali as akangba.

³ Also called Muhammad Talib. Vide Padicatha., II, 248.

An Aḥmad Beg Khān is mentioned in the histories as the son of Nūr Jahān's brother. He was with Ibrāhīm Fatḥ-jang in Bengal, and retreated after his death to Dhākā, where he handed over to Shāhjahān 500 elephants, and 45 lacs of rupees (Tuzuk, p. 384). On Shāhj.'s accession he received a high manṣab, was made governor of Thathah and Sīwistān, and later of Multān. He then returned to court, and received as jägīr the Parganas of Jāis and Ameṭhī, where he died. In the 20th year of Shāhj. he was a commander of 2,000, 1,500 horse (Pādishāhn., II, 727).

A sister of Nür Jahān Manīja Begum was mentioned under No. 282.

A fourth sister, Khadīja Begum, was married to Ḥākim Beg, a nobleman of Jahāngīr's court.

The following tree will be found serviceable:-

1. Khwaja Muhammad Sharif 2. Khwāja Mīrzā Ahmad. Khwājagi Khwāja (d. 984). Mīrzā Amin-i Rāzī Khwāja Shāpūr. (author of the Haft Iqlim). 1. Aghā Muham-2. Mirzā Ghyās Beg IStimāda 'd-Dawla mad Tahir, Wasti. (d. 1031). 3. 4. Two 5. Ibrahim 2. Mîrză Abū-'l-4. Nür Jahan 1. Muhammad Sharif Hasan Asaf Khān Fath. daughters (wife of (executed) Khản (IV) Manija and Jahangir jang (left no children). (d. 1051). Khadija. (d 1056). Ahmad Beg Khan 5. 6 Two 1. Mirza Abū Ţālib 2. Bahmanyar. 3. A son. Mumtaz Mahall, Shāista <u>Kh</u>ān daughters wife of (d. 1105)Shah Ja-1. Abū Tālib han (died 2. Abū 'l-Fath Khan. 1040). Khwaja Ashraf, son of Khwaja Abdu 'l-Barf. One MS. has Sharaf for Ashraf. Vide No. 316. Sharaf Beg. of Shīrāz. **32**1. Ibrāhim Quli, son of Ismā'il Quli Khan (No. 46). 322.

XXI. Commanders of Two Hundred and Fifty.

- 323. Abū 'l-Fath, son of Muzaffar, the Mughul.
- 324. Beg Muhammad Toqba*I.

He served in the end of the 28th year in Gujrāt and was present in the fight near Maisāna, S.E. of Patan, in which Sher Khān Fūlādī was defeated, and also against Muzaffar of Gujrāt (Akbarn., III, 423).

¹ It seems therefore that he was the son of Muhammad Sharif.

Regarding Togbāsi, vide No. 129.

325. Imam Quli Shighali.

The Akbarnama (III, 628) mentions an Imam Quli, who, in the 37th year served under Sultan Murad in Malwa.

The meaning of Shighālī is unclear to me. A Muhammad Quli Shighālī played a part in Badakhshan history (Akbarn., III, 132, 249).

326. Saidar Beg, son of Haydar Muhammad Khan Akhta Begi (No. 66).

A Safdar Khan served, in the 21st year, against Dauda of Bundi (vide under No. 96).

327. Khwaja Sulayman of Shīrās.

He has been mentioned on p. 383 and under No. 172.

328. Barkhurdar [Mirza Khan Aclam], son of cAbdu 'r-Rahman Dulday (No. 186).

Mirzā Barkhurdar was in the 40th year of Akbar's reign a commander of 250. His father (No. 186) had been killed in a fight with the rebel Dalpat. This Bihar Zamindar was afterwards caught and kept in prison till the 44th year, when, on the payment of a heavy peshkash, he was allowed to return to his home. But B. wished to avenge the death of his father, and lay in ambush for Dalpat, who, however, managed to escape. Akbar was so annoyed at this breach of peace that he gave orders to hand over B. to Dalpat; but at the intercession of several countries, B. was imprisoned.

As Jahangir was fond of him, he released him after his accession,² and made him Quishbegs, or superintendent of the aviary.3 In the fourth

It is said that the Bhojpur Rajas call themselves Ujiciniyas, because they claim descent from the ancient Rajas of Ujiain in Malwa.

In the 17th year of Shāhjahān, Dharnidhar Ujiainiya is mentioned to have several

in the second expedition against Palaman; Journal As, Soc. Bongel for 1871, No. II.

¹ Dalpat is called in the Almaradma الجيدة لا كانتها أنها أنها أنها المناه الله كانتها كان From the same work we see that the residence of the Ujjainiya Rajas was Bhojpar, west of Ara and north of Bhāsrām (Sameram), a pargana in Sarkār, Rohtās, Bibār. Pratāb rebeiled in the 10th year of Shāhjahān's reign, when SAbde 'l-Allāh Khān Firtsjang hesisged and conquered Bhojpar (8th 21-Hajja, 1046). Pratab surrendered, and was at Shahj,'s order executed. His wife was forcibly converted, and married to Abda 1-Allah's grandson. The particulars of this conquest will be found in the Padishanama (I. b., pp. 271 to 274).

The maps show a small place of the name of Pretab near Bhojpur.

If we can trust the Lucknew edition of the Atburnams, B. could not have been

year (beginning of 1018), B. received the title of Khān Alam (Tuzuk, p. 74). Two years later, in 1020, Shāh Abbās of Persia sent Yādgār Alī Sultān Tālish as ambassador to Āgra, and B. was selected to accompany him on his return to Persia. The suite consisted of about twelve hundred men, and was, according to the testimony of the Alamārā-i Sikandarī, the most splendid embassy that had ever appeared in Persia. In consequence of a long delay at Hirāt and Qum, caused by the absence of the Shāh in Āzarbājān on an expedition against the Turks, nearly one-half of the suite were sent back. In 1027 the Shāh returned to Qazwīn and received the numerous presents, chiefly elephants and other animals, which B. had brought from India. The embassy returned in 1029 (end of the 14th year), and B. met the emperor at Kalānūr on his way to Kashmīr. Jahāngīr was so pleased that he kept B. for two days in his sleeping apartment, and made him a commander of 5,000, 3,000 horse.

The author of the *Pādishāhnāma* (I, 427), however, remarks that B. did not possess the skill and tact of an ambassador, though he had not stated his reasons or the source of his information.

On Shāhjahān's accession, B. was made a commander of 6,000, 5,000 horse, received a flag and a drum, and was appointed governor of Bihār, vide M. Rustam Ṣafawī. But as he was given to koknār (opium and hemp), he neglected his duties, and was deposed before the first year had elapsed. In the fifth year (end of 1041), when Shāhj. returned from Burhānpūr to Āgra, B. was pensioned off, as he was old and given to opium and received an annual pension of one lac of rupees (Pādishāhn., I, 426). He died a natural death at Āgra. He had no children.

B. is not to be confounded with Khwāja Barkhurdār, a brother of Abdu 'llah Khān Fīrūz-jang.

B.'s brother Mîrzā 'Abdu's-Subḥān (No. 349) was Fawjdār of Ilāhābād. He was then sent to Kābul, where he was killed, in 1025, in a fight with the Āfrīdīs (*Tuzuk*, beginning of the 11th year, p. 158).

Abdu 's-Subhān's son, Sherzād <u>Kh</u>ān Bahādur, was killed in the last fight with <u>Kh</u>ān Jahān Lodī at Sehōdah (vide under No. 309). *Pādishāhn.*, I. 349.

329. Mir Massum of Bhakkar.

Mīr Ma^caūm belongs to a family of Tirmizī Sayyids, who two or three generations before him had left Tirmiz in Bukhārā, and settled at Qandahār, where his ancestors were mutawallīs (trustees) of the shrine of Bābā Sher Qalandar.

His father, Mîr Sayyid Şafā^{*}I, settled in Bhakkar, and received favours from Sultan Mahmūd (vide under No. 47). He was related by marriage to

the Sayyids of كهابروت in Sīwistān. Mīr Massum and his two brothers were born at Bhakkar.

After the death of his father, M. M. studied under Mulla Muḥammad of Kingri, S.W. of Bhakkar, and soon distinguished himself by his learning. But poverty compelled him to leave for Gujrāt, where Shaykh Is-ḥāq-i Fārūqī of Bhakkar introduced him to Khwāja Nizāmu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad, then Dīwān of Gujrāt. Nizām was just engaged in writing his historical work, entitled Tabaqāt-i Akbarī, and soon became the friend of M. M., who was likewise well versed in history. He was also introduced to Shihāb Khān (No. 26), the governor of the province, and was at last recommended to Akbar for a manṣab. In the 40th year he was a commander of 250. Akbar became very fond of him and sent him in 1012 as ambassador to Irān, where he was received with distinction by Shāh 'Abbās.

On his return from Iran, in 1015, Jahangir sent him as Amin to Bhakkar, where he died. It is said that he reached under Akbar a command of 1,000.

From the Akbarnāma (III, 416, 423, 546) and Bird's History of Gujrat (p. 426) we see that M. M. served in 992 (end of the 28th year) in Gujrāt, was present in the fight of Maisāna, and in the final expedition against Muzaffar in Kachh.

M. M. is well known as a poet and historian. He wrote under the poetical name of Nāmī. He composed a Dīwan, a Masnāwī entitled Masdan" 'l-afkār in the metre of Nizāmī's Makhzan, the Tārīkh-i Sindh, dedicated to his son, and a short medical work called Mufridu-i Massūmī. The author of the Riyaz" 'sh Shusarā says that he composed a Khamsa, and the Tazkira by Taqī (vide under No. 352) says the same, viz., one masnawi corresponding to the Makhzan, the Husn o Nāz to the Yūsuf Zulaykhā, the Parī Ṣūrat to the Lailī Majnūn, and two others in imitation of the Haft Paikar and Sikandarnāma. Badā*onī (died 1004) only alludes to the Husn o Nāz, though he gives no title (III, 366).

M. M. was also skilled as a composer and tracer of inscriptions, and the Riyāzu 'sh-Shu'arā says that on his travels he was always accompanied by sculptors. From India to Isfahān and Tabrīz, where he was presented to Shāh 'Abbās, there are numerous mosques and public buildings which he adorned with metrical inscriptions. Thus the inscriptions over the gate of the Fort of Agra, on the Jāmī' Mosque of Fathpūr Sīkrī, in Fort Māndū (vide under No. 53 and Tuzuk, p. 189) are all by him. Sayyid Ahmad in his edition of the Tuzuk (Dībāja, p. 4, note) gives in full the inscription which he wrote on the

side of the entrance to Salīm-i Chishti's shrine at Fathpūr Sīkrī, the last words of which are:—"Said and written by Muḥammad Ma^{*}ṣūm poetically styled Nāmī, son of Sayyid Ṣafā^{*}ī of Tirmiz, born at Bhakkar, descended from Sayyid Sher Qalandar, son of Bābā Ḥasan Abdāl, who was born at Sabzwār and settled at Qandahār." Dowson, in his edition of Elliot's Historians, mentions Kirmān as the residence of Sayyid Ṣafā^{*}ī, and gives (I, 239) a few particulars from the Tarīkh-i Sindh, regarding the saint Bābā Ḥasan Abdāl, who lived under Mīrzā Shāhrukh, son of Tīmūr. The town of Ḥasan Abdāl in the Panjāb, east of Aṭak, is called after him.

M. M. built also several public edifices, especially in Sakhar opposite to Bhakkar, and in the midst of the branch of the Indus which flows round Bhakkar he built a dome, to which he gave the name of Satyāsur (ستياس). "It is one of the wonders of the world, and its Tārīkh is contained in the words گنبذ دريائي," water-dome, which gives A.H. 1007.

He was a pious man and exceedingly liberal; he often sent presents to all the people of Bhakkar, great and small. But when he retired, he discontinued his presents, and the people even felt for some cause oppressed (mutaazzī). It is especially mentioned of him that on his jāgīr lands he laid out forests for hunting.

His eldest son, for whose instruction he wrote the Tārīkh-i Sindh, was Mīr Buzurg. He was captured in full armour on the day Prince Khusraw's rebellion was suppressed, but he denied having had a share in it. Jahāngīr asked him why he had his armour on. "My father," replied he, "advised me to dress in full armour when on guard," and as the Chaukīnawīs, or guard writer, proved that he had been on guard that day, he was let off.

On the death of his father, Jahangir is said to have left Mir Busurg in possession of his father's property. He was for a long time Bakhahi of Qandahar, but he was haughty and could never agree with the Sübahdars. He spent the 30 or 40 lacs of rupees which he had inherited from his father. His contingent was numerous and well mounted. He subsequently served in the Dakhin; but as his jagir did not cover his expenses, he resigned and retired to Bkakkar, contenting himself with the landed property which he had inherited. He died in 1044. Some of his children settled in Multan.

330. Khwaja Malik Sali, Mir Shab.

His title of Mir Shab implies that he was in charge of the illuminations and the games and animal fights held at night (p. 232).

331. Ray Ram Dae Diban. Vide No. 288.

332. Shah Muhammad, son of Sacid Khan, the Gakkhar.

For his relations, vide under No. 247.

333. Rahim Quli, son of Khan Jahan (No. 24).

334. Sher Beg, Yasawulbashi.

Karam Beg, son of Sher Beg, is mentioned in the Akbarnāma (III, 623).

XXII. Commanders of Two Hundred.

335. Iftikhar Beg, son of Bāyazīd Beg (No. 299).

He was alive in the end of A.H. 1007 (Akbarn., III, 804).

336. Pratāb Singh, son of Rāja Bhagwān Dās (No. 27).

He was mentioned under No. 160.

337. Husayn Khan Qazwini. Vide No. 281.

338. Yadgar Husayn, son of Qabul Khan (No. 137).

He was mentioned under No. 137. In the 31st year he served under Qāsim Khān in Kashmīr. The Yādgār Ḥusayn mentioned in the Tuzuk (p. 146) may be the same. He was promoted, in the 10th year of Jahāngīr's reign, to a command of 700, 500 horse, for his services in the Dakhin. Vide also Pādishāhnāma, I, b., p. 323, l. 2 from below.

He is not to be confounded with Khwāja Yādgār, a brother of Abdu 'llāh Khān Fīrūz-jang.

339. Kamran Beg of Gilan.

He served in the 33rd year (996) in Gujrāt and Kachh against Fath Khān, the younger son of Amīn Khān Ghorī and Muzaffar, and in the 36th year against Muzaffar and the Jām. Akbarn., III, 553, 621.

340. Muhammad Khān Turkman.

341. Misāmu 'd-Din Ahmad, son of Shah Muhammad Khān (No. 95). He is not to be confounded with the author of the Tabiqat.

342. Sakat Singh, son of Rāja Mān Singh (No. 30).

Vide No. 256.

343. Simade 'l-Mulk.

The Akbarnama mentions a Qazi 'Imadu'l-Mulk, who in the end of 984 (21st year) accompanied a party of courtiers to Makkab.

344. Sharif-i Sarmadi.

He was a post. Vide below, among the poets of Akbar's reign.

345. Qara Bahn son of Qarataq.

Qarātāq, whose name in the Akbarnāma in spelled Qarātāq, was killed by Gajpati in the same fight in which Farhang Khan, son of Farhat Khan (No. 145), was slain (No. 145).

346. Tätar Beg, son of Alī Muhammad Asp. (No. 258).

.347. Khwaja Muhibb Alī of Khawaf.

Vide No. 159, note.

348. Ḥakīm [Jalālu 'd-Dīn] Muzastar of Ardistan.

Ardistān is a Persian town which lies between Kāshān and Isfahān. He was at first a doctor at the court of Shāh Tahmāsp, and emigrated when young to India, where he was looked upon as a very experienced doctor, though his theoretical reading is said to have been limited. Badā*onī (III, 169) and the Tuzak (p. 59) praise the purity of his character and walk of life.

He served in 988 (25th year) in Bengal, returned in the end of the 28th year with Mîrzā Azīz (No. 21) to court, and served subsequently under him in Gujrāt and Kachh. Akbarn., III, 283, 418, 620. Under Jahāngīr he was made a commander of 3,000, 1,000 horse (Tuzuk, p. 37). The emperor was fond of him, as he had been with him in Ilāhābād, when as prince he had rebelled against Akbar. The news of the Ḥakīm's death reached J. on the 22nd Jumāda I, 1016. For about twenty years before his death, he had suffered from qarha¹-yi shush, or disease of the lungs, but his uniform mode of living (yakṭawrī) prolonged his life. His cheeks and eyes often got quite red, and when he got older, his complexion turned bluish. He was accidentally poisoned by his compounder.

349. ^{Abdu}'s-Subhān, son of Abdu 'r-Raḥmān, Dulday (No. 186). He was mentioned under No. 328.

350. Qāsim Beg of Tabrīz.

He served in the 36th year under Sultan Murad in Malwa, and died on the 23rd Aban (end of) 1007; vide Akbarn., III, 628, 803. Vide below under the learned men of Akbar's reign.

351. Sharif (Amīr^u 'l-Umarā), son of <u>Kh</u>wāja 'Abdu 'ṣ-Ṣamad (No. 266).

Muḥammad Sharīf was the school companion of Prince Salīm, who was much attached to him. When the prince had occupied Ilāhābād in rebellion against Akbar, Sharif was sent to him to advise him; but he only widened the breach between the prince and his father, and gained such an ascendancy over Salīm, that he made the rash promise to give him half the kingdom should he obtain the throne. When a reconciliation had been effected between Salīm and Akbar, Sh. had to fly for his life, and concealed himself in the hills and jungles. He was reduced to starvation, when he heard of Akbar's death. He went at once to court,

and Jahängir, true to his promise, made him Amiru 'l-Umarā, Vakīl, entrusted him with the great seal (ūzuk) and allowed him to select his jāgīr lands. The emperor says in his Memoirs, "He is at once my brother, my friend, my son, my companion. When he came back, I felt as if I had received new life. I am now emperor, but consider no title sufficiently high to reward him for his excellent qualities, though I can do no more than make him Amīru 'l-Umāra and a commander of 5,000. My father never did more."

Sharif seems to have advised the emperor to drive all Afghans from India; but the Khān-i Asam (No. 21) warned Jahāngīr against so unwise a step. Though Sh.'s position at court was higher than that of Mīrzā sazīz, the latter treated him contemptuously as a mean upstart, and Sh. recommended the emperor to kill sazīz for the part he had played in Khusraw's rebellion. But sazīz was pardoned, and advised to make it up with Sharīf, and invite him to his house. The Khān-i Asam did so, and invited him and the other Amīrs. At the feast, however, he said to him, in the blandest way, "I say, Nawāb, you do not seem to be my friend. Now your father Abdu 'ṣ-Ṣamad, the Mullā, was much attached to me. He was the man that painted the very walls of the room we sit in." Khān Jahān (vide under 309) and Mahābat Khān could not stand this insolent remark, and left the hall; and when Jahāngīr heard of it. he said to Sh., "The Khān cannot bridle his tongue; but don't fall out with him."

In the second year, Sh. accompanied the emperor on his tour to Kähul, but fell so ill that he had to be left in Lähor, Äşaf Khān (No. 98) being appointed to officiate for him. On his recovery, he was sent to the Dakhin, but was soon afterwards called to court, as he could not agree with the Khān Khūnān (No. 29). It is said that illness deprived him of the faculty of memory, and Jahāngīr was on the point of making him retire, when Khān Jahān interceded on his behelf. He was again sent to the Dakhīn, and died there a natural death.

Like his father, Sh. was a good painter. He also made himself known as a poet, and composed a Diwan. His takhallus is Farisi (Badāsorī, III, 310).

Sh.'s eldest son, Shahbaz Khab, died when young. A Sarası near Lakhnau, about a kos from the town, hears his name.

His two younger sons, Mīrzā Gul and Mirzā Jāru 'llāh used to play with Jahāngīr at chess and nard; but this ceased at the death of their father. M. Jāru 'llāh was married to Misrī Begam, a daughter of Āṣaf Khān (No. 98); but from a certain aversion, the marriage was never consummated. At Āṣaf's death, Jahāngīr made him divorce his wife,

and married her to Mīrzā Lashkarī (No. 375), son of Mīrzā Yūsuf Khān (under No. 35).

Both brothers followed Mahābat Khān to Kābul, where they died.

352. Tagiya of Shustar.

Taqiyā is the Īrānī from for Taqī. The Tabaqāt calls him Taqī Muham-Badā conī (III, 206) has Taqiyu 'd-Dīn and says that he was a good poet and a well-educated man. At Akbar's order he undertook a prose version of the Shahnama. He is represented as a "murid" or disciple of Akbar's Divine Faith.

He was still alive in the 3rd year of Jahangir's reign (1017) when he received for his attainments the title of Mu'arrikh Khan (Tuzuk, p. 69, where in Sayyid Ahmad's edition we have to read Shushtari for the

meaningless Shamsheri).

Taqiya is not to be confounded with the more illustrious Taqiya of Balban (a village near Isfahan), who, according to the Mira-atu 'l-S Alam, came in the beginning of Jahangir's reign to India. He is the author of the rare Tazkira, or Lives of Poets, entitled Arafat o Arasat, and of the Dictionary entitled Surma-yi Sulaymani, which the lexicographer Muhammad Husayn used for his Burhān-i Qātis.

353. Khwaja 'Abdu 's-Samad of Kashan.

354. Hakīm Lutfu 'ullāh, son of Mullā ʿAbdu 'r-Razzāq of Gīlān.

He is the brother of Nos. 112 and 205, and arrived in India after his brothers. Badā*oni (III, 169) calls him a very learned doctor.

Sher Afkan sons of Sayf Khan Koka (No. 38). 355.

Amānu 'llāh died in the 45th year of Akbar's reign at Burhānpūr. "He was an excellent young man, but fell a victim to the vice of the age, and died from excessive wine-drinking." Akbarnāma, III, 835.

Salīm Qulī sons of Ismā'il Qulī Khān (No. 46). 357.

Khalil Quli 358.

Wali Beg, son of Payanda Khan (No. 68). 359.

He served under Qasim Khan (No. 59) in the conquest of Kashmir.

Beg Muhammad Uighur. **360.**

361. Mir Khan Yasawul.

When Akbar during the first Gujrātī war (p. 480, note 2) had left Patan for Chotana (Rajab, 980) it was reported that Muzaffar of Gujrat had fled from Sher Khan Fuladi and was concealed in the neighbourhood; vide under No. 67. Akbar therefore sent Mir Khan the Yasawul and Farid the Qarāwul, and afterwards Abū 'l-Qāsim Namakīn (No. 199) and Karam Ali, in search of him. Mir Khan had not gone far when he

found the *chatr* and *sāyabān* (p. 52) which Muzaffar had dropped, and soon after captured Muzaffar himself in a field. Mīr <u>Kh</u>ān took him to Akbar.

- 362. Sarmast Khān, son of Dastam Khān (No. 79).
- 363. Sayyid Abū 'l-Ḥasan, son of Sayyid Muḥammad Mīr 'Adl' (No. 140).
 - 364. Sayyid Abdu 'l-Wahid, son of the Mir Adl's brother.
 - 365. Khwāja Beg Mīrzā, son of Ma^cṣūm Beg.
 - 366. Sakrā, brother of Rānā Pratāb.

Sakrā is the son of Rānā Udai Singh, son of Rānā Sānkā (died A.H. 934). When his brother Pratāb, also called Rānā Kīkā, was attacked by Akbar, he paid his respects at court, and was made a commander of 200.

In the 1st year of Jahangir's reign he got a present of 12,000 rupees, and joined the expedition led by Prince Parwiz against Rānā Amrā, Pratāb's successor. In the end of the same year he served against Dalpat (vide under No. 44), and was in the 2nd year made a commander of 2,500, 1,000 horse. He received, in the 11th year, a manṣab of 3,000, 2,000 horse.

The Akbarnāma mentions another son of Udai Singh, of the name of Sakat Singh, who in the 12th year of Akbar's reign was at court. The emperor had just returned from the last war with Khān Zamān when he heard that Udai Singh had assisted the rebellious Mīrzās. He therefore resolved to punish the Rānā, and on a hunting tour in Pargana Bārī told Sakat Singh of his intentions, and expressed a hope that he would accompany him. Sakat, however, fled to his father, and told him of Akbar's intentions. This determined the emperor to carry out his plan without delay. Udaipūr was invaded, and Chītor surrendered.

367. Shādī Be Uzbak) sons of Nazar Be (No. 169).

They have been mentioned above. From the Akbarnāma (III, 628) we see that Nazar Be received a jūgir in Handia, where he rebelled and perished (36th year).

369. Yūnan Beg, brother of Murad Khan (No. 54).

Some MSS. have Mīrzā Khān for Murād Khān.

370. Shaykh Kabir 1-r Chishti [Shujasat Khan, Rustam-i Zaman].*

² He is not to be confounded with another Shaykh Kabir, who in the 25th year served in Bengal at the outbreak of the military revolt; in the 26th year, in Kābul; and in the 32nd year, against the Tkritis under Majlab Khāu (No. 83). He died in the 36th year, in the war with the Jām and Muzaffar of Guirāt (Ašharn., III, 283, 408, 541, 621, where the Lucknow edition calls him the son of Mukammal Khān).

² Khāfi Khān calls him wrongly (I, 273) Shujdt Khān and Rustam Khān.

The Ma*āṣir calls him "an inhabitant of Mau". He was a relation of Islām Khān-i Chishtī, and received the title of Shujāsat Khān from Prince Salīm, who on his accession made him a commander of 1,000 (Tuzuk, p. 12). He served under Khān Jahān (vide under No. 309) in the Dakhin as harāwal, an office which the Sayyids of Bārhā claimed as hereditary in their clan. Afterwards he went to Bengal, and commanded the imperialists in the last war with Suṣmān. During the fight he wounded SU.'s elephant, when the Afghān chief received a bullet, of which he died the night after the battle. The day being lost, Walī Khān, Suṣmān's brother, and Mamrez Khān, Suṣmān's son, retreated to a fort with the dead body of their relation, and being hotly pursued by Shaykh Kabīr, they submitted with their families and received his promise of protection. The 49 elephants which they surrendered were taken by Sh. K. to Islām Khān in Jahnāgīrangar (Dhākā), 6th Ṣafar, 1021 (Tuzuk, p. 104).

Jahāngīr gave him for his bravery the title of Rustam-i Zamān. The Ma^{*}āṣir says that Islām Khān did not approve of the promise of protection which Sh. K. had given the Afghāns, and sent them prisoners to court. On the road they were executed by Abdu 'llāh Khān at the emperor's orders. Sh. K., annoyed at this breach of faith, left Bengal. While on the way he received an appointment as governor of Bihār. At his entry in Patna he sat upon a female elephant, when another elephant suddenly came up against his. Sh. K. jumped down and broke his neck.

The Tuzuk tells the story differently, and says that Islām Khān appointed Sh. K. to Orīsā, and that on his way to that province the accident took place. Nothing is said about Usmān's relations.

Note on the death of SUsman Lohani.

There are few events in Indian history so confused as the details attending the death of 'Usmān. Khwāja 'Usmān, according to the Makhzan-i Afghānī, was the second son of Miyān 'Isā Khān Hohānī, who after the death of Qutlü Khān was the leader of the Afghāns in Orīsā and Southern Bengal. Qutlū left three sons—Naṣīb Shāh, Lodī Khān, Jamāl Khān. 'Isā Khān left five sons, Khwāja, Sulaymān, 'Usmān, Walī, Ibrāhīm. Stewart makes 'Usmān a son of Qutlū (History of Bengal, p. 133). Sulaymān "reigned" for a short time. He killed in a fight with the imperialists, Himmat Singh, son of Rāja Mān Singh (vide No. 244) held lands near the Brāhmaputra, and subjected the Rājas of the adjacent countries. 'Usmān succeeded him, and received from Mān Singh lands in Orīsā and Sātgāw, and later in Eastern Bengal,

with a revenue of 5 to 6 lacs per annum. His residence is described to have been the Kohistān-i Dhākā, or "hills of Dhākā" (Tipārah?), the vilāyat-i Dhākā, or District of Dhākā, and Dhākā itself. The fight with ^cUsman took place on Sunday, 9th Muharram, 1021, or 2nd March, 1612, ¹ at a distance of 100 kos from Dhākā. My MS. of the Makhzan calls the place of the battle Nek Ujyāl.2 Stewart (p. 134) places the battle "on the banks of the Subarnrikhā river" in Orīsā, which is impossible, as Shujafat Khan arrived again in Dhaka on the 6th Safar, or 26 days after the battle. According to the Tuzuk, Islam Khan was in Dhaka when the fight took place, and Wali Khan submitted to Shujasat, who had been strengthened by a corps under Abdu 's-Salām, son of Musazzam Khan (No. 260); but the Makhzan says that Islam besieged Wali in the Mahalls where SUsman used to live, between the battlefield and Dhaka, and afterwards in the Fort of Dhākā itself. Walī, on his submission, was sent to court with 7 lacs of rupees and 300 elephants taken from Usman, received a title of jägīr, and was made a commander of 1,000, after which he lived comfortably. According to the Maragir, as said above, he was murdered before he came to court. The Tuzuk says nothing about him.

Stewart says (p. 136) that he was taken to court by Hoshang, Islām Khān's son: but the *Tuzuk*, p. 115, though it has a long passage on the Mugs which he brought with him, does not mention the Afghān prisoners.

The Makhzan also says that SUsman, after receiving his wound at the time when the battle was nearly decided in his favour, was carried off by Wali in a litter and buried on the road. When ShujaSat came up to the place where he had been buried, he had SUsman's corpse taken out, cut off the head, and sent it to court.

SUsman is said to have been so stout that he was obliged to travel on an elephant. At his death he was forty-two years of age.

The Dutch traveller De Laet (p. 488. note) has the following interesting passage: Rex (Jahängir) sodem tempore misst Tseziad ghanum Chiech zaden (Shujāsat Khān Shaykhzāda) ad Tzalanghanum (Islām Khān) qui Bengalae praeerat, ut illum in praefecturam Odiae (Orīsā) mitteret. Sed Osmanchanus Patanensis, qui jam aliquot annis regionem quae Odiam et Dueck (between Orīsā and Dhākā, i.e., the Sunderban) interjacet, tenuerat et limites regmi incursaverat, cum potentissimo exercitu advenit, Daeck oppugnaturus. Tzalanchanus autem praemisit adversus ipsum

² There are several Ujyāla mentioned below among the Parganas of Sirkār Mahmūdabād (Bosnah) and Sarkār Bāzūhā (Mymensing-Bogra).

¹ According to Prinsep's Useful Tables, the 9th Munarram was a Monday, not a Sunday, Tuzuk, p. 102.

(CUsman) Tzesiad chanum, una cum Mirza Ifftager et Ethaman chano (Iftikhar Khan and Ihtimam Khan 1) et aliis multis Omerauvvis, cum reliquie copiie X aut XV cosarum intervallo subsequene, ut suis laborantibus subsideo esset. Orto dein certamine inter utrumque exercitum, Efftager et Mierick Zilaier (Mīrak Jalair-not in the Tuzuk) tam acrem impressionem decerunt, ut hostes loco moverent; sed Osman inter haec ferocissimum elephantum in illos emisit, ita ut regii vicissim cedere cogerentur, et Efftager caederetur: Tzesiad gaunus autem et ipse elephanto insidens, ut impetum ferocientis belluae, declinaret, se e suo dejecit, et crus prefregit, ita ut aegre a suis e certamine subduceretur, et regii passim fugam capescerent; actumque fuisset de regiis, nisi inopinatus casus proelium restituisset; miles quidem saucius humi jacens, casu Osmano, qui elephanto vehebatur, oculum globo trajecit, e quo vulnere paulo post expiravit, cujus morte milites illius ita fuerunt consternati ut statim de fuga cogitarent. Regii vero ordinibus sensim restitutis, eventum proelii Tzalanchano perscripsere: qui biduo post ad locum venit ubi pugnatum fuerat, et Tzedsiatgano e vulnere defuncto, magnis itineribus fratrem (Wali Khan) et biduam atque liberos Osmanis assecutus, vivos cepit, eosque cum elephantis et omnibus thesauris defuncti, postquam Daeck Bengalae metropolim est reversus, misit ad regem Anno . . . (the year is left out).

De Laët says that Shujās at Khān died from a fall from his elephant during the battle; but the accident took place some time later. The Maāāṣir says that he was on horseback when Suāmān's elephant, whom the Tuzuk calls Gajpatī, and Stewart Bukhta (?), knocked him over, but Sh. quickly disentangled himself and stuck his dagger into the animal's trunk.

The Makhzan says that the plunder amounted to 7 lacs of rupees and 300 elephants.

- 371. Mīrzā Khwāja, son of Mīrzā Asadu 'llāh. Vide No. 116.
- 372. Mīrzā Sharif. son of Mīrzā SAlā^{su} 'd-Dīn.
- 373. Shukr^a 'llāh [Zafar Khān], son of Zayn Khān Koka (No. 34).

He was mentioned above on p. 369. On the death of his father, he was made a commander of 700, and appears to have received, at the end of Akbar's reign, the title of Zafar Khān.

¹ The Tuzuk (p. 102) mentions Kishwar Khān (p. 497). Iftilhār Khān, Sayyid Ādam Bārhā, Shayh Achhe, brother's son of Muqarrab Khān, MuStamid Khān, and Ihtimām Khān, as under ShujāṢat's command. Sayyid Ādam (the Tuzuk, p. 132, l. 4 from below, has wrongly Sayyid ASzam). Iftilhār, and Shayh Achhe were killed. Later, ÇAbdu's-Salām, son of MuṢagzam Khān (No. 260) joined and pursued ÇUgmān.

As his sister was married to Jahāngīr (vide under No. 37, and note 2, to No. 225) Z. Kh. was rapidly promoted. When the emperor, in the second year of his reign, left Lāhor for Kābul, he halted at Mawza^c Ahro^ci, near Fort Atak, the inhabitants of which complained of the insecurity of the district arising from the predatory habits of the Khatar (p. 506, note 2) and Dilahzāk (note to No. 247). Zafar was appointed to Atak, vice Ahmad Beg Khān (No. 191), and was ordered to remove the tribes to Lāhor, keep their chiefs imprisoned, and restore all plunder to the rightful owners. On Jahāngīr's return from Kābul, he joined the emperor, and was in the following year promoted to a mansab of 2,000, 1,000 horse. In the 7th year he was made a commander of 3,000, 2,000 horse, and governor of Bihār. In the 10th year he was removed, went back to court, where he received an increase of 500 horse, and then served in Bangash. "Nothing else is known of him." Ma^aāṣir.

From the *Tuzuk* (p. 343) we see that Zafar <u>Kh</u>ān died in the beginning of 1031, when Jahāngīr made his son Sa^sādat a commander of 800, 400 horse.

Sa*ādat Khān, his son. He served in Kābul, and was at the end of Jahāngīr's reign a commander of 1,500, 700 horse. In the 5th year after Shāhjahān's accession, he was made a commander of 1,500, 1,000 horse, and was promoted up to the 25th year to a full command of 3,000 horse. He again served in Kābul, and under Murād Bakhsh in Bakh and Badakhshān, was made commandant of Tirmiz and distinguished himself in repelling a formidable night attack made by Subḥān Qulī Khān, ruler of Bukhārā (19th year). Later he served in the Qandahār wars, was in the 29th year Fawjdār of Upper and Lower Bangash, and two years later commandant of Fort Kābul.

In 1069, the second near of Awrangzib's reign, he was killed by his son Sherullah. Mahabat <u>Kh</u>an, Şübahdar of Kabul, imprisoned the murderer.

374. Mir 'Abd" 'l-Mümin, son of Mir Samarqandi.

Mîr Samarqandî was a learned man who came during Bayram's regency of Agra. Badā*onī, III, 149.

375. Lashkari, son of Mirzā Yūsuf Khān (No. 35).

Vide above, p. 405, and for his wife under No. 351.

376. Agha Mulla Qazwīni. Vide No. 278.

377. Muhammad Ali of Jam.

امروش The Masagir has امروش; the Tuste, p. 48, أمروش. I cannot find it on the maps. It is described as a green flat spot. The Khetars and Dilahalks are estimated in the Tustes at 7 to 8,000 families.

Jām is a place in <u>Kh</u>urāsān, famous for its *Bābā Shaykh*ī melons. It has given name to the two poets Pūr Bahā and the renowned ^{\$\cap4Abdu\$} r'-Rahmān Jāmī.

378. Mathurā Dās, the Khatrī.

379. Sathurā Dās, his son.

The latter served in the 26th year (989) under Sulţān Murād in Kābul. Akbarn., III, 333.

380. Mīr Murād, brother of Shāh Beg Kolabī (No. 148). Vide No. 282.

381. Kallā, the Kachhwāha.

He served in 989 under Prince Murad in Kabul.

382. Sayyid Darwish, son of Shams-i Bukhāri.

383. Junayd Murul.

A Shaykh Junayd served under Shihāb Khān (No. 26) in Gujrāt. He was killed in the Khaibar catastrophe (Akbarn., III, 190, 498).

384. Sayyid Abu Is-haq, son of Mīrzā Rafi^{çu} 'd-Dīn-i Şafawī.

He was mentioned under No. 149. In the 36th year he served against the Jam and Muzaffar of Gujrat.

His father Rafi^{çu}'d-Dīn was a learned man of saintly habits, and died at Āgra in 954 or 957. One of his ancestors was Mu^çin^u'd-Dīn, author of a commentary to the Qur^çan entitled *Tafsīr-i Ma^çānī*.

385. Fath Khan, superintendent of the leopards.

In 985, Akbar cured his sore eyes by blood letting. which Abū 'l-Fazl describes, according to his custom, as a miracle. F. K. was in charge of the hunting leopards.

There is some confusion in the histories regarding the Fath Khan of Akbar's reign. First, there is Fattū Khān Afghān. Fattū is the same as Fath. His title is Masnad-i Alī, and his son was mentioned above, No. 306. Secondly, Fath Khān Fīlbān, who when young was Akbar's elephant driver (fīlbān). He was subsequently made Amīr, and according to my two MSS. of the Tabaqāt, died in 990. But Badā'onī (II, 352) mentions Fath Khān Fīlbān as alive in 994, when he accompanied Qāsim Khān (No. 59) on his march to Kashmīr; but the Akbarnāma, in the corresponding passage (III, 512) calls him Fath Khān Masnad-i Alī. Dowson's edition of Elliot's Historians (I, 244, 250) mentions a Fath Khān Baḥādur. A Fath Khān Taghluq was mentioned under No. 187.

386. Muqim Khān, son of Shujā at Khān (No. 51).

He served in the siege of Asīr, and in the 46th year in the Dakhiu. Akbarn., III, 825, 865.

387. Lāla, son of Rāja Bīr Bar (No. 85).

The Akbarnāma (III, 865) calls him the eldest son of Rāja Bīr Bar. Vide under 85.

388. Yūsuf-i Kashmīri. Vide No. 228.

389. Habī Yasāwul.

Habī is an abbreviation of Habīb.

390. Haydar Dost, brother of Qasim Alī Khan (No. 187).

391. Dost Muhammad, son of Bābā Dost.

392. Shahrukh Dantūrī.

Dantür, Dhantür or Dhantāwar, is a district near the Kashmir ¹ frontier. The *Tuzuk* (pp. 287, 291) says that Dhantür, during Akbar's reign, was ruled over by Shāhrukh. but now (in 1029, 14th year of Jahāngir's) by his son Bahādur. Bahādur was a commander of 200, 100 horse, and served under Mahābat in Bangash.

393. Sher Muhammad.

He served in 993 in the Dakhin. Akbarn., III, 472.

A Sher Muhammad Dīwāna was mentioned on p. 332. He had at first been in the service of Khwāja Musazzam, brother of Akbar's mother. When Akbar, in the 10th year, was at Jaunpūr, engaged with the rebellion of Khān Zamān, Sher Muḥammad Dīwāna plundered several places in Pargana Samāna, the fawjdār of which was Mullā Nūru 'd-Dīn Tarkhān. The Mullā had left his vakil Mīr Dost Muhammad in Samāna. Sh. M. D. invited him and treacherously murdered him at the feast. Plundering several places he went to Māler, when he was surprised by the Mullā at a place called Dhanūrī in Samāna—Sh. M. D. fled, but his horse ran against the trunk of a tree and threw him down. He was captured and executed, A.H. 973, Akbarn. II. 332.

394. Alī Qulī [Beg. Istajlū, Sher Afkan Khān].

He was the safarchi, or table-attendant of Ismā'il II, king of Persia. After his death he went over Qandahār to India, and met at Multān, the Khān Khānān (No. 29), who was on his march to Thatha. At his recommendation, he received a munsab. During the war he rendered distinguished services. Soon after his arrival at court. Akbar married him to Mihru 'n-Nisā (the future Nūr Jahān), daughter of Mīrzā Ghiyās Tahrānī (No. 319). Ghiyās's wife had accession to the imperial harem, and was on her visits often accompanied by her daughter. Prince Salīm saw her, and fell in love with her, and Akbar, to avoid scandal, married her quickly to Salī Qulī.

^{*} Vide Cunningham's Geography of mattern India, p. 131. It lies on the Dor-River, near Nawshahra,
[P. Sufra-chi,---P.]

SAlī Qulī accompanied the prince on his expedition against the Rānā, and received from him the title of Sher Afkar Khān. On his accession, he received Bardwān as tuyūl. His hostile encounter with Shaykh Khūbū (No. 275) was related on p. 551. The Marāsir says that when he went to meet the Şūbahdār, his mother put a helmet (dubalgha) on his head, and said, "My son make his mother cry, before he makes your mother weep," then kissed him, and let him go.

'Alī Q.'s daughter, who, like her mother, had the name of Mihr" 'n-Nisä, was later married to Prince Shahryär, Jahängīr's fifth son.

Jahāngīr, in the Tuzuk, expresses his joy at A. Q.'s death, and hopes that "the blackfaced wretch will for ever remain in hell". Khān (I, p. 267) mentions an extraordinary circumstance, said to have been related by Nūr Jahān's mother. According to her, Sher Afkan was not killed by Quṭbu 'd-Dīn's men, but, wounded as he was, managed to get to the door of his house, with the intention of killing his wife, whom he did not wish to fall into the emperor's hands. But her mother would not let him enter, and told him to mind his wounds, especially as Mihru'n-Nisā had committed suicide by throwing herself into a well. "Having heard the sad news, Sher Afkan went to the heavenly mansions."

His body was buried in the shrine of the poet Bahram Saqqa (vide below among the poets); the place is pointed out to this day at Bardwan.

A verse is often mentioned by Muhammadans in allusion to four tigers which Nür Jahän killed with a musket. The tigers had been caught (*Tuzuk*, p. 186) and Nür Jahän requested Jahängir to let her shoot them. She killed two with one ball each, and the other two with two bullets, without missing, for which the emperor gave her a present of one thousand Ashrafis. One of the courtiers said on the spur of the moment:—

نورجهان گرچه بصورت زن اشت درمف مردان زن شیر انکن است

"Though Nur Jahan is a woman she is in the array of men a zan-i sher afkan," i.e., either the wife of Sher Afkan, or a woman who throws down (afkan) tigers (sher).

395. Shah Muhammad, son of Masnad-i Alī.

Vide Nos. 306 and 385.

396. Sanwaldās Jādon.

He accompanied Akbar on his forced march to Patan and Aḥmadābād (p. 458, note) and served in 989 under Prince Murād in Kābul. In 992 he was assaulted and dangerously wounded by some Bhāṭī. Akbar visited him, as he was given up by the doctors; but he recovered after an illness of three years.

He was the son of Rāja Gopāl Jādon's brother (vide No. 305) and Abū 'l-Fazl calls him a personal attendant of the emperor. Akbarn., III, 24, 333, 435.

397. Khwāja Zahīru 'd-Dīn, son of Shaykh Khalīlu 'llāh.

He served in the 31st year under Qāsim Khān (No. 59) in the conquest of Kashmīr, and in the 46th year in the Dakhin.

His father is also called Shāh Khalīlu 'llāh. He served in the 10th year against Khān Zamān, and under Mun'im Khān in Bengal and Orīsā, and died in 983 at Gaur of fever (p. 407).

Father and son are not to be confounded with the more illustrious Mir Khalilu 'llah of Yazd and his son Mir Zahiru 'd-Din, who in the 2nd year of Jahangir came as fugitives from Persia to Lahor. The history of this noble family is given in the Matasir.

- 398. Mir Abū 'l-Qāsim of Nīshāpūr.
- 399. Hājī Muḥammad Ardistānī.
- 400. Muḥammad Khān, son of Tarson Khān's sister (No. 32).
- 401. Khwāja Muqīm, son of Khwāja Mirakī.

He served under 'Azīz Koka in Bengal, and returned with him to court in the 29th year. In 993 he served again in Bengal, and was besieged, together with Tāhir Sayfu'l-Mulūk (No. 201) in Fort Ghorāghāt by several Bengal rebels. In the end of the 35th year (beginning of 999), he was made Bakhshī. Akbarn., III, 418, 470, 610.

Vide Dowson's edition of Elliot's Historians, I, pp. 248, 251.

402. Qadir Quli, foster-brother of Mîrza Shahrukh (No. 7).

He served in the 36th year in Gujrat. Akbarn., III, 621.

403. Firusa, a slave of the emperor Humayun.

Badā oni (III, 297) says that he was captured, when a child, by a soldier in one of the wars with India, and was taken to Humāyūn, who brought him up with Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother. He played several musical instruments and composed poems. He came to India with Ghāzī Khān-i Badakhshī (No. 144).

Badā onī also says that he was a Langa

404 Taj Khan Khatriya. Vide No. 172.

405. Zavn^u 'd-Din CAlī.

He served in the 25th year (end of 988) under Man Singh against M. Muhammad Hakim.

- 406. Mir Sharif of Kolab.
- 407. Pahar Khan, the Baldch.

He served in the 21st year against Dauda, son of Surjan Hādā (No. 96),

and afterwards in Bengal. In 989, the 26th year, he was tuyüldür of Chāzipür, and hunted down Ma'süm Khān Farankhūdī, after the latter had plundered Muḥammadābād (vide under No. 175). In the 28th year he served in Gujrāt, and commanded the centre in the fight at Maisānā, S.E. of Patan, in which Sher Khān Fulādī was defeated. Akbarn., III, 160, 355, 416.

Dr. Wilton Oldham, C.S., states in his "Memoir of the Ghazepoor District" (p. 80) that Fawjdar Pahar Khan is still remembered in Ghazipur, and that his tank and tomb are still objects of local interest.

408. Keshū Dās, the Rāthor.

In the beginning of 993 (end of the 29th year) he served in Gujrāt. A daughter of his was married to Prince Salīm (vide under No. 4). From the Akbarnāma, III, 623, it appears that he is the son of Rāy Rāy Singh's brother (No. 44) and perished, in the 36th year, in a private quarrel.

409. Sayyid Lad Barha.

In 993, Sayyid Lad served with the preceding in Gujrat, and in the 46th year, in the Dakhin.

410. Wasir Matin.

Ma*in (مرزيري) or Munj, is the name of a subdivision of Ranghar Rājpūts, chiefly inhabiting Sarhind and the Bahat Dusāb. "The only famous man which this tribe has produced is sisā Khān Ma*in. He served under Bahādur Shāh and Jahāndar Shāh." Ma*āṣir.

- 411 Sánga, the Puwar.
- 412 Qābil, son of Atīq.
- 413. Adward Zamindars of Orisa.
- 414. Sundar
- 415. Nūram, foster-brother of Mīrzā Ibrāhim.

He served in the 31st year against the Afghans on Mount Terah, and in 1000, under Man Singh in the expedition to Orisa. Akbarn., III, 532, 642.

Mīrzā Ibrāhīm was Akbar's youngest brother, who died as an infant.

The above list of grandees includes the names of such Mansabdars above the rank of commanders of Five Hundred as were alive and dead in the 40th year of his Majesty's reign, in which this book was completed; but the list of the commanders from Five hundred to Two hundred, only contains such as were alive in that year. Of those who hold a lower rank and are now alive, I shall merely give the number. There are at present:—

of Commanders of	150		•		•	53
Do.	120					1
Do.	100,	or	Yüzbāsh	is		250
Do.	80					91
Do.	60					204
\mathbf{Do} .	50				•	16
Do.	40			•		260
Do.	30,	or	Tarkashi	bands		39
Do.	20					250
Do.	10				•	224

[Total, 1,388 Manşabdars below the rank of a Commander of 200.]

Scarcely a day passes away on which qualified and zealous men are not appointed to mansabs or promoted to higher dignities. Many Arabians and Persians also come from distant countries, and are honoured with commissions in the army, whereby they obtain the object of their desires. A large number again, both of old and young servants, receive their discharge, and are rewarded by his Majesty with daily allowances or grants of land, that render them independent.

As I have mentioned the Grandees of the state, both such as are still alive and such as have gone to their rest, I shall also give the names of those who have been employed in the administration of the government, and thus confer upon them everlasting renown.

The following have been Vakils, or prime-ministers 1:-

Bayrām Khān (No. 10); Mun^cim Khān (No. 11); Atga Khān (No. 15); Bahādur Khān (No. 22); Khwāja Jahān (No. 110); Khān Khānān Mīrzā Khān (No. 29); Khān-i A^czam Mīrzā ^cKoka (No. 21).

The following have been Vazīrs or ministers of finances:--

Mîr ^cAzīz^u 'llāh Turbatī; <u>Kh</u>wāja Jalāl^u 'd-Dīn Maḥmūd ^a of <u>Kh</u>urāsān (No. 65); <u>Kh</u>wāja Mu^cin^u 'd-Dīn Farankhūdī (No. 128); <u>Kh</u>wāja ^cAbd^u 'l-Majīd Āṣaf <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 49); Vazīr <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 41); Muzafiar <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 37); Rāja Todar Mal (No. 39); <u>Kh</u>wāja Shāh Manṣūr of Shīrāz (No. 122); Qulij <u>Kh</u>ān (No. 42), <u>Kh</u>wāja Shama^u 'd-Dīn <u>Kh</u>awāfī (No. 159).

The following have been Bakhshis:-

Khwāja Jahan (No. 110); Khwāja Tāhir of Sijistān (No. 111); Mawlānā Habi Bihzādī,* Mawlānā Darwish Muḥammad of Mashhad;

Abd 'l-Fasi's list is neither complete, nor chronologically arranged

The MSS, and my text have wrong Mass ad for Mahmud,
Some MSS, have He instead of Hebi (an abbreviation for Hebib).

Mawlānā 'Ishqī,' Muqīm of Khurāsān (No. 410); Sultān Mahmūd of Badakhshān; Lashkar Khān (No. 90); Shāhbāz Khān (No. 80); Rāy Purukhotam; Shaykh Farīd-i Bukhārī (No. 99); Qāzī 'Alī of Baghād; Ja'far Reg 'Āṣaf Khān (No. 98); Khwāja Nizāmu 'd-Dīn Ahmad; 'Khwājagī Fathu 'llāh (No. 258).

The following have been Sadrs :-

Mīr Fathu 'llāh; Shay<u>kh</u> Gadā'ī, son of Shay<u>kh</u> Jamāl-i Kambū; <u>Kh</u>wājagī Muḥammad Ṣāliḥ, descendant in the third generation from <u>Kh</u>wāja 'Abdu 'llāh Marwārīd; Mawlānā 'Abdu 'l-Bāqī; Shay<u>kh</u> 'Abdu 'n-Nabī; Sultān <u>Kh</u>wāja (No. 108); Şadr Jahān (No. 194).

Concluding Note by the Translator of Akbar's Mansabdars.

The principal facts which Abū 'l-Faẓl's list of Grandees discloses are, first, that there were very few Hindūstānī Musulmāns in the higher ranks of the army and the civil service, most of the officers being foreigners, especially Persians and Afghāns; secondly, that there was a very fair sprinkling of Hindū Amīrs, as among the 415 Manṣabdārs there are 51 Hindūs.

The Mansabdārs who had fallen into disgrace, or had rebelled, have mostly been excluded. Thus we miss the names of Mīr Shāh Abū 'l-Masāli; Khwāja Masazzam, brother of Akbar's mother; Bābā Khān Qāqshāl; Masam-i Kābuli (p. 476, note); 'Arab Bahādur; Jabārī, etc. But there are also several left out, as Khizr Khwāja (p. 394, note 2), Sultān Ḥusayn Jalā'īr (vide under No. 64), Kamāl Khān the Gakkhar (vide p. 507), Mīr Gesū (p. 464), Nawrang Khān, son of Qutbu 'd-Dīn Khān (No. 28), Mīrzā Qulī (p. 418), Rāja Āskaran (under No. 174), and others, for whose omission it is difficult to assign reasons.

Comparing Abū 'l-Fazl's list with that in the Tabaqāt, or the careful lists of Shāhjahān's grandees in the Pādishāhnāma, we observe that Abū 'l-Fazl has only given the mansab, but not the actual commands, which would have shown the strength of the contingents (tābīnān). In other words, Abū 'l-Fazl has merely given the zātī rank (p. 251). This will partly account for the discrepancies in rank between his list and that by Nizāma 'd-Dīn in the Tabaqāt, which may advantageously be given here. Nizām gives only mansabdārs of higher rank, viz.:—

¹ Regarding him vide Akbarnama, III, 210. He was of Ghazni.

The Historian, Vide pp. 280 to 285. Regarding Maulana SAbd= T-Baql, who was Sadr in the fifth year, vide Abbarnama, II, 143.

7 .1 67 7	•
In the Tabaqat.1	In Abū'l-Fazl's list.
1. Khan Khanan Bayram Khan .	No. 10. Mansab, 5,000.1
2. Mīrzā Shāhru <u>kh</u> , 5,000	,, 7 ; 5,900.
3. Tardī Beg Khān	,, 12; do.
4. Mun ^c im <u>Kh</u> ān	" 11; do.
5. Mirzā Rustam, 5,000	" 9; do.
6. Mīrzā <u>Kh</u> ān <u>Kh</u> ānān	" 29 ; do.
7. ^c Ali Quli <u>Khān Zamān</u>	" 13; do.
8. Adham <u>Kh</u> ān	" 19; do.
9. Mirzā Sharaf ^u 'd-Dīn Ḥusayn .	" 17; do.
10. Shamsu 'd-Dīn Muḥammad Atga	
Khān	" 15; do.
11. Muḥammad Azīz Kokultāsh,	
5,000	" 21; do.
12. Khizr Khwaja	not in the A'in; vide p. 394.
13. Bahādur <u>Kh</u> ān, 5,000	No. 22; 5,000
14. Mir Muhammad Khān Atga .	" 16; do.
15. Muḥammad Quli <u>Kh</u> ān Barlās*	,, 31 ; do.
16. <u>Kh</u> ān Jahān, 5,000	" 24 ; do.
17. Shihābu 'd-Dīn Aḥmad Khān,	
5,000	., 26; do.
18. Sasīd <u>Kh</u> ān, 5,000	" 25 ; do.
19. Pîr Muḥammad Khān	" 20; do.
20. Rāja Bihārā Mal *	" 23 ; do.
21. Rāja Bhagwān Dās, 5,000 .	,, 27 ; do.
22. Män Singh, 5,000	" 30; do.
23. Khwaja 'Abdu 'l-Majid Aşaf	
Khan, maintained 20,000 horse	,, 49; 3,000.
24. Sikandar Khān Uzbak ² .	.,, 48; 3,000.
25. SAbdu 'llāh Khān Uzbak .	,, 14; 5,000.
26. Qiya Khan Gung 2	,, 33 ; 5,000.
27. Yüsuf Muhammad Khan Koka,	
5,000	,, 18; 5,000.
28. Zayn Khan Koka, 5,000 .	,, 34; 4,500.
29. Shuja at Khan, 5,000	,, 51 ; 3,000.

¹ According to MS. No. 87, of the Library of the As. Soc., Bengal, and my own MS. The occasional differences in the names are mostly traceable to Akbar's hatred, which Abi T-Fasi shared, of the names "Muhammad", "Ahmad".

² Mentioned in the Tukegit as belonging to the Umerd²-i kider, "the great Ambra," i.e., probably, the commanders of 5,000.

In the Tabaqāt.	In Abū 'l-Fazl's list.
30. Shah Budagh Khan	No. 52; 3,000.
31. Ibrāhīm Khān Uzbak, 4,000 .	,, 64; 2,500.
32. Tarsõ Muḥammad Khān, 5,000	,, 32; 5,000.
33. Vazīr <u>Kh</u> ān, 5,000	,, 41; 4,000.
34. Muḥammad Murād Khān 1 .	. ,, 54; 3,000.
35. Ashraf Khān 1	,, 74; 2,000.
36. Mahdī Qāsim <u>Kh</u> ān *	,, 36 ; 4,000.
37. Muḥammad Qāsim Khān .	,, 40 ; 4,000.
38. Khwāja Sultān Alī	,, 56; 3,000.
39. Rāja Todar Mal, 4,000	,, 39 ; 4,000.
40. Mīrzā Yūsuf Khān Razawi, 4,000	,, 35 ; 4,500.
41. Mītzā Qulī <u>Kh</u> ān ¹	not in the A'in; vide p. 418.
42. Muzaffar Khān	No. 37; 4,000.
43. Haydar Muhammad Khān, 2,000	,, 66; 2,500.
44. Shaham Khan Jala*ir, 2,000 .	,, 97 ; 2,000.
45. Ismā [*] īl Sultān Dulday	,, 72; 2,000.
46. Muḥammad Khān Jalāsīr .	not in the A'in.
47. Khān-i ^Ç Ālam, 3,000	No. 58; 3,000.
48. Qutbu'd-Dîn Muḥammad Khān,	
maintained 5,000 horse .	,, 28 ; 5,000 .
49. Muhibb Ali Khan, 4,000 .	,, 107; 1,000.
50. Qulij <u>Kh</u> ān, 4,000	,, 42 ; 4,000.
51. Muhammad Şādiq Khān, 4,000	,, 43 ; 4,000.
52. Mīrzš Jānī Beg, 3,000	,, 47 ; 3,000.
53. Ismā ^ç īl Qulī <u>Kh</u> ân, 3,000 ° .	,, 46 ; 3,500.
54. I ^c timād <u>Kh</u> ān Gujrātī, 4,000 .	,, 67 ; 2,500.
55. Rāja Rāy Singh, of Bikānīr and	
Nagor, 4,000	,, 44; 4,000.
56. Sharif Muhammad Khān, 3,000	., 63; 3,000.
57. Shah Fakhru 'd-Dīn, Naqabat	
<u>Kh</u> ān, 1,000	,. 88 ; 2,000 .
58. Ḥabīb ʿAlī <u>Kh</u> ān	,, 133; 1,000.
59. Shāh Quli Maḥram, 1,000 .	,, 45; 3,500.

Mentioned in the Tabaqāt as belonging to the Umarā*-i kibār, " the great Amīrs," i.e., probably the commanders of 5,000.
 He got insane. Tabaqāt.
 MS., 1,000.

In the Labaqāt.	În Abû 'l-Fazî's list.
60. Muhibb Alī Khān Rahtāsī,	
4,000	not in the Asin; vide p. 466.
61. Mu ^c in ^u ^c d-Din Ahmad	No. 128; 1,000.
62. Istimād Khān Khwājasarā .	,, 119; 1,000.
63. Dastam ¹ Khān	,,
64. Kamāl Khān, the Gakkhar, 5,000	not in the $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}^{\mathbf{c}}$ in; ride p. 507,
5,000	and under No. 247.
65. Tāhir Khān Mīr Farāghat, 2,000	No. 94; 2,000.
66. Sayyid Hāmid of Bukhārā, 2,000	,, 78; 2,000.
67. Sayyid Mahmūd <u>Kh</u> ān, Bārha,	
4,000	., 75; 2,000.
68. Sayyid Ahmad Khan, Barha,	
3,000	,, 91; 2,000.
69. Qarā Bahādur <u>Kh</u> ān, 4,000 (?)	"
70. Bāqī Muḥammad <u>Kh</u> ān Koka,	
4,000	,, 60; 3,000.
71. Sayyid Muhammad Mir Adl .	, 140 ; 1,000.
72. Ma ^c şüm <u>Kh</u> an Faran <u>kh</u> üdi, 2,000	,, 157; 1,000.
73. Nawrang <u>Kh</u> ān, 4,000	not in the A'in; vide p. 354.
74. Shah Muhammad Khan Atga,	
younger brother of Shamsu	
d'Din Atgah 3	not in the Å*in.
75. Matlab Khān, 2,000	No. 83; 2,000.
76. Shaykh Ibrahim, 2,000 .	,, 82; 2,000. ,, 124, 1,000.
77. SAli Quli Khān, 2,000 .	150 1 000
78. Tolak <u>Kh</u> ân Qüchîn, 2,000 . 79. Shâh Beg <u>Kh</u> ân Kābulî, 3,000	** . 9 AM
80. Fattů Khân Afghân, 2,000	not in the A*in; ride No. 385.
81. Fath Khản Filban, 2,000	not in the A in; vide under
82. Samānji Khān Muzhul, 2,000 .	No. 100; 1,500. [No. 385.
83. Bābū Mankli, 1,000	202 820
84. Darwish Muhammad Uzbak,	,, 203; 700.
2,000	, 81 , 2.000.
85. Shāhbās <u>Kh</u> ān Kambū, 2,000 .	80; 2,000.
86. Khwāja Jahān Khurāsāni .	, 110 ; 1,000.
ALL STELLES A BANK THE REAL PROPERTY.	,,, .,

The MSS, of the Tabaght also have wrongly Rustam Khan.
 MS, Bahidur Khan.
 This is probably a mustake of the author of the Tabaght.

In the Tabaqāt.	In Abū'l-Fazl's list.
87. Majnūn <u>Kh</u> ān Qāqshāl, kept	
5,000 horse	No. 50; 3,000.
88. Muhammad Qāsim Khān, 1 3,000	
89. Muzaffar Husayn Mirzä, 1,000	,, 180 ; 700.
90. Rāja Jagannāth, 3,000 .	,, 69; 2,500.
91. Rāja Āskaran, 3,000	not in the Asin; vide No. 174.
92. Ray Lonkaran, 2,000	not in the A'in; vide No. 265.
93. Mādhū Singh, "brother of R.	
Mān Singh," 2,000	No. 104; 1,500.
94. Sayf <u>Kh</u> ān Koka	,, 38; 4,000.
95. Ghiyāṣu 'd-Dîn ^ç Ali Āṣaf <u>Kh</u> ān	,, 126; 1,000.
96. Pāyanda <u>Kh</u> ān Mughul, 2,000	,, 68; 2,500.
97. Mubārak <u>Kh</u> ān, the Gakkhar,	•
1,000	,, 171; 1,000.
98. Bāz Bahādur Afghān, 2,000 .	,, 120; 1,000.
99. Mîrak <u>Kh</u> ān Jinkjank (?)	not in the Å'in.
100. Sayyid Qāsim Bārha, 2,000	No. 105; 1,500.
101. Rāja Kangār, 2,000	not in the Asin;
	vide under No. 134.
102. Muḥammad Husayn Lashkar	
Khān, kept 2,000 horse .	No. 90; 2,000.
103. Husayn Khān Tukriyah, 2,000	,, 53; 3,000.
104. Jalal Khan, the Gakkhar, 1,500	,, 170 ; 1,000.
105. Sa ^ç id <u>Kh</u> ān, the Gakkhar, 1,500	not in the A*in;
	vide p. 508, and under No 247.
106. Istibar Khan, Eunuch, 2,000.	No. 84; 2,000.
107. Khwajah Tahir Muhammad	
Tātār Khān	,, 111; 1,000.
108. Moth Rāja, 1,500	,, 121 ; 1,000.
109. Mihtar Khān Khāṣa Khayl,	100 1 700
2,000	,, 102; 1,500.
110. Şafdar Khān, Khāşa Khayl,	
2,000 ¹	not in the Å*īn.
111. Bahār <u>Kh</u> ān, <u>Khāṣa Kh</u> ayl	N ON (A) 0 000
2,000	No. 87 (?); 2,000.

In the Tabagāt.	In Abū'l-Fazl's list.
112. Farhat Khan Khasa Khayl,	•
2,000	No. 145; 1,000.
113. Rāy Sāl Darbārī, 2,000	,, 106; 1,250.
114. Rāy Durgā, 1,500 1	,, 103 ; 1,500.
115. Mīrak Khān Bahādur, 2,000 .	,, 208; 500.
116. Shāh Muḥammad Qalātī .	,, 95; 2,000.
117. Maqsūd Ali Kor	,, 136; 1,000.
118. Ikhläs Khan, the Eunuch, 1,000	,, 86; 2,000.
119. Mihr ^c Alī Sildoz, 1,500	,, 130 ; 1,000.
120. Khudawand Khan Dakhini,	
1,500	., 151; 1,000.
121. Mîr Murtazā Dakhinī, 1,000 .	,, 162 ; 1,000.
122. Hasan <u>Kh</u> ān, a Batani Afghān,	
1,000	,, 220; 500.
123. Nazar Beg, son of Sacid, the	
Ghakkhar, 1,000	, 247 ; 500 .
124. Rāja Gopāl, 2,000	not in the Ā*in:
	vide under No. 305.
125. Qiyā <u>Kh</u> ān, 1,000	No. 134; 700.
126. Sayyid Hāshim Bārha, 2,000 .	,, 143 ; 1,000.
127. Razawi <u>Kh</u> an, 2,000	,, 141; 1,000.
128. Rāja Bir Bal, 2,000	,, 85; 2,000.
129. Shay <u>kh</u> Farîd-i Bukhârî, 1,500	., 99; 1,500.
130. Rāja Surjan, 2,000 .	· ., 96; 2,000.
131. Jasfar Beg, Aşaf Khan, 2,000	,, 98; 2,000.
132. Rāja Rūpsi Bairāgī, 1.500 .	,, 118; 1,000.
133. Fāzil Khān, 1,500	,, 156; 1,000.
134. Shah Quli Khan Naranji, 1,000	, 231 ; 500.
135. Shay <u>kh</u> Muhammad <u>Kh</u> ān Bukh-	
ărī, 2,000	,. 77; 2,000
136. Läl Khan Badakhshi	,, 209 , 500.
137. Khanjar Beg Chaghtā 3	not in the $\bar{\Lambda}^{\bullet}$ in.
138. Makhşüş <u>Kh</u> ān, 2,500	No. 70; 2,500.
139. Sāni <u>Kh</u> ān Arlāt	., 216; 500.
	a to the particular

¹ M8., 1,000.

He died in the explosion of a mine before Chitor

"He belongs to the old Amirs of the present dynasty. He was an accomplished man, excelled in music, and composed poems. There exists a well-known Manawi by him, der bab-s abhara, on the subject of dancing girls." Tabaqut. Vide Abbarasma. II, 82.

	In the Tabaqāt.			In.	Abū 'l-Faşl's list.
140.	Mīrzā Ḥusayn Khān .		No.	149;	1,000.
	Jagat Singh, 1,500 .		,,	160;	1,000.
142.	Mīrzā Najāt <u>Kh</u> ān .		,,	142;	1,000.
143.	Alī Dost Khān, 1,000 1.			in the	
144.	Sultan Husayn Khan .		not	in the	A'in.
145.	Khwāja Shāh Manşūr Shīrāzī		No.	122;	1,000.
146.	Salīm Khān, 1,000 .		,,	132;	1,000.
147.	Sayyid Chhajhū Bārha .		,,	221;	500.
148.	Darbar Khan, 1,000 .	•	••	185;	700.
149.	Hājî Muḥammad Sīstānī, 1,00	0	(?) "	55;	3,000.
150.	Muḥammad Zamān .		not	in the	Ä*in.
151.	Khurram Khan, 2,000 3.		not	in the	Å*in.
152.	Muḥammad Qulī Toqbāy, 1,00)()	No.	129;	1,000.
153.	Mujāhid Khān, 1,000 4 .		not	in the	Ā*in.
154.	Sultān Ibrāhīm Awbahī 5		not	in the	Ā ⁴ īn.
155 .	Shāh <u>Gh</u> āzī <u>Kh</u> ān Turkmān		not	in the	$ ilde{\mathbf{A}}^{\mathbf{c}}$ in.
156.	Sheroya, 1,000		No.	168;	1,000.
157.	Kākar ^S Alī <u>Kh</u> ān, 1,000		11	92;	2,000.
158.	Naqīb <u>Kh</u> ān, 1,000 .		,,,	161;	1,000.
159.	Beg Nürîn <u>Kh</u> ān, 1,000 .		,,,	212;	500.
160.	Qutlu Qadam Khān, 1,000		29	123;	1,000.
161.	Jalāl <u>Kh</u> ān Qurchī, 1,000		99	213;	500.
162.	Shimāl Khan Qurchī, 1,000		21	154;	1,000.
163.	Mīrzāda SAlī <u>Kh</u> ān .		,,	152;	1,000.
164.	Sayyid Abdu 'llāh Khān		39	189;	
165.	Mir Sharif-i Āmulī, 1,000		No.	166;	1,000.
166.	Farrukh Khān		1)	232;	500.
	Dost Khan		not	in the	Açin.
168.	Jasfar <u>Kh</u> ān Turkmān, 1,000		No.	114;	1,000.

^{1 &}quot;He was a servant of Humāyūn. In Akbar's service he rose to a command of 1,000, and died at Lähor." One MS. calls him Cali Dost Khān Narangi, the other has Barbegi, an unusual title for the Mughul period.

" Munammed Zaman is the brother of Mirza Yuauf Khan (No. 35). He belonged

to the commanders of 1,000, and was killed in Gadha." Tabaqut.

hie is not to be confounded with Mirza Khurram (No. 177).

Mujahid Khan was the son of Musahib Khan, one of Humayan's courtiers. He was killed at Konbhalmir. Abbarnama, III, 146, 168.

. He was the khal, or maternal uncle, of the author of the Tabaqut, and distinguished

himself in leading a successful expedition into Kamt*on.

One MS, calls him باري, the other باري. "He belonged to the commanders of 1,000, and is now (A.E. 1001) dead."

³ According to the *Tabagāt*, he was dead in 1000, *Vide Akbarnāma*, II, 98, 108, 200 284, 287.

In the Tabaqāt.	In Abū 'l-Fazl's list.
169. Rāy Manohar No.	265; 400.
170. Shaykh Abdu 'r-Rahim of Lakhnau "	197; 700.
171. Mīrzā Abū 'l-Muzaffar ,,	240; 500.
172. Rāj Singh, son of Rāja Āskaran "	174; 1,000.
173. Rāy Patr Dās ,	196; 700.
174. Jänish Bahadur ,	235; 500.
175. Muḥammad <u>Kh</u> ān Niyāzī . "	239 ; 500.
176. Rām Dās Kachhwāha "	238; 500.
177. Mīr Abū 'l-Qāsim ,	251; 500.
178. Khwaja Abdu 'l-Ḥay, Mir Adl "	230; 500.
179. Shamsu 'd-Dîn Ḥusayn, son of	
Aczam Khān ,	163; 1,000.
180. Khwāja Shamsu'd-Dīn Khawāfī "	159; 1,000.
181. Mîr Jamal ^u 'd-Dîn Husayn Injû,	
1,000 , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	164 , 1,000.
182. Shay <u>kh</u> 'Abdu'llāh <u>Kh</u> ān, son of	
Muḥammad Ghawa, 1,000,	173; 1,000.
183. Sayyid Rājū Bārha, 1,000,	165; 1,000.
184. Mednī Rāy Chauhān, 1,000,	198; 700.
185. Mîr Țāhir Razawî, brother of M.	
Yūsuf <u>Kh</u> ān ,	236; 500.
186. Tāsh Beg Kābulī	172; 1,000.
187. Ahmad Beg Kābuli, keeps 700	
horse	191; 700.
188. Sher Khwaja.	176; 800.
189. Muḥammad Quli Turkmān . ",	203; 600.
190. Mīrzā SAlī Alamshāhi 1 ,,	237; 500.
191. Wazīr Jamīl ,	200; 700.
192. Ray Bhoj, 1,000	175; 1,000
193. Bakhtyār Beg Turkmān . "	204; 600.
194. Mîr Şadr Jahan , ,,	194; 700.
195. Hasan Beg Shaykh 'Umari,	167 : 1,000.
196. Shādmān, son of Azīz Koka . "	233; 500.
197. Rāja Mukatmān Bhadaurya . "	249; 500.
198. Bāqī Safarchī,* son of Tāhir	
Khān Farāghat not	in the A in; vide No. 94.

[&]quot;He is the brother of CAlamshah, a courageous man, skilful in the use of arms."

Tabaght. This remark is scarcely in harmony with the facts recorded under No. 237.

[2 Or Sufra-chi ?—P.]

In the Tabaqāt.	In Abū'l-Fazl's list.
199. Faridun Barlas	. No. 227; 500.
200. Bahādur Khān Qurdār, a Ta	rīn
Afghān	. , 269 ; 400.
201. Shay <u>kh</u> Bāyazīd-i Chishtī	. " 260 ; 400.

In this above list, a few grandees are mentioned whom Abū 'l-Fazl classes among the commanders of 400. Nizām, however, adds the following note to his own list—" Let it be known that the title of Amīr is given to all such as hold Manṣabs from 500 upwards. None of those whom I have enumerated holds a less rank."

The Historian Badā onī has not given a list of Amīrs, but has compiled instead a very valuable list of the poets, doctors, learned men, and saints of Akbar's reign, together with biographical notices, which make up the third volume of the edition printed by the Asiatic Society of Bengal. With his usual animus he says (III, 1)—"I shall not give the names of the Amīrs, as Nizām has given them in the end of his work, and besides most of them have died without having obtained the pardon of God.

I have seen none that is faithful in this generation; If thou knowest one, give him my blessing."

Of the Mansabdars whose names Abū 'l-Fazl has not given, because the A^ain list refers to the period prior to the 40th year of Akbar's reign, the most famous are Mahābat Khān, Khān Jahān Lodī (vide under No. 309), and 'Abdu' 'llāh Khān Fīrūz-jang.

We have no complete list of the grandees of Jahāngīr's reign; but the Dutch traveller De Laët, in his work on India (p. 151) has a valuable note on the numerical strength of Jahāngīr's Manṣabdārs, which may be compared with the lists in the $A^*\bar{\imath}n$ and the $P\bar{a}dishahn\bar{a}ma$ (II, 717). Leaving out the princes, whose manṣabs were above 5,000, we have :--

Commanders of	Under Akbar. (Ā ^s īn)				r Jak e La	lāngīr. ēt)		Under Shahjahān (Pādishāhnama)		
•				(1)			•			
5,000 .	. 30) .	•	•	8	•	•	•	20	
4,500 .		2 .			9				0	
4,000 .		9.			25	•		•	20	
3,500 .		2 .			30				0	
3,000 .	. 1	7.			36			•	44	
2, 50 0 .		8.			42	•			11	
2,000 .	. 2	7.			45				51	
1,500	. 1	7.			51				52	
1.250 .		1.			0	•			0	

Command	U	Under Akbar. (Å*in)			Unde	r Jal	angur.	Under Shāhjahān	
of							e La		(Pādishāhnāma)
1,000			31	' .		`.	55	•	97
900	•		38				0		23
800			2				0		40
700			25				58		61
600		•	4				0	•	30
500	•	•	46	•	•	•	80	•	114
	Total	•	249	•	٠	•	439	•	563
400			18				73		
350			19				58		
300			33				72		
250			12				85		not specified.
200	•	•	81	•	•	•	150		, positive and the second
	Total		163				494		
	TOORI	•	100	•	•	•	438		
150			53				242		
120			1		•		0		
100			250				300		
80			91				245		not specified.
60			204				397		•
50			16				0		
40			260				298		
30			39			•.	240		
20			250	•			232		
10	•		224	•		•	110		
7	l'otal	. 1	1,388			2	,064		
The nur	nber o	f Al	adīs 1	ınder	Ja	hàngi	r, De	Laét f	ixes as follows :
			hāras						11
		Sib	aapas					1,33	22
			aspas					1,42	×
		Yal	kaspas	3 .			•	. 90	50

^{4,441} Ahadis.

Under Shāhjahān, 17 Grandees were promoted, up to the 20th year of his reign, to mansabs above 5,000. There is no Hindū among them.

De Laët has not mentioned how many of the Amīrs were Hindūs. But we may compare the lists of the A^{*}īn and the Pādishāhnāma.

We find under Akbet :--

among 252 manşabdārs from 5,000 to 500 . . . 32 Hindûs. among 163 manşabdārs from 400 to 200 . . . 25 ...

Under Shahjahan (20th year of his reign), we have :-

among 12 manşabdārs above 5,000 . . . no Hindûs. among 580 manşabdārs from 5,000 to 500 . . . 110 Hindûs.

The names of commanders below 500 are not given in the Pādishāhnāma. Regarding other facts connected with the relative position of Hindūs and Muhammadans at the Mughul court, I would refer the reader to my "Chapter from Muhammadan History," Calcutta Review, April, 1871.

Asin 30 (continued).

THE LEARNED MEN OF THE TIME.

I shall now speak of the sages of the period and classify them according to their knowledge, casting aside all differences of creed. His Majesty, who is himself the leader of the material and the ideal worlds, and the sovereign over the external and the internal, honours five classes of sages as worthy of attention. And yet all five, according to their light, are struck with his Majesty's perfection, the ornament of the world. The first class, in the lustre of their star, perceive the mysteries of the external and the internal, and in their understanding and the breadth of their views, fully comprehend both realms of thought, and acknowledge to have received their spiritual power from the throne of his Majesty. The second class pay less attention to the external world; but in the light of their hearts they acquire vast knowledge. The third class do not step beyond the arena of observation (nazar) and possess a certain knowledge of what rests on testimony. The fourth class look upon testimony as something filled with the dust of suspicion, and handle nothing without proof. The fifth class are bigoted, and cannot pass beyond the narrow sphere of revealed testimony. Each class has many subdivisions.

I do not wish to set up as a judge and hold forth the faults of people. The mere classification was repugnant to my feelings; but truthfulness helps on the pen.

First Class.—Such as understand the musteries of both worlds.

1. Shaykh Mubarak of Nagor.1

Vide under No. 253. The Tabaque also mentions a Shaykh Mubarak of Alwar, and a Sayyid Mubarak of Gwalvar.

2. Shavkh Nizam.

Abu 'l-Fazl either means the renowned Nizamu 'd-Din of Amethi. near Lakhnau, of the Chishti sect, who died A.H. 979; or Nizāmu 'd-Din of Narnaul, of the same sect, who died in 997.

3. Shaykh Adhan.

He also belonged to the Chishtis, and died at Jaunpur in 970.

4. Miyan Wajihu 'd-Din.

Died at Ahmadabad in 998. The Tabagat mentions a contemporary, Shaukh Wajihu'd-Din Gujrātī, who died in 995.

5. Shayid Ruknu 'd-Din.

He was the son of Shaykh 'Abdu 'l-Quddis or Gango. Bada oni saw him at Dihli at the time of Bayram's fall.

6. Shaykh Abdu 'l-Azīz (of Dihli).

7. Shaykh Jalalu 'd-Din.

He belongs to Thanesar, and was the pupil and spiritual successor (khalifa) of Abdu 'l-Quddus of Gango. Died 989.

8. Shayld Ilahdiya.

Ilāhdiya is Hindūstānī for the Persian Ilāhdād, "given (diyā) by God," "Theodore." He lived at Khayrabad and died in 993.

9. Mawlana Husamu 'd-Din.

"Mawlana Husamu 'd-Din Surkh of Lahor. He differed from the learned of Lahor, and studied theology and philosophy. He was very pious." Tabagat.

10. Shaykh 'Abdu 'l-Ghafur.

He belongs to Assumptir in Sambhal, and was the pupil of sabdu 'l-Quddus. Died in 995.

11. Shaykh Panju.

He was wrongly called Bechu on p. 110, note 3. He died in 969. Bada oni, II, 53.

12. Mawlana lama*il.

He was an Arabian, and the friend of Shavkh Hussyn, who taught in Humaytin's Madrasa at Dihli. He was a rich man, and was killed by some burglars that had broken into his house.

¹ The notes are taken from the Takepht, the third volume of Bada onl, and the Miraet V-CAlam.

13. Madhū Sarsutī.

14. Madhūsūdan.

15. Nārāyn Asram.

16. Harijī Sür.

18. Rämtirth.

19. Nar Sing.

20. Parmindar.

21. Ādit.

17. Damüdar Bhat.

Second Class.—Such as understand the mysteries of the heart.

22. Shaykh Ruknu 'd-Din Mahmud 1 Kamangar (the bow maker).

23. Shaykh Amānu 'llāh.

24. Khwaja Abdu 'sh-Shahid.

He is the son of Khwājagān Khwāja, son of the renowned Khwāja Ahrār. Vide No. 17 and No. 108. He died in 982, and was buried at Samarqand. He had been for twenty years in India, and held a jāgīr in Pargana, in the Bārī Duāb, where he maintained two thousand poor.

25. Shaykh Mūsā.

He was a smith (āhangar), and performed many miracles. He died in the beginning of Akbar's reign, and was buried at Lāhor. The elder brother of Shaykh Salīm-i Chishtī also was called Shaykh Mūsā; vide under No. 82. Vide also below, No. 102.

26. Bābā Balās.

27. Shaykh Alā'u 'd-Din Majzūb. Vide Badā'onī, III, 61.

28. Shaykh Yüsuf Harkun.

The Tabagat calls him Shaykh Yusuf Harkun Majzub of Lahor.

29. Shaykh Burhan.

He lived as a recluse in Kālpī, and subsisted on milk and sweetmeats, denying himself water. He knew no Arabic, and yet explained the Qurān. He was a Mahdawī. He died in 970 at the age of one hundred years, and was buried in his cell.

30. Bābā Kipūr.

Shaykh Kipur Majzub of Gwalyar, a Husayni Sayyid, was at first a soldier, then turned a bihishti, and supplied widows and the poor with water. He died in 979 from a fall from his gate.

31. Shaykh Abū Is-hāq Firang. Vide Badā onī, III, 48.

32. Shaykh Da'ud.

He is called Jhannīwāl from Jhannī near Lāhor. His ancestors had come from Arabia and settled at Sītpūr in Multān, where Dā[‡]ūd was born. Badā[‡]onī (III, p. 28) devotes eleven pages to his biography. He died in 982.

¹ Bada toni (III, p. 151) mentions a Zeyn* 'd-Din Mahmud Kamangar.

33. Shaykh Salīm-i Chishtī.

He was a descendant of Shaykh Farid-i Shakarganj, and lived in Fathpür Sīkrī highly honoured by Akbar. Jahāngīr was called after him Salīm. He died in 979. Several of his relations have been mentioned above.

34. Shaykh Muhammad Ghaws of Gwalyar.

Vide No. 173.

35. Rām Bhadr.

36. Jadrūp.

Third Class.—Such as know philosophy and theology.1

37. Mīr Fathu 'llāh of Shīrāz.

Vide pp. 34, 110, 208, 284. His brother was a poet and wrote under the takhallus of Fārighī; vide Badā onī, III, 292. His two sons were Mīr Taqī and Mīr Sharīf.

38. Mīr Murtazā.

He is not to be confounded with Mir Murtazā, No. 162. Mir Murtazā Sharīf of Shīrāz died in 974 at Dihlī, and was buried at the side of the poet Khusraw, from where his body was taken to Mashhad. He had studied the Ḥadīs under the renowned Ibn Ḥajar in Makkah, and then came over the Dakhin to Agra. Vide Akbarnāma, II, 278, 337.

39. Mawlānā Sa^çīd, of Turkistān.

He came in 968 from Māwara 'n-nahr to Āgra. Bad., II, 49. He died in Kābul in 970; l.c., III, 152.

40. Hāfiz of Tāshkand.

He is also called Hāfiz Kumakī. He came in 977 from Tāshkand to India, and was looked upon in Māwars 'n-nahr as a most learned man. He had something of a soldier in him, and used to travel about, like all Turks, with the quiver tied to his waist. He went over Gujrāt to Makkah, and from there to Constantinople, where he refused a vazīrship. Afterwards he returned to his country, where he died. Vide Badā*onī, II, 187.

41. Mawiana Shah Muḥammad.

Vide p. 112; Bad., II, 295, U.

42. Mawlana Alasu 'd-Din.

He came from Läristän, and is hence called Läri. He was the son of Mawlana Kamalu 'd-Din Husayn and studied under Mawlana Jalal Dawwani Shafi'i. He was for some time Akbar's teacher. Once at a darbar he placed himself before the Khan-i A'zam, when the Mir Tozak

Matquil o mangul, pr. that which is based on reason (top) and traditional testimony (negl).

told him to go back. "Why should not a learned man stand in front of fools," said he, and left the hall, and never came again. He got 4,000 bighas as sayūrghāl in Sambhal, where he died.

43. Hakim Mişri. Vide No. 254.

44. Mawlānā Shaykh Ḥusayn (of Ajmīr).

He was said to be a descendant of the great Indian saint Mu^cin-i Chishtī of Ajmīr, was once banished to Makkah, and had to suffer, in common with other learned men whom Akbar despised, various persecutions. Badā*onī, III, 87.

45. Mawlana Mir Kalan.

He died in 981, and was buried at Agra. He was Jahangir's first teacher. Bad., II, 170.

46. Ghāzi Khān. Vide No. 144.

47. Mawlana Şadiq.

He was born in Samarqand, came to India, and then went to Kābul, where he was for some time the teacher of Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥakīm, Akbar's brother. He then went back to his home, where he was alive in 1001. The Tabaqāt calls him Mullā Ṣādiq Ḥalwā*ī. Badā*onī (III, 255, where the Ed. Bibl. India has wrongly Halwānī) puts him among the poets.

48. Mawlana Shah Muhammad.

Vide No. 41. This seems to be a mere repetition. Other Histories only mention one Mawlana of that name.

Fourth Class.—Such as know philosophy (Saylī kalām).1

49. Mawlana Pîr Muḥammad. Vide No. 20.

50. Mawlana Abdu 'l-Baqı.

He was a Sadr; vide pp. 282, 528 [and Akbarnāma, II, 143].

51. Mīrzā Muflis.

He was an Uzbak, came from Māwarā 'n-nahr to India, and taught for some time in the Jāmī^c Masjid of Mu^cīn^u 'd-Dīn Faran<u>kh</u>ūdī (vide No. 128) at Āgra. He died in Makkah at the age of seventy. Vide Bad., II, 187.

52. Mawlanazada Shukr.

53. Mawlana Muhammad.

He lived at Lähor and was in 1004 nearly ninety years old. Badā*onī (III, i54) calls him Mawlānā Muḥammad Muftī.

¹ This means chiefly religious testimony based on human reason, not on revelation. Abū 'l-Faşl evidently takes it in a wider sense, as he includes the doctors in this class.

Abū 'l-Fazl, however, means perhaps Mawlānā Muḥammad of Yazd, a learned and bigoted Shī'ah, who was well received by Akbar and Abū 'l-Fazl, to whose innovations he at first agreed. But he got tired of them and asked for permission to go to Makkah. He was plundered on the road to Sūrat. Mir'āt. But Badā'onī tells quite a different story; vide p. 198.

Or it may refer to No. 140, p. 438.

54. Qāsim Beg.

Vide No. 350, p. 112. The Tabaqat also says of him that he was distinguished for his acquirements in the aqli aliam.

55. Mawlana Nūru 'd-Dīn Tarkhan.

Vide under No. 393. He was a poet and a man of great erudition. Towards the end of his life "he repented" and gave up poetry. He was for a long time Mutawallī of Humāyūn's tomb in Dihlī, where he died.

The Tabaqāt says that he was a good mathematician and astronomer. According to the Masajir, he was born in Jām in Khurāsān, and was educated in Mashhad. He was introduced to Bābar, and was a private friend of Humāyūn's, who like him was fond of the astrolabe. He went with the emperor to 'Irāq, and remained twenty years in his service. As poet, he wrote under the takhallus of "Nūrī". He is also called "Nūrī of Safīdūn", because he held Safīdūn for some time as jāgīr. Akbar gave him the title of Khān, and later that of Tarkhān, and appointed him to Samānah.

56. Nārāyn.

57. Madhūbhat.

58. Sribhat.

59. Bishn Nath.

60. Räm Kishn.

61. Balbhadr Misr.

62. Bäsüdev Misr.

63. Bāmanbhat.

64. Bidyaniwas.

65. Gorinath.

66. Gopināth.

67. Kishn Pandit.

68. Bhattacharj.

69. Bhagirat Bhattacharj.

70. Kāshi Nāth Bhattāchārj.

Physicians.

- 71. Hakim Mişri. Vide No. 254.
- 72. Hakimu 'l-Mulk.

His name is Shams^u 'd-Dîn and, like several other doctors of Akbar's court, he had come from Gīlān on the Caspian, to India. He was a very learned man. When the learned were driven from court and the innova-

¹ The title carried with it none of the privileges attached to it; side p. 393. The Me⁶ agir has some verses made by Nüri on his empty title.

tions commenced, he asked for permission to go to Makkah (988), where he died.

73. Mulla Mir.

The *Tubaqāt* calls him Mullā Mīr Tabīb of Hairāt, grandson of Mullā ʿAbdu 'l-Ḥay Yazdī.

74. Hakim Abū 'l-Fath. Vide No. 112, p. 468.

75. Hakim Zanbil Beg. Vide No. 150, p. 490.

76. Hakim Ali of Gilan. Vide No. 192, p. 519.

77. Hakim Hasan.

He also came from Gīlān. His knowledge, says Badā onī (III, 167), was not extensive, but he was an excellent man.

78. Hakim Aristü.

79. Ḥakīm Fathu 'llāh.

He also came from Gilan, knew a great deal of medical literature, and also of astronomy. He wrote a Persian Commentary to the Qanun. In the first year of Jahangir's reign he was a Commander of 1,000, three hundred horse (Tuzuk, p. 34). The Pādishāhnāma (I, b., 350) says that he afterwards returned to his country, where he committed suicide. His grandson, Fathu'llah, was a doctor at Shājahān's court.

80. Ḥakim Masiḥu 'l-Mulk.

He came from the Dakhin, where he had gone from Shīrāz. He was a simple, pious man, and was physician to Sultān Murād. He died in Mālwah.

- 81. Hakim Jalalu 'd-Dîn Muzaffar. Vide No. 348, p. 582.
- 82. Ḥakīm Lutfu 'llāh. Vide No. 354, p. 584.
- 83. Hakim Sayfu 'l-Mulk Lang.

Badā*onī and the Tabaqāt call him Sayfu'l-Mulūk. Because he killed his patients, he got the nickname of Sayfu'l-Hukamā, " the sword of the doctors." He came from Damāwand, and was in Āgra during Bayrām's regency. Later he went back to his country. He was also a poet and wrote under the takhalluş of "Shujā*ī". He is not to be confounded with No. 201, p. 528.

84 Hakim Humam. Vide No. 205, p. 529.

85. Hakim 'Ain' 'I-Mulk. Vide No. 234, p 480.

96. Hakim Shifa*i.

The Mirat mentions a Ḥakīm Shifatī, who in his poetical writings calls himself Muzaffar ibn-i Muḥammad Al-ḥusaynī As-shifatī. He was born at Isfahān, and was a friend of Shāh Abbās-i Ṣafawī. He died in 1037 There is a copy of his Mannawī in the Library of the Asiatic Society of Bengai (No. 795).

87. Hakim Nicmatu 'llāh.

88. Hakim Dawa'i.

Dawā'i was also the takhallus of No. 85.

89. Hakim Talab Ali.

90. Hakīm ^cAbd^u 'r-Raḥīm.

91. Hakim Rühu 'llah.

92. Hakim Fakhru 'd-Din Ali.

93. Hakim Is-haq.

94. Shaykh Hasan, and 95. Shaykh Bina.

Shaykh Ḥasan of Pānīpat, and his son Shaykh Bīnā were renowned surgeons. Instead of "Bīnā", the MSS. have various readings. The Masagir has Phaniyā, the Tabaqāt Phaniyā.

Shaykh Bīnā's son is the well-known Shaykh Hasan, or Hassū, who under Jahangir's rose to great honours, and received the title of Mugarrab Khān. Father and son, in the 41st year, succeeded in curing a bad wound which Akbar had received from a buck at a deer-fight. Hassu was physician to Prince Salim, who was much attached to him. After his accession, he was made a commander of 5,000 and governor of Gujrāt, in which capacity he came in contact with the English at Sürat. He gave no satisfaction, and was recalled. In the 13th year (1027) he was made governor of Bihar, and in the 16th, governor of Agra. In the beginning of Shahjahan's reign, he was pensioned off, and received the Pargana of Kayrana, his birthplace, as jagir. He constructed a mausoleum near the tomb of the renowned Saint Sharafu'd-Din of Panipat, and die dat the age of ninety. In Kayrana, he built many edifices, and laid out a beautiful garden with an immense tank. He obtained excellent fruit-trees from all parts of India, and the Kavrana mangoes, according to the Mataux, have since been famous in Dihli.

Muqarrab's son, Rizqu 'llah, was a doctor under Shahjahan, and a commander of 800. Awrangzeb made him a <u>Kh</u>an. He died in the 10th year of Awrangzeb.

Muqarrab's adopted son is Masihā-i Kairānawi. His real name was Sasadu 'llah. He was a poet, and composed an epic on the story of Sitā. Rāmchandra's wife.

96. Mahadev.

98. Nārāvin.

97. Bhim Nath.

99. Siwajī 1

¹ The Tabaqui mentions a few other Hindü doctors of distinction who lived during Akbar's reign, vis. Bhiraù, Durgă Mal, Chandr San ('an excellent surgeon''), and Illi (one MS, has Abl).

Fifth Class.—Such as understand sciences resting on testimony (naql).1

100. Miyan Hatim.

He lived at Sambhal. The historian Bada oni, when twelve years old, learned under him in 960. Hātim died in 969.

101. Miyan Jamal Khan.

He was Muftī of Dihlī and died more than ninety years old in 984. He was a Kambū.

102. Mawlana CAbdu 'l-Qadir.

He was the pupil of Shaykh Hāmid Qādirī (buried at Hāmidpūr, near Multān), and was at enmity with his own younger brother Shaykh Mūsā, regarding the right of succession. 'Abdu'l-Qādir used to say the naft-prayers' in the audience-hall of Fathpūr Sīkrī, and when asked by Akbar to say them at home, he said, "My king, this is not your kingdom that you should pass orders." Akbar called him a fool, and cancelled his grant of land, whereupon 'Abdu l-Qādir went back to Uchh. Shaykh Mūsā did better; he joined the army, and became a commander of 500. Vide below, Nos. 109, 131.

The Mir²-āt mentions a Mawlānā 'Abdu' 'l-Qādir of Sirhind as one of the most learned of Akbar's age.

103. Shaykh Ahmad.

The *Tabaqāt* mentions a Shay<u>kh</u> Ḥājī Aḥmad of Lāhor, and a Shay<u>kh</u> Aḥmad Ḥājī Pūlādī Majzūb of Sind.

104. Makhdumu 'l-Mulk. Vide p. 172.

This is the title of Mawlana 'Abdu'llah of Sultanpur, author of the 'Asmat·i Anbiyā, and a commentary to the Shamā'il" 'n-Nabī. Humāyūn gave him the titles of Makhdūmu'l-Mulk and Shaykhu'l-Islam. He was a bigoted Sunnī, and looked upon Abū'l-Fazl from the beginning as a dangerous man. He died in 990 in Gujrāt after his return from Makkah.

105. Mawlana SAbdu 's-Salam.

The Tahaqat says, he lived at Lahor and was a learned man.

The Mirat mentions another Mawlana Abdu 's-Salam of Lahor, who was a great lawyer (faqua) and wrote a commentary to Baizawi. He died more than ninety years old in the first year of Shahjahan's reign.

106. Qāzī Şadru 'd-Dīn.

Qāzi Şadru 'd-Dīn Qurayshī 'Abbāsī of Jālindhar was the pupil of Makhdūmu 'l-Mulk (No. 104). He was proverbial for his memory. He was attached to dervishes and held such broad views, that he was looked upon by common people as a heretic. When the learned were driven

As religious law, Hadie, history, etc.
 Voluntary prayers.

from court, he was sent as Qāzī to Bharōch, where he died. His son, Shaykh Muhammad, succeeded him. His family remained in Gujrāt.

107. Mawlana Sasadu 'llah.

He lived at Bīyana, and was looked upon as the best grammarian of the age. He was simple in his mode of life, but liberal to others. Towards the end of his life he got silent, and shut himself out from all intercourse with men, even his own children. He died in 989.

108. Mawlana Is-haq.

He was the son of Shaykh Kākū, and lived at Lāhor. Shaykh Sacadu 'llāh Shaykh Munawwar, and many others, were his pupils. He died more than a hundred years old in 996

109. Mir Abdu 'l-Latif. Vide No. 161, p. 496.

110 Mir Nūru 'llah.

He came from Shustar and was introduced to Akbar by Ḥakim Abū 'l-Fatḥ. He was a Shi ah, but practised taquya among Sunnis, and was even well acquainted with the law of Abū Ḥanifa. When Shaykh Mu a Qāzī of Lāhor retired, he was appointed his successor, and gave every satisfaction. After Jahāngūr's accession, he was recalled. Once he offended the emperor by a hasty word and was executed

111. Mawlana SAbdu 'l-Qadir.

He was Akbar's teacher (ākhūnd) Vide No. 242, p. 542.

112. Qazī Abdu 'l-Samī.

He was a Miyankāli, and according to Badā oni (11, 314) played chess for money and drank wine. Akbar made him in 990, Qāziyu 'l-Quzāt, in place of Qāzī Jalālu'd-Dīn Multam (No. 122). Vide Akbar nāma, HI. 593

113. Mawlana Qasim.

The Tabagut mentions a Mulla Qasim of Qandahar.

114. Qazi Ḥasan. Vide No. 281, p. 559

115. Mulla Kamal.

The Tabaqat mentions a Shaykh Kamal of Alwar, the successor and relative of Shaykh Salim.

116. Shaykh Yasqub (of Kashmir). Vide below among the poets.

117. Mulla SAlam. Vide p. 159, note

He died in 991, and wrote a book entitled Tuvātih 'l-Wilāyat. Bad., II, 337.

118. Shayith 'Abdu 'n-Nabī. Vide pp 182, 186, 195, 197, 549, 616, note.

He was the son of Shaykh Ahmad, son of Shaykh Ahdu 'l-Quddus

¹ Miyankal is the name of the billy tract between Samarquad and Bulhara.

of Gango, and was several times in Makkah, where he studied the Ḥadīṣ. When he held the office of Ṣadr he is said to have been arbitrary, but liberal. The execution of a Brāhman, the details of which are related in Badā*onī (III, 80) led to the Shaykh's deposal.

Badā onī (III, 83) places his death in 991, the Mir at in 992. Abdu 'n-Nabī's family traced their descent from Abū Hanīfa.

119. Shaykh Bhik.

The Tabaqāt has also "Bhīk ", while Badā onī (III, 24) has "Bhīkan". Shaykh Bhīk lived in Kākor near Lakhnau. He was as learned as he was pious. He died in 981.

120. Shaykh Abū 'l-Fath.

Shaykh Abū 'l-Fath of Gujrāt was the son-in-law of Mīr Sayyid Muḥammad of Jaunpur, the great Mahdawī. He was in Āgra at the time of Bayrām Khān.

121. Shaykh Bahā^{çu} 'd-Dīn Muftī.

He lived at Agra, and was a learned and pious man.

122. Qazi Jalalu 'd-Din Multani. Vide pp. 183, 195.

He comes from near Bhakkar and was at first a merchant. He then took to law. In 990, he was banished and sent to the Dakhin, from where he went to Makkah. He died there.

123. Shavkh Ziyā^{çu} 'd-Dîn.

It looks as if Shaykh Ziyā^{çu} 'llāh were intended; vide No. 173.

124. Shaykh 'Abdu 'l-Wahhab.

125. Shavkh 'Umar.

126. Mir Sayyid Muḥammad Mir Adl. Vide No. 140, p. 485, and No. 251, p. 548.

127. Mawlana Jamal.

The Tabaqāt has a Mullā Jamāl, a learned man of Multān. Budā on (III, 108) mentions a Mawlānā Jamāl of Li, which is said to be a Maḥalla of Lāhor.

128. Shaykh Ahmadi.

Shaykh Aḥmadī Fayyāz of Amethī, a learned man, contemporary of the saint Nizāmu 'd-Dīn of Amethī (p. 607).

129. Shavkh Abdu 'l-Ghani.1

He was born at Badā, on and lived afterwards in Dihli a retired life. The Khān Khánān visited him in 1003.

130. Shaykh Abdu 'l-Wahid.

¹ Sayyid Ahmad's edition of the Tuzuk (p. 91, 1, 11 from below) mentions that Jahangir when a child read the Hadis under 's Shaykh SAbda' 'l-Ghani, whose fate is related in the Abburnams.' This is a mistake for SAbda' 'n-Nabi (No. 118).

He was born in Bilgram, and is the author of a commentary to the Nuzhatu'l-Arwāḥ, and several treatises on the technical terms (intilahāt) of the Ṣūfīs, one of which goes by the name of Sanābil.

131. Şadr-i Jahan. Vide No. 194, p. 522.

132. Mawlana Ismasil. Vide above, No. 12.

The Tabaqatmentions a Mulla Ismaçil Mufti of Lahor, and a Mulla Ismaçil of Awadh.

133. Mullā Abdu 'l-Qādir.

This is the historian Badă onī. Abū 'l-Fazl also calls him Mullā in the Akbarnāma.

134. Mawlana Şadr Jahan.

This seems a repetition of No. 131.

135. Shaykh Jawhar.

136. Shaykh Munawwar.

Vide p. 112. He was born at Lähor, and was noted for his memory and learning. He is the author of commentaries to the Mashāriq"'l-anwār (Ḥadīṣ), the Budīṣ"'l-bayān, the Irshād-i Qāẓī, etc. When the learned were banished from court, he was imprisoned in Gwāliyār, where he died in 1011.

His son, Shaykh Kabīr, was also renowned for his learning. He died in 1026, in Aḥmadābād, and was buried in the mausoleum of the great Aḥmadābādī saint Shāh ʿĀlam. Mirʿāt.

137. Qāzī Ibrāhīm.

Vide pp. 181, 183, 198. Budā*onī and the Tabaqāt mention a Ḥājī Ibrāhīm of Āgra, a teacher of the Ḥadīs.

138. Mawlana Jamal. Vide above, No. 127.

139. Bijai Sen Sür.

140. Bhan Chand.

Atin 30 (continued)

THE POETS OF THE AGE.

I have now come to this distinguished class of men and think it right to say a few words about them. Poets strike out a road to the inaccessible realm of thought, and divine grace beams forth in their genius. But many of them do not recognize the high value of their talent, and barter it away from a wish to possess inferior store: they pass their time in praising the mean-minded, or soil their language with invectives against the wise. If it were not so, the joining of words were wonderful indeed; for by this means lofty ideas are understood.

He who joins words to words, gives away a drop from the blood of his heart.1

Every one who strings words to words, performs, if no miracle, yet a wonderful action.2

I do not mean a mere external union. Truth and falsehood, wisdom and foolishness, pearls and common shells, though far distant from each other, have a superficial similarity. I mean a spiritual union; and this is only possible in the harmonious, and to recognize it is difficult, and to weigh it still more so.

For this reason his Majesty does not care for poets; he attaches no weight to a handful of imagination. Fools think that he does not care for poetry, and that for this reason he turns his heart from the poets. Notwithstanding this circumstance, thousands of poets are continually at court, and many among them have completed a diwan, or have written a masnawi. I shall now enumerate the best among them,

1. Shaykh Abū 'l-Fayz-i Fayzī.

(Vide p. 548.)

He was a man of cheerful disposition, liberal, active, an early riser. He was a disciple of the emperor, and was thus at peace with the whole world. His Majesty understood the value of his genius, and conferred upon him the title of Malik" 'sh-shu'arā or king of the poets.3 He wrote for nearly forty years under the name of Fayzi, which he afterwards, under divine inspiration, changed to Fayyāzī, as he himself says in his "Nal Daman ":--

Before this, whenever I issued anything,

The writing on my signet was "Fayzī".

But as I am now chastened by spiritual love,

I am the "Fayyazi" of the Ocean of Superabundance (God's love).4 His excellent manners and habits cast a lustre on his genius He was

emperor spoke, the courtiers used to lift up their hands, and cry "karamat, karamat", "a miracle, a miracle, he has spoken!" De Laët.

1 Chazali of Mashhad (vide below, the fifth poet) was the first that obtained this title. After his death, Fayzi got it. Under Jahängir Tälib of Åmul was malik" sh-shucard, and under Shahjahan, Muhammad Jan Qudal and, article him, Abu Tālib Kalim. Awrangzīb hated poetry as much as he hated history and music.

Fay; is an Arabic word meaning "abundance"; Fay; would be a man who has abundance or gives abundantly. Fayyer is the intensive form of Foyri, giving superabundantly. Fayyari, originally, is the abstract noun," the act of giving superabundantly," and then becomes a title.

The form of fayyāzī agrees with the form of fAllamī hbū 'l-Faxl's takhallus, and some historians, as Badas on!, have maintained that the mere form suggested the change of Fours

to Payyesi.

¹ i.e., gives men something valuable. ² Saints perform wonderful actions (bardmat), prophets perform miracles (mucjiadt) Both in miracles, but the kurumature less in degree than the muffizat. Whenever the

eminently distinguished in several branches. He composed many works in Persian and Arabic. Among others he wrote the Sawatis "l-ilham 1 (" rays of inspiration"), which is a commentary to the Qurfan in Arabic. in which he only employed such letters as have no dots. The words of the Sürat" 'l-ikhläs contain the date of its completion.

He looked upon wealth as the means of engendering poverty,3 and adversity of fortune was in his eyes an ornament to cheerfulness. door of his house was open to relations and strangers, friends, and foes; and the poor were comforted in his dwelling. As he was difficult to please, he gave no publicity to his works, and never put the hand of request to the forehead 4 of loftiness. He cast no admiring glance on himself. Genius as he was, he did not care much for poetry, and did not frequent the society of wits. He was profound in philosophy; what he had read with his eyes was nourishment for the heart. He studied medicine deeply, and gave poor people advice gratis.

The gems of thought in his poems will never be forgotten. Should leisure permit, and my heart turn to worldly occupations, I would collect some of the excellent writings of this unrivalled author of the age, and gather, with the eye of a jealous critic, yet with the hand of a friend, some of his verses.5 But now it is brotherly love—a love which does

I have not seen a copy of this work. It is often confounded with the Maudrid-'I kilam, because the latter also is written be augus, without the use of dotted letters. The Mandrid was printed at Calcutta in A.H. 1241, by the professors of the Madraea and Maulawi Muhammad SAll of Rampur, It contains sentences, often pithy on the words Islam, salam. Silm" 'l-kalam, Adam, Muhammad, kalam" 'llah, ahle 'llah, etc., and possesses little interest. Fayzi displays in it his lexicographical abilities.

I This is the 112th chapter of the Qurada, which commences with the words Qui have 'allah" ahad. The letters added give 1002; Fayzi, therefore, wrote the book two years before his death. This clever tarith was found out by Mir Haydar Musamma's of Käshan, poetically styled Rafisi. Vide below the 31st poet.

3 i.e., the more he had, the more he gave away, and thus he became poor, or, he

considered that riches make a man poor in a spiritual sense.

4 Tarak, properly the crown of the head. Putting the hand upon the crown of the head is an old form of the salars. Abu 1-Fact wishes to say that Fayti as never mean enough to ask for favours or presents.

Abt. 'I-Fazl kept his promise, and concerted, two years after Faysi's death, the stray leaves of the Markaz" Ladioar (p. 549) regarding which the curious will find a notice by Abu 'l-Fast in the 3rd book of his Makfuldt. The same book contains an elegy on Faysi's

doath.

MSS, of Fayşi's Nal Daman are very numerous. His Diwan, exclusive of the Quadrid, was lithographed at Dihli, in a.m. 1261, but has been long out of print. It ends with a Rulasi (by Faysi), which shows that the words Dieds i Faysi contain the strike, i.e., A.R. 971, much too early a date, as he was only born in 954. The Mir 46 'l. C. diem says that Fayri composed 101 books, Bada uni estimates his verses at 20,000, and Abd 1-Fazi at 50,000. The Akbarnama (40th year) contains numerous extracts from Faysi's works. Daghistani says in his Rigds" sheaku Card that Faysi was a pupil of Khwaja Husayn dana'i of Mashhad, and it seems that Abû 'l-Fasi has for this reason placed Sana'i immediately after Fayri. The same writer remarks that Fayri is in Persia often wrongly called Fayel-yi Pakhini.

Many of the extracts given below are neither found in printed editions nor in MSS.

of Fayri's works.

not travel along the road of critical nicety—that commands me to write down some of his verses.

Extracts from Fayzi's Qaşidas (Odes).

- 1. O Thou, who existest from eternity and abidest for ever, sight cannot bear Thy light, praise cannot express Thy perfection.
- 2. Thy light melts the understanding, and Thy glory baffles wisdom; to think of Thee destroys reason, Thy essence confounds thought.
- 3. Thy holiness pronounces that the blood drops of human meditation are shed in vain in search of Thy knowledge: human understanding is but an atom of dust.
- 4. Thy jealousy, the guard of Thy door, stuns human thought by a blow in the face, and gives human ignorance a slap on the nape of the neck.
- 5. Science is like blinding desert sand on the road to Thy perfection; the town of literature is a mere hamlet compared with the world of Thy knowledge.
- 6. My foot has no power to travel on this path which misleads sages; I have no power to bear the odour of this wine, it confounds my knowledge.
- 7. The tablet of Thy holiness is too pure for the (black) tricklings of the human pen; the dross of human understanding is unfit to be used as the philosopher's stone.
- 8. Man's so-called foresight and guiding reason wander about bewildered in the streets of the city of Thy glory.
- 9. Human knowledge and thought combined can only spell the first letter of the alphabet of Thy love.
- 10. Whatever our tongue can say, and our pen can write, of Thy Being, is all empty sound and deceiving scribble.
- 11. Mere beginners and such as are far advanced in knowledge are both eager for union with Thee; but the beginners are tattlers, and those that are advanced are triflers.
- 12. Each brain is full of the thought of grasping Thee; the brow of Plato even burned with the fever heat of this hopeless thought.
- 13. How shall a thoughtless man like me succeed when Thy jealousy strikes down with a fatal blow the thoughts 1 of saints?
- 14. O that Thy grace would cleanse my brain; for if not, my restlessness (quirub) * will end in madness.

Literally, strikes a dagger into the livers of thy saints.
My text has fitrat; but several MSS, of Fayri's Qasidas have quirub, which signifies incipient madness, restlessness of thought.

15. For him who travels barefooted on the path towards Thy glory, even the mouths of dragons would be as it were a protection for his feet (lit. greaves).¹

16. Compared with Thy favour, the nine metals of earth are but as half a handful of dust; compared with the table of Thy mercies, the

seven oceans are a bowl of broth.

17. To bow down the head upon the dust of Thy threshold and then to look up, is neither correct in faith, nor permitted by truth.

18. Alas, the stomach of my worldliness takes in impure food like a

hungry dog, although Love, the doctor,2 bade me abstain from it.

1. O man, thou coin bearing the double stamp of body and spirit, I do not know what thy nature is; for thou art higher than heaven and lower than earth.

2. Do not be cast down, because thou art a mixture of the four elements; do not be self-complacent, because thou art the mirror of the seven realms (the earth).

3. Thy frame contains the image of the heavenly and the lower regions, be either heavenly or earthly, thou art at liberty to choose.

4. Those that veil their faces in Heaven [the angels] love thee; thou, misguiding the wise, are the fond petted one of the solar system (lit. the seven planets).

5. Be attentive, weigh thy coin, for thou art a correct balance [i.e., thou hast the power of correctly knowing thyself], sift thy atoms

well: for thou art the philosopher's stone (اكسير اكبرى).

6. Learn to understand thy value; for the heaven buys (mushkari) * thy light, in order to hestow it upon the planets.

7. Do not act against thy reason, for it is a trustworthy counsellor;

set not thy heart on illusions for it (the heart) is a lying fool.

8. Why art thou an enemy to thyself, that from want of perfection thou shouldst weary thy better nature and cherish thy senses (or tongue) !

9. The heart of time sheds its blood on thy account [i.e., the world is dissatisfied with thee]; for in thy hypocrisy thou art in speech like balm, but in deeds like a lancet.

10. Be ashamed of thy appearance; for thou pridest thyself on the

title of "sum total", and art yet but a marginal note.

Literally, Hippocrates.
 This is a pun. Mushtari also means Jupiter, one of the planets.

i.e., the terror of the mouths of dragons is even a protection compared with the difficulties on the road to the understanding of God's glory.

11. If such be the charm of thy being, thou hadst better die; for the eye of the world regards thee as an optical illusion (mukarrar).

12. O careless man, why art thou so inattentive to thy loss and thy

gain; thou sellest thy good luck and bargainest for misfortunes.

13. If on this hunting-ground thou wouldst but unfold the wing of resolution, thou wouldst be able to catch even the phænix with sparrow feathers.1

- 14. Do not be proud (farbih) because thou art the centre of the body of the world. Dost thou not know that people praise a waist (miyan) when it is thin ? *
- 15. Thou oughtest to be ashamed of thyself, when thou seest the doings of such as from zeal wander barefooted on the field of love; since thou ridest upon a swift camel [i.e., as thou hast not yet reached the higher degree of zeal, that is, of walking barefooted thou shouldst not count thy steps [i.e., thou shouldst not be proud].

16. If thou wishest to understand the secret meaning of the phrase "to prefer the welfare of others to thy own", treat thyself with poison

and others with sugar.

17. Accept misfortune with a joyful look, if thou art in the service of

Him whom people serve.

- 18. Place thy face, with the humble mien of a beggar, upon the threshold of truth, looking with a smile of contempt upon worldly riches:—
- 19. Not with the (self-complacent) smirk which thou assumest 3 in private, whilst thy worldliness flies to the east and the west.
- 20. Guard thine eye well; for like a nimble-handed thief it takes by force the jewel out of the hand of the jeweller.
- 21. Those who hold in their hand the lamp of guidance often plunder caravans on the high road.
- 22. My dear son, consider how short the time is that the star of good fortune revolves according to thy wish; fate shows no friendship.
 - 23. 4 There is no one that understands me; for were I understood,

1 i.e., thou wouldst perform great deeds.

As a hypocrite does. 4 The next vemes are fakhriya (boastful). All Persian poets write encomiums on

² Proud, in Persian farbik, pr. fat. In the East the idea of pride is suggested by stoutness and portliness. The Pun on farbik and miyan cannot be translated.

Wonderful stories are told about the mirror of Alexander the Great. He ordered his friend, the philosopher Balinas, to erect in Alexandria a tower 360 yards high. A mirror was then placed on the top of it, 7 yards in diameter, and above 21 in circumference. The mirror reflected everything that happened in the world, even as far as Constantinople.

I would continually cleave my heart and draw from it the wonderful mirrors of Alexander.

- 24. My heart is the world, and its Hindustan is initiated in the rites of idolatry and the rules of idol making [i.e., my heart contains wonderful things].
- 25. This [poem] is the masterpiece of the Greece of my mind; read it again and again; its strain is not easy.
- 26. Plunged into the wisdom of Greece, it [my mind] rose again from the deep in the land of Hind; be thou as if thou hadst fallen into this deep abyss [of my knowledge, i.e., learn from me].
- 1. The companion of my loneliness is my comprehensive genius; the scratching of my pen is harmony for my ear.
- 2. If people would withdraw the veil from the face of my knowledge, they would find that what those who are far advanced in knowledge call certainty, is with me (as it were) the faintest dawn of thought.
- 3. If people would take the screen from the eye of my knowledge, they would find that what is revelation (ecstatic knowledge) for the wise is but drunken madness for me.
- 4. If I were to bring forth what is in my mind, I wonder whether the spirit of the age could bear it.
- 5. On account of the regulated condition of my mind. I look upon myself as the system of the universe, and heaven and earth are the result of my motion and my rest.
- 6. My vessel does not require the wine of the friendship of time; my own blood is the basis of the wine of my enthusiasm [i.e., I require no one's assistance].
- 7. Why should I wish for the adulation of mean people? My pen bows down its head and performs the sijds in adoration of my knowledge.

Extracts from Fayzi's (Thazals.

- 1. Rise and ask, in this auspicious moment, a favour at my throne; in noble aspirations I excel any army.
- 2. Expect in my arena the victory of both worlds; the banner of royalty weighs down the shoulder of my love.
- 3. When I cast a favourable glance upon those that sit in the dust, even the ant from my good fortune becomes possessed of the brain of Sulayman.¹

The insignificance of the ant is often opposed to the greatness of Solomon. Once when all animals brought Solomen their present, the ant offered him the leg of a lecust as her only treasure.

4. The keepers of my door have their swords drawn; where is the desire that dares intrude on my seclusion?

5. Although I have buried my head in my hood, yet I can see both worlds; it may be that Love has woven my garment from the threads of my contemplation.

6. My eye is open and waits for the manifestation of truth; the spirit of the Universe flees before the insignia of my ecstatic bewilderment.

7. I am the simple Fayzī; if you do not believe it, look into my heart through the glass of my external form.

1. The flame from my broken heart rises upwards; to-day a fiery surge rages in my breast.

2. In the beginning of things, each being received the slate of learning [i.e., it is the appointed duty of each to learn something]; but Love has learned something from looking at me, the duties of a handmaid.

3. May the eye of him who betrays a word regarding my broken heart be filled with the blood of his own heart!

4. O Fayzī, thou dost not possess what people call gold; but yet the alchemist knows how to extract gold from thy pale cheek.

It were better if I melted my heart, and laid the foundation for a new one: I have too often patiently patched up my torn heart.

1. From the time that love stepped into my heart, nothing has oozed from my veins and my wounds but the beloved 1

2. The wings of angels have melted in the heat of my wine. Woe to the world, if a flash of lightning should some day leap from my jar [i.e., the world would come to an end, if the secret of my love were disclosed]!

من تو شدم تو من شدی من تن شدم تو جان شدی تا کس نگوید بعد ازبی من دیگرم تو دیگری

I have become thou, and thou hast become I, I am the body and thou art the soul.

Let no one henceforth say

That I am distinct from thee and thou from me.

³ The beloved has taken entire possession of the puet. He has no blood left in him; for blood is the seat of life, and he only lives in the beloved who has taken the place of his blood. The close union of the lover and the beloved is well described in the following couplet by Khusraw:-

1. Two difficulties have befallen me on the path of love; I am accused of bloodshed, but it is the beloved who is the murderer.

2. O travellers on the right road, do not leave me behind! I see far, and my eye espies the resting place.

I walk on a path [the path of love], where every footstep is concealed; I speak in a place where every sigh is concealed.

Although life far from thee is an approach to death, yet to stand at a distance is a sign of politeness.

- 1. In this world there are sweethearts who mix salt with wine, and yet they are intoxicated.
- 2. The nightingale vainly pretends to be a true lover; the birds on the meadow melt away in love and are yet silent.
- 1. My travelling companions say, "O friend, be watchful; for caravans are attacked suddenly."
- 2. I answer, "I am not careless, but alas! what help is there against robbers that attack a watchful heart?"
- 3. A screne countenance and a vacant mind are required, when thou art stricken by fate with stripes from God's hand.
- 1. The cupbearers have laid hold of the goblet of clear wine; they made Khizr thirst for this fiery fountain.
- 2. What wine could it have been that the cupbearer poured into the goblet? Even Masih and Khizr are envious (of me) and struggle with each other to possess it.

* Salt is an antidote against drunkenness. "Wine 'stands for beauty, "salt " for "wit". The nightingale is in love with the rose, but sings in order to lighten its heart; the birds of the meadows, however, which are in love with the nightingale, show a deeper

love, as they remain silent and hide their love-grief.

Love is compared to robbers. The wor of love ought to be endured as a visitation of providence.

A sigh indicates that a man is in love; hence if the sigh is a stranger [i.e., does not appear], the love will remain a secret. Eastern puets frequently say that love loses its purity and value, if it becomes known. The true lover bears the pange of love, and is silent; the weak lover alone betrays his secret. Hence the nightingale is often found fault with: it pours forth its plaintive songs to the rose, it habbles the whole night, instead of silently fixing its eye on the beauty of the rose, and dying without a marmur.

[&]quot; Mach (the " Mentich ") and Khizr (Elies) tasted the water of life (46 i hepth). Witealso is a water of life, and the wine given to the post by the pretty boy who sets as expbearer is so reviving that event Messiah and Khizr would fight for it.

Ask not to know the components of the antidote against love: they put fragments of diamonds into a deadly poison.1

For me there is no difference between the ocean (of love) and the shore (of safety); the water of life (love) is for me the same as a dreadful poison.

- I. Fayzī, have not quite left the caravan of the pilgrims, who go to the Kasba; indeed, I am a step in advance of them.*
- 1. How can I complain that my travelling companions have left me behind, since they travel along with Love, the caravan chief?
- 2. O, that a thousand deserts were full of such unkind friends! They have cleared the howdah of my heart of its burden.3
- 1. I am the man in whose ear melodies attain their perfection, in whose mouth wine obtains its proper temper.
- 2. I show no inclination to be beside myself; but what shall I do, I feel annoyed to be myself.
- 1. Do not ask how lovers have reached the heavens; for they place the foot on the battlement of the heart and leap upwards.
- 2. Call together all in the universe that are anxious to see a sight: they have erected triumphal arches with my heart-blood in the town of Beauty.
- 1. Those who have not closed the door on existence and non-existence reap no advantage from the calm of this world and the world to come.
- 2. Break the spell which guards thy treasures; for men who really know what good luck is have never tried their good fortune with golden chains.4

4 To the true Saff existence and non-existence are indifferent; he finds rest in

Him. But none can find this rest unless he gives away his riches.

[!] Vide, p. 573, note 4. Fragments of diamonds when swallowed teat the liver and thus cause death. Hence poison mixed with diamond dust is sure to kill. This is the case with every antidote against luve: it does not heal, it kills.

Paysl is ahead of his co-religionists.

The beloved boy of the poet has been carried off. Fayri tries to console himself with the thought that his heart will now be free. But his jealousy is ill concealed; for he calls the people unkind that have carried off his beloved

The bright sun knows the black drops of my pen, for I have carried my book $(bay\bar{a}z)$ to the white dawn of morn.

O Fayzī, is there anyone in this world that possesses more patience and strength than he who can twice walk down his street?

Desires are not to be found within my dwelling-place; when thou comest, come with a content heart.

Renounce love; for love is an affair which cannot be satisfactorily terminated. Neither fate nor the beloved will ever submit to thy wishes.

- 1. Come, let us turn towards a pulpit of light, let us lay the foundation of a new Kasba with stones from Mount Sinai!
- 2. The wall (hafim) of the Ka^cba is broken, and the basis of the qibla is gone, let us build a faultless fortress on a new foundation!
- 1. Where is Love, that we might melt the chain of the door of the Kacba, in order to make a few idols for the sake of worship.
- 2. We might throw down this Kasoa which Hajjāj has erected, in order to raise a foundation for a (Christian) monastery.
- 1. How long shall I fetter my heart with the coquettishness of beautiful boys? I will burn this heart and make a new, another heart.
- 2. O Fayzī, thy hand is empty, and the way of love lies before thee, then pawn the only thing that is left thee, thy poems, for the sake of obtaining the two worlds.

How can I approve of the blame which certain people attach to

¹ Observe the pun in the text on saudd, loyds, and mucuroude.

^{*} The street where the lovely boy lives. San anyone walk in the street of love, without losing his patience?

⁴ If the kuSbs (the temple of Makkah) were pulled down, lalam would be pulled down; for Muhammadans would have no qibbs left, i.e., no piece where to turn the face in prayer.

⁴ When a man is in love, he losse his faith, and becomes a hight. Thus Khusraw saye—Kafir-s Giologom, more susselment darber relet, etc., "I am in love and have become an infidel—what do I want with Islam?" So Fayel is in love, and has turned such an infidel, that he would make hely furniture into idols, or build a cloister on the ground of the hely temple.

Zulaykhā? It would have been well if the backbiting tongues of her slanderers had been cut instead of their hands.1

I cannot show ungratefulness to Love. Has he not overwhelmed me with—sadness and sadness?

I cannot understand the juggler trick which love performed: it introduced Thy form through an aperture so small as the pupil of my eye into the large space of my heart, and yet my heart cannot contain it.

Flee, fate is the raiser of battle-fields; the behaviour of the companions is in the spirit of (the proverb) "hold it (the jug) oblique, but do not spill (the contents)." *

My intention is not to leave my comrades behind. What shall I do with those whose feet are wounded, whilst the caravan travels fast onwards?

This night thou tookest no notice of me, and didst pass by; Thou receivedst no blessing from my eyes, and didst pass by. The tears, which would have caused thy hyacinths to bloom, Thou didst not accept from my moistened eve, but didst pass by.

- 1. On the field of desire, a man need not fear animals wild or tame: in this path thy misfortunes arise from thyself.
- 2. O Love, am I permitted to take the banner of thy grandeur from off the shoulder of heaven, and put it on my own?
- 1. O Fayzī, I am so high-minded that fate finds the arm of my thought leaning against the thigh of the seventh heaven.

made cuts into their hands with the knives which Zulaykhā had placed before them.

* Fate leads you into danger (love); avoid it, you cannot expect help from your friends, they merely give you uncless advice.

"You may hold (the jug) crooked, but do not spill (the contents)" is a proverb, and expressed that A allows B to do what he wishes to do, but adds a condition which B cannot fulk! The friends tall Provides to make the proverby that he may be the proverby the file of the friends tall Provides to make the proverby the proverby the provides t cannot fulfil. The friends tell Fayri that he may fall in love, but they will not let him have the boy.

When Zulaykhā, wife of Potiphar, had fallen in love with Yūauf (Joseph), she became the talk of the whole town. To take revenge, she invited the women who had spoken ill of her to a feast, and laid a sharp knife at the side of each plate. While the women were sating, she summoned Yusuf. They saw his beauty and exclaimed, "Mā huse become," " He is no man (but an angel)!" and they suddenly grew so incontinent, that from lust they

- 2. If other poets [as the ancient Arabians] hung their poems on the door of the temple of Makkah, I will hang my love story on the vault of heaven.
- 1. O cupbearer Time, cease doing battle! Akbar's glorious reign rolls along, bring me a cup of wine:
- 2. Not such wine as drives away wisdom, and makes fools of those who command respect, as is done by fate.
- 3. Nor the harsh wine which fans in the conceited brain the fire of foolhardiness on the field of battle:
- 4. Nor that shameless wine which cruelly and haughtily delivers reason over to the Turk of passion;
- 5. Nor that fiery wine the heat of which, as love-drunken eyes well know, melts the bottles (the hearts of men):—
- 6. But that unmixed wine the hidden power of which makes Fate repent her juggling tricks (i.e., which makes man so strong, that he vanquishes fate);
- 7. That clear wine with which those who constantly worship in cloisters sanctify the garb of the heart;
- 8. That illuminating wine which shows lovers of the world the true path;
- 9. That pearling wine which cleanses the contemplative mind of fanciful thoughts.

In the assembly of the day of resurrection, when past things shall be forgiven, the sins of the Kasha will be forgiven for the sake of the dust of Christian churches.¹

- 1 Behold the garb of Fay4i's magnanimity! Angels have mended its hem with pieces of the heaven.
- 2. The most wonderful thing I have seen is Fayzi's heart, it is at once the pearl, the ocean, and the diver.

The look of the beloved has done to Favzi what no mortal enemy would have done.

¹ The sine of Islām are as worthless as the dust of Christianity. On the day of resurrection, both Muhammadans and Christians will see the vanity of their religious destrines. Men fight about religion on earth; in heaven they shall find out that there is only one true religion, the worship of God's Spirit.

1. The travellers who go in search of love are on reaching it no longer alive in their howdas; unless they die, they never reach the shore of this ocean (love).

2. Walk on, Fayzī, urge on through this desert the camel of zeal; for those who yearn for their homes [earthly goods] never reach the

sacred enclosure, the heart.

The dusty travellers on the road to poverty seem to have attained nothing; is it perhaps because they have found there [in their poverty] a precious jewel?

1. In the beginning of eternity some love-glances formed mirrors, which reduced my heart and my eye to a molten state [i.e., my heart and eye are pure like mirrors].

2. What attractions lie in the curls of idols, that the inhabitants of the two worlds [i.e., many people] have turned their face [from ideal] to

terrestrial love ?

3. If a heart goes astray from the company of lovers, do not inquire after it; for whatever is taken away from this caravan, has always been brought back [i.e., the heart for a time did without love, but sooner or later it will come back and love].

It is not patience that keeps back my hand from my collar; but the collar is already so much torn, that you could not tear it more.¹

- 1. If Layli * had had no desire to be with Majnun, why did she uselessly ride about on a camel?
- 2. If anyone prevents me from worshipping idols, why does he circumambulate the gates and walls in the Haram [the temple of Makkah]?
- 3. Love has robbed Fayzī of his patience, his understanding, and his sense; behold, what this highway robber has done to me, the caravan chief!

When Love reaches the emporium of madness, he builds in the desert triumphal arches with the shifting sands.

A lover has no patience; hence he tears the collar of his coat,

Each man shows in his own peculiar way that he is in love. Laylf rode about in a restless way; some people show their love in undergoing the fatigues of a pilgrimage to Makkah; I worship idols.

1. Take the news to the old man of the tavern on the eve of the 'I'd,' and tell him that I shall settle to-night the wrongs' of the last thirty days.

2. Take Fayzī's Dīwān to bear witness to the wonderful speeches of

s free-thinker who belongs to a thousand sects.

1. I have become dust, but from the odour of my grave, people shall know that man rises from such dust.

2. They may know Fayzi's a end from his beginning: without an equal he goes from the world, and without an equal he rises.

O Love, do not destroy the Ka^cba; for there the weary travellers of the road sometimes rest for a moment.

Extracts from the Rubācis.

He [Akbar] is a king whom, on account of his wisdom, we call zuf unum [possessor of the sciences], and our guide on the path of religion.

Although kings are the shadow of God on earth, he is the emanation of God's light. How then can we call him a shadow?

He is a king who opens at night the door of bliss, who shows the road at night to those who are in darkness.

Who even by day once beholds his face, sees at night the sun rising in his dream.

If you wish to see the path of guidance as I have done, you will never see it without having seen the king.

⁸ Done by me by not having fasted.

گری هدیک خوانست ای شد دری رواست ازای گفته حاجتم مذیل و بآیه لبست تو ماید خطالی و این همهو آغناب روشن بد که هیچ یکی را دو مایه لبست

The Gids 'l.fier, or least, after the thirty days of fasting in the month Ramagan. Faysi, like a bad Muhammadan, has not lasted, and now intends to drink wine (which is forbidden), and thus make up for his neglect.

^{*} Fayel means the heart.

4 A similar verse is accribed by the author of the Mir. * At 'I-C Alam to the poet Yahya of Kashan, who, during the reign of Shahjahan was occupied with a poetical paraphress of the Padishahadma.

If I call thee, a king of Islam " one without equal" it is but right, I require neither proof nor verse for this statement.

Thou art the shadow of God, and like daylight;
It is clear that no one has two shadows.

Thy old-fashioned prostration is of no advantage to thee-see Akbar, and you see God.1

O king, give me at night the lamp of hope, bestow upon my taper the everlasting ray!

Of the light which illuminates the eye of Thy heart,2 give me an atom, by the light of the sun!

No friend has ever come from the unseen world; from the caravan of non-existence no voice has ever come.

The heaven is the bell from which the seven metals come, and yet no sound has ever come from it notwithstanding its hammers.

In polite society they are silent; in secret conversation they are screened from the public view.

When you come to the thoroughfare of Love, do not raise dust, for there they are all surma-sellers.4

Those are full of the divine who speak joyfully and draw clear wine without goblet and jar.

Do not ask them for the unaments of science and learning; for they are people who have thrown fire on the book.5

O Fayzi, go a few steps beyond thyself, go from thyself to the door, and place thy furniture before the door.

Shut upon thyself the folding door of the eye, and then put on it two hundred locks of eyelashes.

O Fayzi, the time of old age has come, look where thou settest thy feet. If thou puttest thy foot away from thy eyelashes, put it carefully.

This is a strong apotheosis, and reminds one of similar expressions used by the poets of imperial Rome.

Kings receive a light immediately from God; vide p. III of Abū 'l-Faşl's Preface,
 Muhrahē, pl. of muhru, according to the Bahār-i ÇAjam, the metal ball which was dropped, at the end of every hour, into a large metal oup made of heft josh (a mixture of seven metals), to indicate the time. The metal cups are said to have been in use at the courts of the ancient kings of Persia.

⁴ Lovers are silent in polite society. Surms is the well-known preparation of lead or antimosy, which is applied to eyes to give them lustre.

⁶ The disciples of Akbla's divine faith have burnt the Qurfan. They are different from the Sulama fusala, the learned of the age,

Articles to be conveyed away are placed before the door immediately before the inmates travel away. Fayst wishes to leave the house of his old nature.

A pair of glass spectacles avails nothing, nothing. Cut off a piece from thy heart,1 and put it on thine eye.

A sigh is a zephyr from the hyacinth bed of speech, and this zephyr has spread a throne for the lord of speech.

I sit upon this throne as the Sulayman of speech; hear me speaking the language of birds.2

O Lover, whose desolate heart grief will not leave, the fever heat will not leave the body, as long as the heart remains!

A lover possesses the property of quick-ilver, which does not lose its restlessness till it is kushta.3

O Fayzi, open the ear of the heart and the eye of sense; remove thy eve and ear from worldly affairs.

Behold the wonderful change of time, and close thy lip; listen to the enchanter Time and shut thy eye.

What harm can befall me, even if the ranks of my enemies attack me ? They only strike a blow on the ocean with a handful of dust.

I am like a naked sword in the hand of fate; he is killed that throws himself on me.

To day I am at once both clear wine and dregs; I am hell, paradise, and purgatory.

Any thing more wonderful than myself does not exist; for I am at once the ocean, the jewel, and the merchant.

Before I and thou were thought of, our free will was taken from our hands.

Be without cares, for the maker of both worlds settled our affairs long before I and thou were made.

He held the office of a magistrate and turned to poetry He made himself widely known. His manners were simple and pure.

Solomon understood the language of the birds.

¹ For thy heart is pure and transparent.

³ Kushta, pr. killed, is propared quicksilver, as used for looking-glasses. The lovermust die before he can find rest.

⁴ My text has erbibi. Arbib is the plural of rubb, and is used in Persian as a singular in the sense of balleter, or risk-seffe, the head man of a place, Germ, Amtmann; hence arbibl, the office of a magistrate.

2. Khwaja Husayn Sana²i of Mashhad. 1

- 1. My speech is the morning of sincere men; my tongue is the sword of the morning of words.
- 2. It is clear from my words that the Ruh" 'l-auds is the nurse of the Maryam of my hand [composition].2
- 3. It is sufficient that my pen has made my meanings fine, a single dot of my pen is my world.
- 4. In short, words exist in this world of brief duration, and my words are taken from them.
- 5. No one on the day of resurrection will get hold of my garment except passion, which numbers among those whom I have slain.

When thou goest out to mingle in society at evening, the last ray of the sun lingers on thy door and thy walls, in order to see thee.

- 1. In the manner of beauty and coquetry, many fine things are to be seen (as for example) cruel ogling and tyrannical flirting.
- 2. If I hold up a mirror to this strange idol, his own figure does not appear to his eye, as something known to him.3
- 3. If, for example, thou sittest behind a looking-glass, a person standing before it would see his own face with the head turned backwards.4
- 4. If, for example, an ear of corn was to receive its water according to an agreement made with thee [O miser], no more grain would ever be crushed in the hole of a mill.
- 1. A sorrow which reminds lovers of the conversation of the beloved. is for them the same as sweet medicine.

¹ The author of the Atashkada yi Azar says that Khwaja Husayn was the son of Cinayat Mirza and was in the service of Sultan Ibrahim Mirza Safawi. But in his own Diwan he is said to describe himself as the son of Ghiya, d-Din Muhammad of Mashhad, and the salue of the Atashkada is a bad reading for white.

Regarding his poems the same author says, "e.ther no one understands the meaning of his verses, or his verses have no meaning"—a critical remark which Abū 'l-Faşl's extracts confirm. Neither does Badá oni (III, 208) think much of his verses, though he does not deny him poetical genius. The Tabagát again praises his poems. The Mirade 'l-Salam says that "he was in the service of Ibrāhim Mirzā, son of Shāh Tahmāsp. On the accersion of Shah GIsmaGil II, SanaGi presented an ode, but IsmaGil was offended, as the poem did not mention his name, and accused the poet of having originally written it in honour of Ibrahim Mirza. Sanas fied to Hindustan, and was well received at court. He died at Lahor in A.H. 1000. His Diwan Sikandarnama, and Saqinama, are well known." Sprenger ((atalogue, pp. 120, 578) says that he died in 996. The Masker-i Rabine states that his bones were taken to Mashhad by his relation Mirsa Baqir, son of Mir Carabaha. It was mentioned on p. 619, note 5, that Faysi looked upon him as his teacher.

* Rub* 'Louds, the spirit of holinus. Maryum, the Virgin Mary.

* So strange is the boy whom I love.

⁴ This verse is unintelligible to me.

- 2. I exposed the prey of my heart to death, but the huntsman has given me quarter on account of my leanness and let me run away.¹
- 3. If lovers slept with the beloved till the morning of resurrection, the morning breeze would cause them to feel the pain of an arrow.

O sober friends, now is the time to tear the collar; but who will raise my hand to my collar?

The messenger Desire comes again running, saying 4 . . .

It is incumbent upon lovers to hand over to their hearts those (cruel) words which the beloved (boy) took from his heart and put upon his tongue.

When my foot takes me to the Kacba, expect to fine me in an idol temple; for my foot goes backwards, and my goal is an illusion.

- 1. The spheres of the nine heavens cannot contain an atom of the love grief which Sanā^sī's dust scatters to the winds.
- 2. Like the sun of the heaven thou livest for all ages; every eye knows thee as well as it knows what sleep is.

3. Huznī of Ispahān.

He was an inquiring man of a philosophical turn of mind, and well acquainted with ancient poetry and chronology. He was free and easy and good hearted; friendliness was stamped upon his forehead.⁵

- 1. I search my heart all round to look for a quiet place—and, gracious God! if I do not find sorrow, I find desires.
- 2. Zulaykhā stood on the flowerbed, and yet she said in her grief that it reminded her of the prison in which a certain ornament of society [Yūsuf] dwelled.
- 3. I am in despair on thy account, and yet what shall I do with love? for between me and it (love) stands (unfulfilled) desire.

There are four verses after this in my text edition, which are unintelligible to me,
The post has no strength left in him to raise his hand to his collar. Vide p. 630, note 1.

The remaining bemistich is not clear,

Or we may read kurezem instead of girizam, when the meaning would be, "the huntaman has given me quarter on account of the leadness arising from my moulting," [This second reading is too far fetched and for practical reason may be dismissed.—P.]

The Tabaght calls him Mir Husul, and says he left Persia with the intention of paying his respects at court, but died on his way to India. His verses are pretty. The Atachheds (p. 101 of the Calcutta edition) says he was born in Junabud, and was a merchant. The Haft Iglim, says he was pupil of Qasun-1 Kāhi (the next poet).

Gabriel's wing would droop, if he had to fly along the road of love; this message (love) does not travel as if on a zephyr.

Whether a man be an Ayaz or a Maḥmūd, here (in love) he is a slave; for love ties with the same string the foot of the slave and the freeman.1

- 1. Last night my moist eye caught fire from the warmth of my heart; the lamp of my heart was burning until morning, to show you the way to me.
- 2. The power of thy beauty became perfectly known to me, when its fire fell on my heart and consumed me unknown to myself.

O Huznī, I sometimes smile at thy simplicity: thou hast become a lover, and yet expectest faithfulness from the beloved.

Don't cast loving eyes at me; for I am a withered feeble plant, which cannot bear the full radiance of the life-consuming sun [of thy beauty].

Alas! when I throw myself on the fire, the obstinate beloved has nothing else to say but "Iluznī, what is smoke like?"

I hear, Huzni, that thou art anxious to be freed from love's fetters. Heartless wretch, be off; what dost thou know of the value of such a captivity!

To-day, like every other day, the simple-minded Huznī was content with thy false promises, and had to go.

Qasim-i Kahi.2

He is known as Miyan Kali. He knew something of the ordinary sciences and lived quiet and content. He rarely mixed with people in high position. On account of his generous disposition, a few low men had gathered round him, for which reason well-meaning people who did not know the circumstances, often upbraided him. Partly from his

Ayaz was a slave of Mahmud of Ghazni, and is proverbial in the Rast forfaithfulness.

There are several Masnawis entitled Mahmud o Ayas.

**Xahi, "grassy," is his takhallus. Bada*oni (III, 172) says that his verses are crude and the ideas stolen from others; but yet his poems are not without merit. He was well read in the exegesis of the Qur^4 an, in astronomy, mysticism, and the sciences which go by the name of kaldm; he wrote on music, and was clever in thright and riddles. He had visited several Shaykhs of renown, among them the great poet Jami (died a.m. 899). But he was a free thinker and was fond of the company of wandering faqirs, prostitutes, and sedomites. "He also loved dogs, a habit which he may have contracted from Fayyl."

own love of independence, partly from the indulgence of his Majesty, he counted himself among the disciples and often foretold future events.

A low-minded man must be he who can lift up his hand for terrestrial goods in prayer to God's throne.

If lovers counted the hours spent in silent grief, their lives would appear to them longer than that of Khizr.¹

Wherever thou goest, I follow thee like a shadow; perhaps, in course of time, thou wilt by degrees cast a kind glance at me.

1. When I saw even elephants attached to my beloved, I spent the coin of my life on the road of the elephant.

Kāhī wrote a Magnawi, entitled gul-afshān, a reply or jawāb, to the Bostān, and completed a diwān. An ode of his is mentioned in praise of Humāyān and the Astrolabe,

He is said to have died at the advanced age of 120 years.

The Assahbada-yi Azar (Calcutta edition, p. 250) calls him "Miraš Abū 'l-Qšaim of Kābul', and says that he was born in Turkistān, and brought up in Kābul. One of his ancestors paid his respects to Timur, accompanied the army of that conqueror, and settled at last in Turkistān. Kāhi was well received by Humāyūn.

The same work calls him a Gulistans Sayvid -- a term not known to me. Hence, instead

of " Mirsä" we should read " Mir".

The Haft Iglim has a lengthy note on Kähl. Amin of Ray (p. 512) says that Kähl's name is Sayyid Najms 'd-Din Muhammad, his kunya being Abū 'l-Qāsim. When fifteen years old, he visited Jāmī, and afterwards Hāshimī of Kirmān, who was called Shāh Jahāngīr. He went viā Bhakkar to Hindūstān. Whatever he did, appeared awkward to others. Though well read, he was a puglist, and would not mind fighting ten or even twenty at a time, and yet he victorious. No one excelled him in running He followed no creed or doctrine, but did as the Khwājas do, whose formula is "hosh der dam, nagar har qudam, khalisat dar anjumam, anfar dar uestam," Be careful in your speech; look where you set the foct; withdraw from society; travel when you are at home." He was liberal to a fault, and squandered what he got. For an ode in praise of Akbar, in every verse of which the word fil, or elephant, was to occur (Abū 'l-Faul has given three verses of 15), Akbar gave him one lae of tankaha, and gave orders that he should get a present of one thousand rupees as often as he should come to court. He did not like this, and never went to court again. He lived long at Fanāras, as he was fond of Bahādur Khān (No. 22), Subsequently, he lived at Āgra, where he died. His grave was near the gate—my MS, calls it bushes! He died on the 2nd Rabī's II, 968. Fayuf's tārīth (Rubā's! metre):—

تاریخ رفات مال و ماهش جمعم گفتاً فوم از ماه رفیع الثانی

gives 2nd Rabis II. 978, unless we read موم for موم. Mawlānā Qāmm of Bulhārā, a pupil of Kāhi expressed the stirih by the words:—
رفت ما تاسم کاهی

p. 5; and above, p. 219.

Abū 'l-Faşl calls him Miyda Kālī. Mivānkāl (vide p. 615) is the name of the hills between Samarqand and Bughārā.

1 Khisr is the "Wandering Jew" of the Rast.

* A verse often quoted to this day in India.

[&]quot;Mulla Olaim-i Kähl died." which gives 988. Fide also Iqbalnama-yi Jakangivi, p. 5; and above, p. 219.

2. Wherever I go I, like the elephant, throw dust on my head, unless I see my guide above my head.

3. The elephant taming king is Jalālu 'd-Dīn Muḥammad Akbar, he

who bestows golden elephants upon his poets.

1. O friend, whose tongue speaks of knowledge divine, and whose heart ever withdraws the veil from the light of truth,

2. Never cherish a thought of which thou oughtest to be ashamed, never utter a word for which thou wouldst have to ask God's pardon.

5. Ghazāli of Mashhad.1

He was unrivalled in depth of understanding and sweetness of language, and was well acquainted with the noble thoughts of the Şūfis.

I heard a noise and started from a deep sleep, and stared—the awful night had not yet passed away—I fell again asleep.*

Beauty leads to fame, and love to wretchedness. Why then do you speak of the cruelties of the sweetheart and the faults of the miserable lover?

Since either acceptance or exclusion awaits all in the world to come, take care not to blame anyone; for this is blameworthy.

the metre of some of his ghazais should prove the double z.

Bada on relates a story that Khan Zaman sent him one thousand rupees to the Dakhin with a couplet, for which wide Bad. III, 170, where the sar-i thad refers to the in

Chasăii's name, because a stands for 1,000,

¹ Badā^soni (III, 170) says that the charalified from Franto the Dakhin, because people wished to kill him for his heretical opinions. He was called by Khān Zamān (No. 13, p. 335) to Jaunpūr, where he lived for a long time. He afterwards went to court, and was much liked by Akbar, who conferred upon him the title of Malike 'sh-ShuCara. He accompanied the emperor in the Gujrāt war, and died suddenly on the 27th Rajab, 980. At Akbar's orders, he was buried at Sarkach, near Ahmadābād. Fayşi's elever tārīb on his death is عنده بعد وهناه. "the year 980." At his death he left a fortune of 20 lacs of rupees.

The Mir² at l'-ÇÂlam mentions two books written by him, entitled Asrar-i Maktam and Rashahāt 'l-ḥayāt to which the Haft Iqlim adds a third, the Mir² at a 'l-Kâynāt. Badā oni and the Mir² at estimate his verses at 40 to 50,000; the Haft Iqlim at 70,000; the Tabaqāt Akbari, at 100,000. The Atashkada-yi Azar (p. 122) says that he wrote sixteen books containing 4,000 verses, and that he fied from Persia during the reign of Tahmāsp-i Ṣafawi. Vide Sprenger's Catalogue, pp. 61, 141, where particulars will be found regarding (hazāli's works. Sprenger calls him (hazāli, an unusual form, even if the metre of some of his shazals should prove the double z.

The Haft Iqlim mentions another Ghazāli

This is to be understood in a mystic sense. Badd oni (III, 171) says that he had not found this verse in Ghazāli's Diwān.

1. O Chazali, I shun a friend who pronounces my actions to be good, though they are bad.

2, I like a simple friend, who holds my faults like a looking-glass

before my face.

- 1. In love no rank, no reputation, no science, no wisdom, no genealogical tree is required.
- 2. For such a thing as love is, a man must possess something peculiar: the sweetheart is jealous—he must possess decorum.
- 1. The king says, "My cash is my treasure." The Şūfī says, "My tattered garment is my woollen stuff."
- 2. The lover says, "My grief is my old friend." I and my heart alone know what is within my breast.
- 1. If thy heart, whilst in the Kasba, wanders after something else, thy worship is wicked, and the Kasba is lowered to a cloister.
- 2. And if thy heart rests in God, whilst thou art in a tavern, thou mayest drink wine, and yet be blessed in the life to come.

SUrfi of Shiraz 1

The forehead of his diction shines with decorum, and possesses a peculiar grace. Self-admiration led him to vanity, and made him speak lightly of the older classics. The bud of his merits withered away before it could develop itself.

¹ The Ma²deir-i Rabimi (MS. As. Suc. Bengal, p. 537) says that Ciri's name was Khwāja Sayyidi (سومي) Muhammad. The takhallus Cirii has a reference to the occupation of his father, who as Darogha to the Magintrate of Shiraz had to look after Sharff and Curff matters. He went by sea to the Dakhin, where according to the Haft Iglim his talent was not recognized; he therefore went to Fathpur Sikri, where Hakim SAbu 'l-Fath of Gilia (No. 112) took an interest at him. When the Hakim died, Curft became an attendant on CAbd" 'r Rahim Khān Khānān, and was also introduced at court. He died at Lähor, in Shawwäl, a.m. 999, according to the Haft Iglim and several MSS, of the Tabagát, of dysentery (is hal). He bequeathed his papers to his patron, in all about 14,000 verses, which at the Khān Khānān's order were arranged by Sirājā of Igfahān. He was at his death only thirty years later taken away by the post Sabir of Islahan and buried in holy ground at Najal (Serbhush). His early death, in accordance with an idea still current in the East, was accribed to the abuse he had beaped on the ancients; hence also the strigh of his death...

مرفىجرانه مرك همى "CUrff. thou didst die young." The first edition of his postical works contained 26 Qaridae, 270 (phanale, 700 Quyae and Rübliffs; work also Sprenger's Catalogue, p. 520. The Taxhira by CAH Qall Khân-, Dăghistâni calls CUrff Jamair Cd-Din, and says that

he was much liked by Prince Salim towards whom SUrff's attachment was of a criminal nature, and that he had been poisoned by people that envied him.

CUrff was a man of high talent; but he was disliked for his vanity. Badt out says

(III, 265), "His poems sell in all bassare, unlike those of Payel, who spent the revenue of

Cling to the hem of a heart which saddens at the plaintive voice of the nightingale; for that heart knows something.

If someone cast a doubt on the loftiness of the cypress, I melt away from envy; for loftiness is so desirable that even a doubtful mention of it creates envy.

He who is intimate with the morning zephyr, knows that the scent of the Jasmin remains notwithstanding the appearance of chill autumn.

My wounded heart cannot endure a healing balm; my turban's fold cannot endure the shadow of a blooming rose.

- 1. It is incumbent on me, when in society, to talk low; for the sensible people in society are stupid, and I speak but Arabic.
- 2. Remain within the boundary of thy ignorance, unless you be a Plato; an intermediate position is mirage and raving thirst.

Do not say that those who sing of love are silent; their song is too fine, and the audience have cotton in their ears.

The more I exert myself, the more I come into trouble; if I am calm, the ocean's centre is at the shore.

There is some hope that people will pardon the strange ways of SUrff for the homeliness of his well-known poems.

his jagir in getting copies made of his verses; but yet no one had a copy of them, unless it was a present made by Fayzī." Hakim Hāziq (vide under 205) preferred Curfi's ghazals to his odes. His Magnawi, MājmaC" 'l-Akbār, is often wrongly called MajmaC" 'l-Afbār.

One day Curfi calmes of "the well-bred children of his family". Fayzī replied, "Their representations of the company

names are Surfi" (i.e., well known). Mubarak (God bless us), rejoined SUrfi, to the intense diagust of Fayzi, whose father's name was Mubarak.

Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 126) states on the authority of the Tazkira Hamesha-Bahār that Ciri's name was Khwaja Saydi (ميني), a mistake for Sayyidi. The Ataskkada also gives the name only half correctly, Sayyid Muhammad. Taql's note (loc. oit., p. 37) is wrong in the dates.

There exist several lithographs of CUrfi's Odes. The Calcutta printed edition of a.m. 1254 contains a Commentary by Ahmad ibn-i CAbda 'r-Rahlm (author of the Arabic Dictionary Muntahal Arab) of Safipur.

No one has yet come into the world that can bear the grief of love; for every one has through love lost the colour of his face and turned pale.

O 'Urfi, live with good and wicked men in such a manner, that Muhammadans may wash thee (after thy death) in Zamzam water, and Hindus may burn thee.

If thou wishest to see thy faults clearly, lie for a moment in ambush for thyself, as if thou didst not know thyself.

*Urfi has done well to stand quietly before a closed door, which no one would open. He did not knock at another door.

To pine for the arrival of young spring shows narrowness of mind in me; for there are hundreds of pleasures on the heap of rubbish in the backyard, which are not met with in a rose garden.

My heart is sinking as the colour on Zalykhā's cheek when she saw herself alone; and my grief has become the talk of the market like the suspicion cast on Yūsuf.

- 1. On the day when all shall give an account of their deeds, and when the virtues of both Shaykh and Brahman shall be scrutinized,
- 2. Not a grain shall be taken of that which thou hast reaped, but a harvest shall be demanded of that which thou hast not sown.
- 1. O thou who hast experienced happiness and trouble from good and bad events, and who art in consequence full of thanks and sometimes full of complaints,
- 2. Do not take high ground, so that thy efforts may not be in vain; be rather (yielding) like grass that stands in the way of the wind, or like a bundle of grass which others carry off on their shoulders.
- 1. O SIJrff, for what reason is thy heart so joyful? Is it for the few verses which thou hast left behind?
- 2. Also! thou losest even that which thou leavest behind as something once belonging to thee. Thou oughtest to have taken it with thee; but hast thou taken it with thee!

7. Maylī of Hirāt.

His name was Mīrzā Qulī.¹ He was of Turkish extraction, and lived in the society of gay people.

Since I have become famous through my love, I shun all whom I see; for I am afraid lest my going to anyone might put thee into his thoughts.

I die and feel pity for such as remain alive; for thou art accustomed to commit such cruelties as thou hast done to me.

- 1. My heart derived so much pleasure from seeing thee, that fate—God forbid, that it should think of revenge.
- 2. Thou art neither a friend nor a stranger to me; what name is man to give to such a relation?

Thou knowest that love to thee does not pass away with the lives of thy lovers; for thou passest by the tombs of those whom thy love slew, and yet thou behavest coquettishly.

When thou biddest me go, cast one glance upon me; for from carefulness people tie a string to the foot of a bird, even if it be so tame as to eat from the hand.

My last breath is at hand! O enemy, let me have him (the lovely boy) but for a moment, so that with thousands of pangs I may restore him to thee.

- 1. I promised myself that I would be patient, and did not go to him (the boy); I had hopes to be content with loneliness.
- 2. But the woe of separation kills me, and whispers every moment to me, "This is the punishment of him who puts confidence in his patience."

He is much praised for his poetry; the author of the Atachbada says that he was one

of his favourite poets.

¹ The Naiā¹ is mentions 979 and Taqī 983, as the year in which Mayli came to India (Sprenger, Catalogue, pp. 43, 54). The Atashkada says, he was brought up in Mashhad. According to Dāghistānī, he belonged to the Jalāyr clan, lived under Tahmāsp, and was in the service of Sultān Ibrāhīm Mīrzā, after whose death he went to India. The Tabaşāt-i Akberī says that he was in the service of Nawrang Khān (pp. 334, 528); and Budā onf adda that his patron for some suspicion ordered him to be poisoned. He was in Mālwā when he was killed.

1. Thy clients have no cause to ask thee for anything; for every one of them has from a beggar become a Crossus in wealth.

2. But thou findest such a pleasure in granting the prayers of beggars,

that they make requests to thee by way of flattery.

8. Jactar Beg of Qazwin.

He is a man of profound thought, has learnt a good deal, and describes very well the events of past ages. As an accountant he is unrivalled. From his knowledge of human nature he leans to mirth and is fond of jokes. He was so fortunate to obtain the title of Aşaf Khān, and was admitted as a disciple of his Majesty.¹

I am jealous of the zephyr, but I gladden my heart with the thought that this is a rose garden, and no one can close the door in the face of the wind.

When the town could not contain the sorrows of my heart, I thought that the open country was created for my heart.

I am prepared for another interview to-night; for I have patched up my torn, torn heart.

It is the fault of my love that he [the lovely boy] is an enemy. What is love worth, if it makes no impression?

I admire the insight of my heart for its familiarity with beauties whose ways are so strange.

He came and made me confused; but he did not remain long enough for me to introduce my heart to consolation.

As I am entirely at fault, do not threaten me with revenge; for the pleasure of taking revenge on thee makes me bid my fault defiance.

1. Dost thou show me thy face so boldly, Happiness? Wait a moment, that I may announce my love-grief.

¹ His biography was given above, No. 96. Vide also Iqbilahma-yi Jakingiri, p. 5; Dubistin, p. 387. His telpholius was Jacfar, as may be seen from Abū 'l-Faul's extracte. The Magnawi by Jacfar, mentioned by Spronger (Catalogue, p. 444) may belong to Miral Zayan 'l-Chbidin, regarding whom vide above, p. 463, and Spronger, los. etc., p. 120, where for 1212 read a.z. 1081.

- 2. Jasfar came to-day so broken-hearted to thy house, that the hearts of the stones burnt on seeing his extraordinary condition.
- 1. Whoever has been in thy company for a night, is the companion of my sad fate.
- 2. Jasfar has found the road to the street of the sweetheart so difficult. that he can no more rise to his feet.

The morning zephyr, I think, waits to me the scent of a certain sweetheart, because Jacob keeps his closed eye turned towards a caravan.1

A new rose must have opened out in the garden; for last night the nightingale did not go asleep till the morning.

9. Khwaia Husayn of Marw.

He possessed many excellent qualities, and sold his encomiums at a high price. He lived at the Court of Humāyūn, and was also during this reign highly favoured.

1. The realms of speech are in my possession, the banker of speech is the jeweller of my pearl strings.

2. Creation's preface is a sheet of my book, the secrets of both worlds are in the nib of my pen.

10. Hayatī of Gīlan.3

A stream from the ocean of thought passes by his house; correctness and equity are visible on his forehead. Serenity and truth are in him united; he is free from the bad qualities of poets.

¹ Jacob had become blind from weeping over the loss of Joseph. One day he smelled the scent of Joseph's coat, which a messenger was bringing to Egypt. When the coat was applied to his eyes, he recovered his sight.

Shwaja Husayn was a pupil of Mawlana Cleams 'd Din Ibrahim and the renowned Ibn Hajar of Makkah (Haft Iqlim). Abu 'l-Faul's remark that he sold his encomiums at a high price seems to refer to Husayn's tides on the birth of Jahangir and Prince Murad,

given in full by Badå oni (II, pp. 120, 132) for which the Khwāja got two lace of tankas. The odes are peculiar, as each hemistich is a chronogram.

The Ma agir-i Rahīmī says that Mullā Ḥayātī was born at Rasht in Gliān and belonged to the ādmīzādagān, i.e., common people of the place. To better his circumstances, he went to India, was introduced by Ḥakīm Abū 'l-Fath-i Gliānī (No. 113) at Court, got a jāgīr, and was liked by Akbar. He joined the Khān Khānān in the Dahkin was and samained in his couries liming abiding at Bout in the samained in his couries liming abiding at Bout in the samained in his couries liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding at Bout in the liming abiding abiding abiding abiding at Bout in the liming abiding wars, and remained in his service, living chiefly at Burhanpür where he built a villa and a mosque, which, according to the $Mir^k kt^a$?!-CAlam was called Masjid-i Mullâ Hayûtî. He was still alive in 1024, when the $Ma^k \hat{a}_i ir$ -i Rabimi was composed.

The Tabaşêt and Badê oni praise his poems, and say that he belonged to the aki-i yêrêm-i dardmendên, i.e., he was a man of feeling and sympathy. Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 55) translates this, "He was a friend of Dardmand."

1. Whenever you speak, watch yourself; repentance follows every word which gladdens no heart.

2. You do not require the swift wing of a bird; but since fortune is so, borrow the foot of the ant and flee.

A love-sick man is so entangled in his grief, that even the wish of getting rid of it does him harm.

Whatever you see is, in some way or other, a highway robber. I know no man that has not been waylaid.

1. This is the thoroughfare of love, it is no open market, keep your lips closed, no talk is required.

2. I, too, have been among the heathens, but have seen no waist worthy of the sacred thread.

3. Covetous people are, from covetousness, each other's enemies; in friendship alone there are no rivals.

1. Let every thorn which people sow in thy road, bloom in the lustre of thy smiles.

2. Say nothing, and heal the wound of the heart with poisoned arrows.

1. My love makes me delay over everything, even if it were a scent in the house, or a colour in the bassar.

2. Thou knowest what people call me—"mad from shame, and dejected from baseness."

Since everything which I mended has broken again, my heart has gone altogether from trying to patch it.

- 1. I suffer thy cruelties and die; perhaps I thus complete my faithfulness.
- 2. Thou canst not deprive me of the means of union with thee, unless thou shuttest the zephyr in a box.

This turf and this field have a tinge of madness; insanity and drunkenness have to day a good omen.

¹ Because the sephyr waits the breath of the beloved boy to the post.

1. Love-grief is followed by an increase of sorrow, the desire to meet him is followed by bloody tears.

2. Neither the one nor the other, however, is the means of attaining love's perfection; be sound in mind, or else completely mad.

1. I am neither as high as the Pleiades, nor as low as the abyss; I neither cherish the old grief, nor do I possess a new thought.

2. If I am not the wailing nightingale, there is yet this excellence left, I am the moth and am pledged to the flame.¹

1. I am the heart-grief of my dark nights, I am the misfortune of the day of my fate.

2. Perhaps I may go a step back to myself; it is a long time that I have been waiting for myself.

11. Shikebî of Ispahan.

He possesses taste and writes well. He is acquainted with chronology and the ordinary sciences; and the purity of his nature led him to philosophical independence.

I have lived through nights of lonely sorrow, and am still alive; I had no idea of the tenaciousness of my life.

هاشقاس کشتگای معفوتند برنیاید و کشتگای آراز

"The overs are killed by the beloved, no voice rises from the killed ones "-is also

an allusio t to the love of the moth.

The Maddir-s Rabins says that Mulls Shikebi was the son of Zahire 'd-Din CAbde' lish Imami of siahan. He studied under Amir Taqiye 'd-Din Muhammad of Shiraz, but left his native town for Hirat when young, and became acquainted with the poets Sanas, Mayli, and Well Dasht Bayasi. When he was well known as a poet, he returned for a short time to Shiraz, after which he went to India, and became the constant attendant of the Khau Khanan.

The love of the moth for the candle seems to be a very ancient idea. Paalm xxxix. 11, Thou rebukest man and causest his delight to vanish as the moth vanishes in its delight, vis. the fire, where the word Kasmod seems to have been purposely chosen to allude to the love of the moth. The passage in Sa⁵di's preface to the Gulistán:—

Grief, not mirth, is my ware. Why dost thou wish to know its price? I know that thou wilt not buy it, and that I shall not sell it.

On account of the jealousy of the watcher I had resolved to stay away from thy feast. I was deceived by my bad luck and called it jealousy, and stayed away.

O God, bestow upon my wares a market from the unseen world! I would sell my heart for a single interview; vouchsafe a buyer!

Thou art warm with my love; and in order to keep off bad omens, I sit over the fire, and burn myself as wild rue.

I uprooted my heart from my being, but the burden of my heart did not leave my being. I severed my head from my body, but my shoulders did not leave my collar.

1. To-day, when the cup of union with thee is full to the brim I see Neglect sharpen the sword, in order to kill me.

2. Thou dost not dwell in my heart and hast girded thy loins with hatred towards me—ruin upon the house which raises enemies!

1. The plaintive song of my bird [heart] turns the cage to a rosebed; the sigh of the heart in which thou art, turns to a rosebed.

2. When thy beauty shines forth, covetousness also is love; straw, when going up in flames, turns to a reselved.

1. Happy are we if we come to thee, through thee, like blind men we search for thee, through thee.

2. Increase thy cruelties till the tenaciousness of my life takes revenge on me, and thy cold heart on thee.

1. The world is a game, the winning of which is a loss; playing cleverly consists in being satisfied with a low throw.

2. This earthly life is like a couple of dice—you take them up, in order to throw them down again.

I Sipend. People even nowadays put the seeds of wild rue on heated iron plates. The smoke is said to drive away evil spirits. Vide p. 146, note 1.

12. Anīsī Shāmlū.1

His real name is Yol Quli. He is a man of a happy heart and of pure manners; he is brave and sincere.

In seeking after thee, a condition is put upon us miserable lovers, viz., that our feet remain unacquainted with the hems of our garments.²

It is possible to travel along this road, even when one lightning only flashes. We blind lovers are looking for the ray of thy lamp.

If I remain restless even after my death, it is no wonder; for toil undergone during the day makes the sleep of the night restless.

- 1. How can the thought of thy love end with my death? for love is not like wine, which flows from the vessel when it is broken.
- 2. The lover would not snatch his life from the hand of death though he could. Why should the owner of the harvest take the grain from the ant?
- 1. The rosebed of time does not contain a songster like me, and yet it is from the corner of my cage that I have continually to sing.
- 2. In order satisfactorily to settle my fortune, I spent a life in hard work; but with all my mastership I have not been able to draw silk from reeds.

The nature of love resembles that of the magnet; for love first attracts the shaft, in order to wound the heart when it wishes to get rid of the point.

The Calcutta edition of the Atashkada-yi Azar (p. 19) calls him wrongly CAll Qull Beg, and his Hirst patron CAll Naqi Khan, after whose death he is said to have gone to India.

* i.e., our garments are always tucked up (Arab, tashmir), as Orientals do when walking

quickly. A lover finds no rest.

¹ The Ma*āṇr-i Raḥīmī says that Yol Quli Beg belonged to the distinguished clan of the Shāmlū Turkmāns. He was a good soldier, and served as librarian to SAli Quli Khān Shāmlū, the Persian governor of Hirāt, where he made the acquaintance of Shikebī and Mahwī. He wrote at first under the taḥhaliuş of Jāhī; but the Persian prince Salṭān Ibrāhīm Mīrzā gave him the name of Anīsī, under which he is known in literature. When Hirāt was conquered by SAbd¹ 'llāh Khān, king of Turkistan and Māwarā 'n-nahr, Anīsī was captured by an Uzbak soldier and carried off to Māwarā 'n-nahr. He then went to India, and entered the service of Mīrzā SAbd¹ 'r-Raḥīm Khān Khānān, who made him his Mīr SArz, and later his Mīr Baḥahī. He distinguished himself by his intrepidity in the war with Suhayl-i Habshī (p. 356). His military duties allowed him little leisure for poetry. He died at Burhānpūr in 1014. There exists a Magnawī by him in the Khuraw-Shīrīn metre, also a Dīwān, and several Qaşīdas in praise of the Khān Khānān.

May God preserve all men from falling into my circumstances! for my sufferings keep the rose from smiling and the nightingale from singing.

Love has disposed of me, but I do not yet know who the buyer is, and what the price is.

Anisi drinks the blood of his heart, and yet the vessel is never empty; it seems as if, at the banquet of love's grief, the red wine rises from the bottom of the goblet.

- 1. I am intoxicated with love, do not bring me wine; throw me into the fire, do not bring me water.
- 2. Whether I complain or utter reproaches, I address him alone, do not answer me!
- 1. I went away, in order to walk a few steps on the path of destruction, and to tear a few ties that bind me to existence.
- 2. I will spend a few days without companions, and will pass a few nights without a lamp till morning make its appearance.
- 1. O heart, heware! O heart, beware! Thus should it be; the hand of asking ought to be within the sleeve 1
- 2. O that I could but once catch a certain object! the hunter is for ever in the ambush.

13. Nazīrī of Nīshāpūr.*

He possesses poetical talent, and the garden of thought has a door open for him. Outwardly he is a good man; but he also devises plans for the architecture of the heart.

Every place, whether nice or not, appears pleasant to me. I either rejoice in my sweetheart, or grieve for him.

The heart should not sek, but patiently love.
Muhammad Husayn Nazīrī of Nishāpūr left his home for Kāshan, where he engaged in postical contests (muskiGara) with several posts, as Fahmi, Hatim, etc. He then went to India, where he found a patron in Mirza GAbda 'r-Rahmin Khān Khānān. In 1012, he went to Makkah on a pigrimage, after which he is said to have become very pious. On his return to India, he lived at Ahmadābād in Gujrāt, where he died in 1022. The Tunus (p. 91) says :--" I [Jahāngīr] had called Nazīri of Nīshāpūr to court. He is well known for his poems and postical genius, and lives [end of 1019] in Gujrāt where he is a merchant. He now came and presented me with an encomium in imitation of a Qasīda by Anward. I gave him one thousand rupees, a horse, and a dress of honour. 'The

If thou destroyest the ware of my heart, the loss is for once; whilst to me it would be the loss of world and faith.

If thou wilt not put my cage below the rose-tree, put it in a place where the meadow hears my plaint.

It is from kindness that he [the beautiful boy] favours me, not from love; I can distinguish between friendship and politeness.

It is a generation that I have been girding my waist in thy service, and what am I worth? I must have become a Brahman, so often have I put on the badge (the thread).

Thy blood is worth nothing, Nazīrī, be silent! Suffice it that he who slew thee, has no claim against thee.

I am costly and there are no buyers; I am a loss to myself, and am yet the ornament of the bazaar.

The impression which my sorrow makes upon him consists in depriving his heart of all sympathy; and the peculiar consequence of my reminding him of my love is that he forgets it.

Like a watch-dog I lie at his threshold; but I gnaw the whole night at my collar and think of chasing him, not of watching him.

Macagir-i Rabimi says that Nazīrī was a skilful goldsmith; and that he died, after having seen his patron in Agra in 1022 at Ahmadābād, where he lies buried in a mosque which he had bui't near his house. According to the Mir*at* 'l-Câlam, he gave what he had to his friends and the poor. How esteemed he was as a poet may be seen from a couplet by the great Persian poet Sāyib, quoted by Dāghistāni:—

مايب چه غيالست شوي همهو فظيري عرفي بلظيري لرمانيد مض را

O Sayib, what does thou think? Canes thou become like Nagiri? SUrfi even does not approach Nagiri in genius.

The Tärikh of Nazīrī's death lies in the hemistich "Azdunyā raft Hassan" 'l-SAjam, &h!"

The Hassan of Persia has gone from this world, alse!"—in allusion to the famous Arabian poet Hassan. This gives A.H. 1022-; the other tärīkh, given by Dāghistāni, markiz-i dā ira-yi basm kujā ast. "where is the centre of the circle of conviviality," only gives 1021, unless we count the hamzah in jub as one, which is occasionally done in tārīkhe. Dāghistānī also mentions a poet Sawādī of Gujrāt, a pious man, who was in Nagīrī s service. On the death of his master, he guarded his tomb, and died in A.H. 1031.

- 1. From carelessness of thought I transformed a heart, by the purity of which Kasba swore, into a Farangi Church.
- 2. The simoom of the field of love possesses so inebriating a power. that the lame wanderer thinks it sublime transport to travel on such a road.
- 3. The ship of love alone is a true resting-place; step out of it, and thou art surrounded by the stormy sea and its monsters.
- 4. Tell me which song makes the greatest impression on thy heart. so that I may utter my plaint in the same melody.

Darwish Rahram.1

He is of Turkish extraction and belongs to the Bayat tribe. The prophet Khizr appeared to him, and a divine light filled him. He renounced the world and became a water-carrier.

- 1. I have broken the foundation of austerity; to see what would come of it; I have been sitting in the bazaar of ignominy [love], to see what would come of it.
- 2. I have wickedly spent a lifetime in the street of the hermits; now I am a profligate, a wine bibber, a drunkard, to see that will come of it.
- 3. People have sometimes counted me among the pious, sometimes among the licentious; whatever they call me I am, to see what will come of it.

Sayrafi [Sarfi] of Kashmir.

His name is Shaykh Yacqub. He is well acquainted with all branches of poetry and with various sciences. He knows well the excellent writings of Ihn Arab, has travelled a good deal, and has thus become acquainted with many saints. He obtained higher knowledge under Shaykh Husayn of Khwarazm, and received from him permission to guide others.

and Nishapur. Bahram is worshipped as a saint. His mausoleum is in Bardwan near Calcutta. Regarding the poet himself and the legends connected with him, vide my "Arabic and Persian Inscriptions," Journal Asiatic Society of Bengal. 1871, pt. i, pp. 251 to 266, Shayin Husayn of Edwaram, Yafqüb's teacher, was a pupil of Muhammad Acquam Mair and Minister and

Haji, and died in Syria in 958 or 958. Shayth Yacqub also studied in Makkah for a long time under the renowned Ibn Hajar.

¹ Bahrim's takhallus is Sasqu, i.e., water-carrier. This occupation is often chosen by those who are favoured with a sight of the Prophet Khizr (Elias). Khizr generally appears se an old man dressed in green (in allusion to the meaning of the name in Arabic or to his functions as spring deity).

The Bayat tribe is a Turkish tribe scattered over Azarbayjan, Erivan, Tihran, Fam,

He stole from my heart all patience, and then took the whole mad heart itself; my thief stole the house with its whole furniture.

The weakness of the boy has brought the love-sick man into a strange position; from weakness he can no longer bear the weight of recovery.

Sabūhi, the Chaghtai.1

Once he slept in the bedroom of Amir He was born in Kābul. Khusraw, when the shining figure of an old man with a staff in his hand awoke him and ordered him to compose a poem. As he had no power of doing so, he took the whole for a vision, and lay down in another place; but the same figure woke him up, and repeated the order. The first verse that he uttered is the following:-

When I am far from thee, my tears turn gradually into an ocean. Come and see, enter the ship of my eye, and make a trip on the ocean.2

My sweetheart saw the scroll of my faith, and burnt my sad heart, so that no one afterwards might read its contents.3

- 1. I have no need to explain him my condition; for my heart, if really burning, will leave a trace behind.
- 2. Weakness has overpowered me, and my heart has sunk under its sorrow. Who shall now inform him of my wretched state ?

His takhallus is variously given as sayraft and sarft. The latter seems the correct form, to judge from the metre of one of his verses preserved by Badasont (III, 148). Both words occur as takhallus; thus there was a Qari Sayrell, encomiast of Fires

Vide also post No. 21

* The verse, notwithstanding the vision, is stolen; vide Bada onl, III, 180, under

Ātashi.

If this yerse, too, was uttered at the time he had the vision, he stole thought and words from Asafi, Jazel's pupil, who has a verse :--

دل که طومار ونا بود می محروی را بارد کردند ندانسته بنان مضمون را

as a learned man and a poet. He was liked by Humayun and by Akbar, and was an intimate friend of the historian Bada oni. His death took place on the 12th Zi Qaçda, 1003, and Bada oni found as tarikh the words Shaykh i umam bad, " he was the Shaykh of nations," A complete Khamsa, a treatise on the Musamma, or riddle, and numerous Suffictic Ruba is with a commentary, are said to have been written by him. A short time before his death, he had nearly finished a large commentary to the Que da, and had just received permission from Akbar to return to Kashmir, when he died. Vide above, p. 191, and under the poets.

Sabilit means "a man that drinks wine in the morning". The real name of the poet is not given in the Tagiras to which I have access. Badis on says that he lived an easy, unrestrained life; and the Mircate 'l-CAlam calls him a rind (profligate). He died at Agra in 973, and Fayri found as thrigh the words, "Sabuhi, the wine-tibber." Daghintānī says, he was from Samarqand, and the Atashkada calls him "Badahi shāni", but says that he is known as Huresoi, or from Hirāt.

17. Mushfiqi of Bukhārā.1

I went to his street, and whilst I was there, a thorn entered deep into the foot of my heart. Thanks be to God that I have now a reason for staying in it!

- 1. Hindūstān is a field of sugar-cane, its parrots are sugar-sellers.
- 2. Its flies are like the darlings of the country, wearing the chira and the takauchiya.

18. Sālihī.3

His name is Muhammad Mīrak. He traces his descent from Nizāmu 'l-Mulk of Tus.

Men without feeling tell me to use my hand and catch hold of his garment. If I had a hand [i.e., if I had the opportunity], I would tear my collar to pieces.

There are many reasons why I should be dead, and yet I am alive. O grief! thy forbearance has made me quite ashamed of myself.

Badd*onf (III, 326) says that he was originally from Marw, and came twice to India. For his Queldas, some called him "the Salman of the age"; and Dighistani says that under CAbdu 'lish Khan he was Malik 'sh-shudra. According to the Haft Iglim, he was born and died at Bukhārā. Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 508) says, he was born in 945, and his second Diwan was collected in 983. From the Akbarnama (Lucknow edition, III, p. 203) we see that Mushfiqi was presented to Akbar at Pak Patan in the end of 985. He died in 994 (Vámběry's Bokhara, p. 301).

⁸ This verse is a parody on the well-known (tharal, which Rafiz sent from Shiras to Sultan (thiyas of Bengel (Motre Musari).

فكر فأكن شوقد همه طوطيان هدد مین قلد بارمی که به طاقاله میرود The parrots of Ind well learn to enjoy sweets, When this Persian sugar (the poem) reaches Bengal,

Abd 'I-Fast has meddled with Mushfiqt's verse; for the Haft Iqtim gives instead of nehit and digit the words hinds and sight; hence the verse is "India's flies are (black) like the black Indians, wearing like them a big turban (Airs) and a takauchiya ". This means, of course, that the Indians are like flies. The februckiya was described above on p. 94; the big head of a fly looks like a turban, and i's straight wings like the straight Indian coat (chephen). It may be that Abd 'l-Fasl substituted the words self-fin-i diptr, the "dear ones of the country", with a satirioal reference to the "learned", whom he always calls when the country ", with a satirioal reference to the "learned", whom he always calls when the country ", but the words of the country ".

The verse is better given by Bada out (III, 329).

Baddoosf calls him" Hirawi" (from Hirat), and says that he was employed at court s a Munshi. He was a good penman. After his return to his country, he died. The Atashkada says that he was a descendent of Khwaja CAbda lish Marwarld Kirmani,

and that his family had always been employed by kings.

Spreager (Catalogue, p. 50) onlis him wrongly Muhammad Mir Boy. The Atsolhads and the MSS, have Muhammad Mirak; and thus also his name occurs in the McCagir-i

I told him [the beautiful boy] my grief, he paid no heed. Oh, did yo ever see such misery! I wept, he laughed—Oh, did you ever see succentempt!

My life is in his hand. It is quite clear, Ṣāliḥ, that even the falco Death sits tame on his hand.

19. Mazhari of Kashmir.1

He made poems from his early youth, and lived long in Iraq. From living together with good people, he acquired excellent habits.

- 1. I cannot understand the secret of Salmā's beauty; for the more you behold it, the greater becomes your desire.
- 2. What friendly look lay in Layli's eyes, that Majnun shut his ey to friends and strangers?

I admire the looking-glass which reflects my sweetheart standing of a flower-bed, although he is inside his house.

The good fortune of thy beauty has caused thy affairs to prosper else thou wouldst not have known how to manage matters successfully

- 1. Like a tail I follow my own selfish heart. Though the road is no bad, I make myself footsore.
- 2. Though I break through a hundred screens, I cannot step out myself; I wander over a hundred stages, and am still at the old place

I am a tulip of Sinai, and not like the stem-born flower. I cast flame over the slit of my collar instead of hemming it.²

He of whom my eye makes light, appears to heaven dull and heav

by flames like a flower on Mount Sinai; for Mount Sinai is surrounded by God's glory

¹.Däghistäni says that in Cirāq he was in company with Muhtashim and Wahsh After his return to India, Maxhari was employed by Akbar as Mir Bahri of Kashmi which employment he held in 1004 (Badā*oni). He had turned ShiCah, and as his father was a Sunni, both used to abuse each other. His poems are said to contain several satirable his both to the contain several satirable.

on his father. Maghari died in 1018. All Taskiras praise his poems.

The eyes of the beautiful boy are crocus-like or almond-shaped; the chin is lit an apple; the black locks, like sumbuls—in fact, his whole face resembles a garden.

The hot team of the poet fall like flames on his collar; hence he is surrounds.

20. Mahwi of Hamadan.1

His name is Mughīs. He tries to change the four mud walls of this worldly life into stone walls, and is intoxicated with the scent of freedom.

- 1. Once I did not know burning sorrow, [I did not know the sighs of a sad heart.
- 2. Love has now left neither name nor trace of me—I never thought, Love, that thou art so.
- 1. You said that my condition was low from love-grief. A cup! bring me a cup! for my heart is stagnant.
- 2. Be ashamed of thyself, be ashamed! Which is the cup and which is the wine that has inebriated the nightingale?
 - 1. O Mahwi, beckon to a friend, and ring the bell of the caravan.
- 2. The stage is yet far and the night is near. O thou who hast fettered thy own foot, lift up thy foot and proceed!
- 1. A single lover requires hundreds of experiences, hundreds of wisdoms, and hundreds of understandings.
- 2. Thy luck is excellent, go away: love is a place where misery is required.
- 1. O Mahwi, do not sing a song of the passion of thy heart, do not knock at the door of a single house in the street.
 - 2. Thou hast seen this strange world, beware of speaking of a friend.

The Attachbada says that he is often called Nishapuri, because he was long in that town.

The Mir^ad mentions a Mahwi whose name was Mir Mahmūd, and says that he was for twenty-five years Akbar's Munchi.

[&]quot;Mir Mughly, according to the Ma*ager-i Rahiesi, was born in Asadābād (Hamadān), and went, when twolve years old, to Ardabil, where he studied for four years at the "Astans-yi Safawiya". From youth, he was remarkable for his contentment and piety. He apent twenty years at holy places, chiefly at Najai, Mashhad, Karbalā, and Hirāt. Mawlānā Shikabi and Anisi (pp. 646, 648) looked upon him as their teacher and guide, He held postical contests (mushā\condot\condo\condot\condot\condot\condot\condot\condot\condot\condot\

21. Sarfī of Sāwah.1

He is poor and has few wants, and lives content with his indigence.

My dealer in roses wishes to take his roses to the bazaar, but he ought first to learn to bear the noisy crowd of the buyers.

I am shut out from the road that leads to the Kacba, else I would gladly wound the sole of my feet with the thorns of its acacias.

I have no eye for the world, should it even lie before my feet; he who takes care of the end, looks behind himself.

That which I desire 3 is too high to be obtained by stooping down. O that I could find myself lying before my own feet!

Qarari of Gilan.4

His name is Nuru 'd-Din. He is a man of keen understanding and of lofty thoughts. A curious monomania seized him: he looked upon his elder brother, the doctor Abū 'l-Fath, as the personification of the world, and the doctor Humam as the man who represents the life to come, for which reason he kept aloof from them.

¹ The MSS, of the A^4 in call him "Sayrafi", but the metre of several verses given in the Ma^2 deir-i Rahimi shows that his takhallus is "Sarfi".

The road of love (the ideal Kacha) is as difficult as the road to the Kacha in Makhah. Muhammadans do not lie down with their feet towards Makkah, which is against the law; hence the poet says that he is prevented from stepping forward on the road of love. 8 Self-knowledge.

According to the Atashkada, his name is Salahu 'd-Din, and he was a relation of Salman of Sawah. He was a pupil of Muhtashim of Kashan. The author of Haft Iqlim says that he was a most amiable man, and marvellously quick in composing tariffes. He lived in the Dakhin, and went to Lähor, to present Akbar with a Casida; but finding no suitable opportunity, he returned to the Dakhin, and went to Makkah, where he died. The Madair-i Rahimi states that he lived chiefly at Ahmadabad, made Faysi's acquaintance in the Dakhin, and went with the Khān-i Aczam (p. 543) to Makkah. According to Badasoni, he came with the Historian Nizāms 'd-Din Ahmad from Gujrāt to Lāhor, and accompanied Fayzī to the Dakhin, where he died. Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 182) gives his name Caldhuddin: but the Atashkada (the only work in which I have found his full name) has Salah 'd-Din.

⁴ Nüre 'd-Din Muhammad came in 983 with his brothers Abū 'l-Fath (p. 468) and Humam (p. 529) to India. Akbar appointed him to a command in the army; but New 'd-Um was awkward, and had no idea how to handle a sword. Once, at a muster, he came without arms, and when some young fellows quizzed him about it, he said that military duties did not suit people of his class (literary men); it had been Timur's custom to place camels, cattle, and the baggage between the ranks, and the women behind the army, and when Timur had been asked where the learned were to go, he had said, " In the rear of the women." (This resembles the story of Napoleon I, who in Egypt had often to form squares against the hostile cavalry, and then invariably gave orders to place the

The longer the grief of separation lasts, the gladder I am: for like a stranger I can again and again make his acquaintance.

I doubt Death's power; but an arrow from thy eye has pierced me. and it is this arrow alone that will kill me, even if I were to live another hundred years.

He [the beautiful boy] must have been last night away from home: for I looked at his door and the walls of his house, but had no pleasure from looking.

If in that hour, when I tear the hood of my life, I should get hold, of, what God forbid, Thy collar, I would tear it to pieces.

I envy the fate of those who, on the last day, enter hell: for they sit patiently within the fire.1

My madness and ecstasy do not rise from nightly wine; the burning of divine love is to be found in no house.

- 1. O heart! when I am in love, do not vex me with the jealousy of the watchman; thou hast made me lose my faith [Islam] do not speak ill of my Brahmanical thread.3
- 2. To be far from the bliss of non-existence seems death to him who has experienced the troubles of existence. O Lord! do not wake me up on the day of resurrection from the sleep of non-existence.
- 1. If the love of my heart should meet with a buyer, I would do something openly.
- 2. I have spread the carpet of abstinence in such a manner that every thread of the texture ends in a thousand Brahmanical threads.

donkeys and the savans in the middle.) Akbar, to punish him, sent him on active service to Bongal, where he perished in the disturbances, in which Mazaffar Khan (p. 373) lost his life, Bada onl, II, 211; III, 312,

Abu 'l-Yaşl is sarcastic in referring to Nurs 'd Din's monomania.. Nurs 'd-Din wished to say that Abū 'l-Fath was a man of intense worldliness (talib 'd-dangt) and Humam longed for the pleasures of paradise as the reward of virtue (talib 'lathiret), whilst he himself was a 'true lover' (talib I mould, one who feels after God),

The Atashkadah adds that Nür 'd-Din had been in Gilan in the service of Lian

Ahmad Khan, and that he went, after the overthrow of Gilan, to Qazwin.

Whilet the fire of love deprives me of petience.

1 Love has made the post a heathen.

- 1. The drinking of my heart-blood has surfeited me; like my sweetheart, I have become an enemy to myself.
- 2. I have killed myself, and, from excessive love to him, have cast the crime on my own shoulders.1

23. SItābī of Najaf.2

He possesses harmony of thought; but his mind is unsettled, and he lives a disorderly life.

I am the nightingale of thy flower-bed. I swear by the pleasure of thy society that the rose has passed away, and I do not know where the garden is.

- 1. May all hearts rest peacefully in the black night of thy curls, when I, the miserable, wander restless from thy street!
- 2. I have knocked at the door of the seventy-two sects of Islām, and have come to the door of despair, hopeless of getting help from heathen and Musulman.
- 3. I had come from the land of faithfulness: what wonder, if I vanish from the dear memory of the [faithless] fair?
- 1. I have consumed my-sober heart on the rubbish heap of passion; I have burnt the Kasba candle at the idol temple's fate.
- 2. The flower-bed of a certain beloved has not wafted to me the fragrance of fulfilled desires, and hopelessly do I consume myself in my dismal corner.
- 3. No one has ever said the word "friend " to me, not even by mistake, though I consume myself before acquaintances and strangers.3

1 Though in reality the beautiful boy murdered me,

Sayyid Muhammad of Najaf had lived for some time in the Dakhin, honoured as a poet, when he went to Hindustan, and paid his respects to Akbar at Allahabad. He looked bold and slovenly (bebak a nahamuar). When asked whether he had in the Dakhin made satires on Shah Fathu 'llah, he said, " In the Dakhin, I would not have looked at a fellow like him." Akbar, who made much of Fathu 'l'āh, was annoyed, imprisoned CItabi, and had his papers searched, to see whether he wrote satires on other people. A few compromising verses were found, and CItabi was sent for ten years (or according to the Tabaque, for two years) to Fort Gwalyar. At the request of Prince Salim and several courtiers, he was at last released, and ordered to come to Lahor. But he was as bad as before. The emperor gave him 1,000 rupers, and ordered Qulij Khān (p. 380) to send him from Sürat to Hijāz; but Çītābī escaped, went to the Dakhin, and lived there as before. His Arabic and Persian poems are excellent; he also was a clever katib and letter writer. Badasoni, III, 275.

The Atashkada says that he came from Gulpāigān (or جراقان). Dighistāni calls him "Mir Sltābi". Sltābi means "worthy of reproach"; compare russed".

The Tabagāt ascribes this verse to a poet called Rukn" 'd-Dīn, whose takhalles is not given in my MS.

1. O heart, what portion of his wine-coloured lip dont thou keep in thy flagon, that thy inside is full of sighs and thy neck full of sobs.1

2. Love has thrown me into oceans of bloody tears; go, go away, that for once thou mayest reach the banks of the stream.

I have given thee permission to shed my blood without retaliation. I have said so, and give it thee black on white, and stamped with my seal.

Sometimes I am drowned in floods, sometimes burning in flames. Let no one build a house in my street!

In the name of God, let us go, if you belong to my travelling companions. This caravan has no bell to sound the hour of starting

In a realm where the word "faithfulness" produces tears, the messenger and the letter he brings 3 produce each separately tears

- 1. Is the killing of a man like me worth a single sign of anger and hatred? Is shedding my blood worth the bending of thy arm (pr. thy sleeve)?
- 2. If thou art resolved to break my heart, is it worth while to ill-treat thy lovers?

Mulla Muhammad Bafi of Mazandaran.

He is in affluent circumstances, but from virtuous motives he mixes little with the world. He seeks retirement by travelling about

Look upon me, when standing below the revolving roof of the heavens. as a lamp concealed under a cover.

The caravan of love.

The messenger, because he comes from the beloved boy, and the letter, because

it declines the request of a rendezvous.

The Atashkada wrongly puts him under Islahan, and mentions that some call him the maternal uncle of Mulia Jami-which is impossible.

¹ In allusion to the gurgling noise in the neck of the hottle.

According to the Mir. At. I 'Alam, Mulla Muharamad was called " Suff " from his gentle and mild character. Even at the present day, simple people are often addressed." Suff sahib ", so much so that the word is often used as the equivalent of " a sumpleton ". Mulia Muhammad early left his home, and lived chiefly at Asmadabad, where he was the friend and teacher of Sayyid Jalal: Bulbari. The Mira at and the Haft lelim, praise his verses, and the former quotes from a Signama of his.

- 1. O heart, thy road is not without thorns and caltrops, nor dost thou walk on the wheel of good fortune.
- 2. If it be possible pull the skin from the body, and see whether thy burden will be a little lighter.
- 1. You asked me, "How are you, Muhammad, after falling in love with him?—long may you live!" "I stand," said I, "below the heaven as a murderer under the gibbet."

25. Judā*ī.1

His name is Sayyid Alī, and he is the son of Mīr Mansūr. He was born and educated in Tabrīz, and attained, under the care of his Majesty, the greatest perfection in the art of painting.

The beauty of idols is the Ka^cba to which I travel; love is the desert, and the obstinacy of the worthless watchers ² the acacia thorns.

I am a prey half-killed and stretched on the ground, far from the street of my beloved. I stagger along, tumbling down and rising up again, till I come near enough to catch a glimpse of him.

In the morning, the thorn boasts of having been together with the rose, and drives a nail through the broken heart of the nightingule.

26. Wuqusi of Nishāpūr.

His name is Sharif.

Love and the lover have in reality the same object in view. Do not believe that I lose by giving thee my life.

² The Atashkada and Taqi's Taşkira mention another Juda²I of Sawah.

Muhammad Sharif Wuquiii helonged, according to the Matanir i Rahimi, to a distinguished family of Sayyids in Nishāpūr. His mother was the sister of Amir Shāhmir, who had been for a long time sees wester under Shāh Tahmān. He died in 1002.

Judă'i had been mentioned above on p. 107. He had the title of "Năd'r"'l-Mulk ", and had already served under Humāyūn. He left a Diwān; but he has also been accused of having atolen Ashki's Diwān (vide below, the 37th poet).

who had been for a long time assay master under Shāh Tahmāsp. He died in 1002.

Badā*onī (III, p. 378) says that Sharif was a relation of Shihāb Khān (p. 352). "His name was Muhammad Sharif. Alas, that so impure a man should have so excellent a name! His heretical opinions are worse than the heretics of those who, in this age, bear the same name [Sharif-i Āmuif, pp. 176, 452; and the poet Sharif-i Sarmadī, mentioned below, No. 58—two archheretics in the eyes of Badā*onī]. Though he belongs neither exclusively to the Basahhwānīs (p. 502, note 2) nor to the Sabāhis, he holds an intermediate place between these accursed and damned sects; for he strenuously fights the doctrine of the transmigration of souls (tanāsujā). One day, he came to me at Bhimbar on the Kashmār frontier, asking me whether he could accompany me to Kashmīr. Seeing large blocks of

1. I do not care for health. O Lord, let sorrow be my lot, a sorrow which deprives my heart of every hope of recovery!

2. I am smitten by the eye which looks so coquettishly at me, that it raises, openly and secretly, a hundred wishes in my heart.

27. Khusrawi of Qasin.2

He is a relation of [the poet] Mīrzā Qāsim of Günābād [or Junābād, or Junābīd, in Khurāsān]. He writes Shikasta well, and is a good hand at shooting with the bow and the matchlock.

If the dust of my body were mixed with that of others, you would recognize my ashes by their odour of love.

Thy coming has shed a lustre on the ground, and its dust atoms serve as surms for my eyes.

The lions of the Haram should not stain their paws with my blood. O friend, give the dogs of the Christian monastery this food as a treat.

What do I care for comfort! I think myself happy in my misery, for the word "rest" is not used in the language of this realm [love].

28. Shaykh Raha'i.3

He traces his descent from Zainu 'd-Dîn Khâfî. He pretended to be a Şûfî.

¹ Health is the equivalent of "indifference to love", ² QE⁵ in lies between Yazd and Hirât. Dăghistăzi calls him Sayyid Amir Khasrawi, and says that he excelled in music. According to Bada "ni", his mother was Mirză Qhim"s sister, and he came to India after having visited Makkak. He was in the service of Prince

Halim (Jahängir).

His name is Mawlánā Sacd* 'd-Din, of Khāi, or Khawāi (p. 493). The Ātashiada quotes the same verse as Abū 'l-Faşl. Badā*onī says, he left a well-known diwān. In Dāghætānī, two Rahā*ā are mentioned, one Mawlānā Rahā*ī, "known in literary circlen "; and another Rahā*ī from Ardistān. Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 58) calls him Bihā*ī; and aays that, according to the Nafā*s, he died in 980.

Zayn* 'd-Din Khāfi, from whom Rahā*l traced his descent, is a fastous saint, who died in the beginning of Shawwāl, a.z. \$38. He was first buried at Mālin (or Bālīn), then at Darwinhābād, then at Hirāt. His biography is given in Jāmi's Nafatt* 'l-Uns, and he is not to be confounded with the saint Zayn* 'd-Din Tā*ibādi, mentioned above.

rocks of several thousand mens lying about near my house, he exclaimed with a sigh, "All these helpless things are only waiting to assume human form." Notwithstanding his wicked belief, he composed poems in prasse of the Imams; but he may have done so, when he was young. He was an excellent shifth and letter-writer, and was well acqueinted with history. He died in a.m. 1003.

No one has, in thy love, been more brought up to sorrow than I; and that thou knowest not my sorrow is a new sorrow.

I took to travelling in order to allay my grief, not knowing that my road would pass over hundred mountains of grief.

29. Wafā'ī of Işfahān.1

He possesses sparks of taste. He had been for some time wanderin in the desert of retirement, but has now put the mantle of worldlines on his shoulders.²

I do not call him a buyer who only wishes to buy a Yūsuf. Let a marbuy what he does not require! 3

Knock at night at the door of the heart; for when it dawns, the door are opened, and the door of the heart is closed.

I am secure from the dangers of life: no one deprives the street beggar of his bareness.

- 1. The dart of fate comes from the other side of the armour; why should I uselessly put on an armour?
- 2. Flash of death, strike first at me! I am no grain that brings ar ear to the harvest.

Joy and youth are like the fragrance of the rose that chooses the zephyr as a companion.

30. Shaykh Saqi.5

He belongs to the Arabians of the Jazā*ir. He has sequired some knowledge.

¹ Bedå²onī says (III. p. 385) that Wafā²ī was for some time in Kashmīr, went to Lāhor and entered the service of Zayn Khān (p. 367). According to the Ātashkada, he belonge to the Cīmādiya Kurds, and was brought up at Isfahār; his Rubā²īs are good. Dāghiatār calls him a Turk, and states that Wafā²ī at first was an uttūbash (a man who irons clothes

From a fault in his eye, he was called Wafa*i-yi kor, "The blind Wafa*i."

3 "His impudent flattery was proverbial." Daghistani.

As, for example, love, grief.

i.e., a place where man is not protected, because he does not expect an arrow from that side.

⁵ Badā²onī also calls him Jazā²irī, i.e. from the islands. His father, Shaykh Ibrāhim was a distinguished lawyer and was looked upon by the ShiCahs as a Mujtahid. He live in Mashhad, where Sāqī was born. Sāqī received some education, and is an agreeab' poet. He came from the Dakhin to Hindūstān, and is at present [in 1004] in Bengal.

- 1. I became a cloak to ruin, Saqī, and like the Kasba, a place of belief and heresy.
- 2. I have found no trace of love, much as I have travelled among the hearts of the infidels and the faithful.

My heart is still ardent with love, and thou art still indifferent. sweetheart, speak, before I openly express myself.

31. Rafisi of Kashan.1

His name is Haydar. He is well acquainted with the ars poetica and is distinguished as a writer of riddles and tārikhs.

My heart is sensitive, you cruel one; what remedy is there for me? Although a lover, I have the temper of the beloved—what can I do?

- 1. A recluse does not sin [love] and calls thee a tyrant; I am plunged into crime [love] and think that thou art forgiving.
- 2. He calls thee a tyrant, I call thee forgiving; choose whatever name pleases thee most.

32. Ghayrati of Shiraz.3

His diction is good, and he knows the history of the past.

I am smitten by the eyelash of my murderer, who has shed my blood without letting a drop fall to the ground 3

lived after his return in Kachan, where he fell in love with a boy of a respectable family.

From fear of the boy's relations, he went to Shiraz, where he died.

* Because the heart only was broken.

His full name, according to Taq: vi Awhadi, is Amir Rafica 'd-Din Haydar. He was a Tabatiba Sayyid of Kashan. The Macair i Rahimi states that he left Persis. in 999, on account of some wrong which he had suffered at the hand of the king of Persia, went from Gujrat in company with Khwaja Habibs 'llah to Lahor, and was well received by Akbar. For the idrikh, mentioned above on p. 619, note 2, Payri gave him 10,000 rupoes. After a stay of a few years in India, he returned to his country, but suffered shipwreck near the Mukran creat, in which he not only lost property to the amount of two iškhs of rupees, but also (as Badā^{\$}oni spitefully remarks) the copies of Favai's poetical works which he was to have distributed in Perua. Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 58) says that Haydar was drowned; but the fact is, that he was saved and returned to India. His losses created much sympathy, and he received, at Akbar's wish, valuable presents from the Amire. From the Khan Khanan alone, he got, at various times, about a lakh. After some time, he again returned, his two sojourns in India having lasted about eight lunar years. He went to Makka and Madina, where he stayed four years. In 1013, he returned to Kashan, found favour with Shah SAbbas, and received some rent-free lands in his native town. According to the Atashkada he died in a.u. 1039, the taright of his death being the Arabic words, "we kind solike fi senat." His son, Mir Hashim i Sanjar, is mentioned on the next page; and Tähir i Nasrabbidi mentions in his Tagkira another son of the name of Mir Macquim, a friend of Mulla Awji. MSS, often give his name wrongly Rafiqi.
The Atashkada says that Chayrati travelled about in Sirāq, went to Hindustan, and

The present age asks God for a mischief-maker like thee, who makes the days of the wretched bitterer.¹

I am free from worldliness; for my aspirations do no longer lean against the wall of confidence.

I am smitten by the fearless glance of a Christian youth, for whose sake God will pardon, on the day of resurrection, the slaughter of a hundred Musalmans.

Even death mourns for those who are killed by the grief of separation from thee.

The street of the sweet boy is a beautiful land; for there even heaven's envy is changed to love.

I saw the heart of another full of grief, and I became jealous; for there is but one cruel tyrant in these regions.*

33. Hālatī of Tūrān.3

His name is Yadgar. He is a selfish man.

Leave me to my grief! I find rest in my grief for him. I die, if the thought of the possibility of a cure enters my heart.

When my eye caught a glimpse of him, my lips quivered and closed. Oh that life remained but a moment within me!

To whatever side I turn in the night of separation, my heart feels pierced by the thought of the arrow of his eyelash.

The Abbarnama (Lucknow Edition, III, p. 486) says that Yadgar served in 993 in Kabul.

He is not to be confounded with Mir Halati of Gilan.

That is, my beloved boy causes the greatest mischief among the hearts of men.
 No boy is lovelier than the beloved of the poet. If the poet, therefore, sees another

No boy is lovelier than the beloved of the poet. If the poet, therefore, sees another man love-sick, he gets jealous; his beloved boy must have bestowed favours on the other man

² Badā^conī says that his father was a poet, and wrote under the name of Wāliāi. Yādgār traced his descent from Sultān Sanjar; but the Tabaqāt calls him a Chaghtā^cī. He served in Akbar's army.

[&]quot;His son Jalil Khin had the takhallus of Baqa", though from his unprofitableness he styled himself Runco", the blackguard. He gave his father poison from his mother on account of a fault," and Akbar ordered him from Kashmir to Lähor, where he was executed by the Kotwäl.

34. Sanjar of Kāshān.1

He is the son of Mīr Ḥaydar, the riddle-writer. He has a taste for poetry, and lives in good circumstances.

I came from the monastery of the Guebres, and wear, from shame on account of improprieties, a sacred thread twisted round my waist, and a wailing gong under my arm.²

I am jealous and I shall die from the aggressions of fickle lovers. I am a fresh plant, but shall die from the heap of rubbish about me.

I, too, have at last perished in the century of thy love. Alas! none is now left of Majnūn's tribe.

Sorrows rush from every side on my heart without first knocking at the door. I cannot help it; my house lies on the highway.

35. Jazbī.4

His name is Pādishāh Qulī, and he is the son of Shāh Qulī <u>Kh</u>ān Nāranjī of Kurdistān, near Ba<u>ri</u>idād

See how extremely jealous I am My bewilderment leaves me, if any one alludes to him [the beautiful bov] whose memory causes me bewilderment.

The Khizānd-yi CAmira and Mr. f. W. Beale of Agrā, the learned author of the Miftah 'I-Toudrikh give the following vorce as strikh of Sanjar's death (metre Musdric):—
ا المكند بالشاء منى جدر ماجرى

The king of literature has thrown away the royal umbrilla, of which the words pudishih i sukhun give 1023; but as the pidishih throws away thoumbrolls, we have to subtract a ..., or 2; for the figure of the Arabic ... if inverted, looks like an umbrolls.

* i.e. love has made the poet forget his faith, and he has become a leather or a Christian. The Christians in many eastern countries used gongs because they were not allowed bells.

* The post only is a true lover. He alone resembled Majnan.

4 The Tagkiras give no details regarding Jaght. His father has been mentioned above on p. 537; and from the Akharadma (III, p. 513) we know that Pādishāh Quli served in Kashmir under Qāsim Khān (p. 412). " Jaghi" means " actractive ", a similar tajhallus is " Majgūb", " one who is attracted by God's love."

Bade onf (III, 213) accribes the last verses given by Abu 'l-Fact to Padishah Quli's

inther.

¹ Sanjar came in a.s. 1000 from Persia to India, and met his father (p. 662 ??):. For some crime, "to mention which is not proper." Akbar impresoned him. When again set free, he went to Ahmadābād; but not thinking it wise to remain there, he went to Ibrāhīm ÇĀdil Shāh of Bijāpūr. Some time after, he received, through the influence of his father, a call from Shāh ÇĀhbās of Persia to return. But before he could leave, he died at Bijāpūr, in a.m. 1021. Regarding the value of his poems people hold opposite epinions. Matter-i Rahīmī.

- 1. Sometimes I break my vow of repentance and sometimes the wine-bottle; once, twice, incessantly, I break my plaintive flute [my heart].
- 2. O Lord, deliver my heart from these bad practices! How often shall I repent and again break my vow of repentance!

36. Tashbīhī of Kāshān,1

His mind, from his youth, was unsettled. He belongs to the sect of the Maḥmūdīs; but I know nothing of his origin, nor of his present condition. The Maṣnawī entitled "Zarrah o Khurshīd", "the Atom and the Sun", is written by him.

Dust of the graveyard, rise for once to joy? Thou enclosest a corpse like mine, slain by his hand and his dagger.

Dress in whatever colour thou wilt; I recognize thee when thy figure shines forth.

"The Atom and the Sun " is a mystical subject. The atoms of dust dance in the sun's rays and love it, and are emblematical of man's love to God. But as Akbar worshipped

the sun, the poem, no doubt, referred to the peculiar views of the emperor.

¹ The Atashkada calls him "Mir SAli Akbar Tashbihi, Though a decent man, he was singular in his manners, and was not widely known. Whilst in Hindüstän he tried to improve the morals of the people, dressed as a Faqir, and did not vasit kings". Daghistani says that he was a heretic, and lived for forty years in Hindustan a retired life. He generally lived in graveyards. Bada Soni (III, 204) has the following notice of him, " He came twice or three times to Hindustan, and returned home. Just now (a. H. 1004) he has come back again, and calls the people to heresies, advising them to follow the fate of the Basakhwanis (vide above, p. 502). He told Shaykh Abû 'l-Farl that he was a Mujtahid, or infallible authority on religious matters, and asked him to introduce him to the emperor, to whose praise he had composed an ode, the end point of which was the question why the emperor did not direct his policy to the overthrow of the so-called orthodox, in order that truth might assume its central position, and pure monotheism might remain. He also wrote a pamphlet in honour of Abū 'l-Fazl according to the manner of the Nuqtaql sect and their manner of writing the letters [singly, not joined, as it appears from the following], all which is hypocrisy, dissimulation (tazriq) and agreement of the numerical value of the letters. Hakim SAyn" 'l-Mulk (vide above, p. 537) discovered that "Tashbihi" has the same numerical value (727) as "Tazriqi", "the hypocrite." Tashbibi has composed a Diwan. When I wrote my history, he once gave me, in Abū 'l-Fatl's presence a pamphlet on Mahmād of Basākhwān, and I looked at it. The preface was as follows:--- O Odd ' who art praises orthy (Mahmid) in all Thy doings, I call upon Thee. There is no other God but Allah. Praise be to God, whose mercies are visible in all his works, who has shown the existence of all his works . . . [the text is unintelligible]. He knows Himself; but we do not know ourselves, nor Him. He is an existence not existing except through Himself, and a place of existence independent of others; and He is the most merciful. Question: What is meant by "nature"? Answer: what people call creation or nature, is God, etc. Dirt upon his mouth, for daring to write such stuff! The grand point of all this lying is, of course," the four nuglas." At the end of the pamphlet, I saw the following;—
"This has several times been written on the part of the Persian Mujtahid M, i, r, GA, l, l,
A. k, b, a, r, T, a, sh, b, I, h, i, the Amini, the last, the representative." And the rest was like this-may God preserve us from such unbelief!"

Pass some day by the bazaar of the victims of thy love, and behold the retribution that awaits thee; for there they buy up every one of thy crimes at the price of a hundred meritorious actions.1

O thou that takest the loaf of the sun from this warm oven, thou hast not given Tashbihi a breakfast, and he asks thee for an evening meal.2

- 1. I am that Tashbīhī who, from foresight, chooses to dwell in a graveyard.
- 2. I like to dwell in a graveyard, because dwelling in a graveyard lies before our sight.

The hands of this world and of the world to come are empty. With me is the ring !-all other hands are empty.3

Ashki of Qum.4 37

He is a Tabățibă Savyid, and is a poet of some talent.

Those who are slain by thee lie everywhere inchriated on the ground: perhaps the water of thy steel was wine.

The sun looks round like a losi, the warm oven is the heat of the day.
In allusion to a game, in which the players secretly pass a ring from one to another, and another party has to find where the ring is. "The ring is with Tashbihi, ' i e., he has

chosen truth, he is the elect.

اشكسىء فامراد را كشسى علل حيران خون عفية ارست نصو واماند جسار فيوانسش شعر واماند أن اللغة أوسف

Thou hast killed poor Ashki. And I wander at thy crime being hidden. With thee four Dimins of his remained, And what remains of thy goems, is his.

Dighistani says that Ashki died in Mir Juda'i's house, and he ascribes the epigram to (ihazāli: but as he only quetes a hemistich, the statement of the contemporary Haft Iglim is preferable.

Badd onf anys that Ashki's poems are full of thought, and that he imitated (satabbus)

the poet, Asafi. He died at Agra.

¹ This verse is an example of a well-known rhetorical figure. The word " retribution " leads the reader to expect the opposite of what Tashbihi says. The lovely boy has, of course, broken many hearts and shed the blood of believers; nevertheless, all are ready to transfer the rewards of their mentonous actions to him, and thus buy up his crimes.

We know from the Haft Iqlim that Mir Ashbi was the son of Mir Sayyid SAH Muhtarib (public consor) of Qum in Persia. Ashki s elder brother Mir Huguri also is known as a post. Chazall's fame and success (ride p. 631) attra-ted Ashki to India but he did not meet Ghazāli. The number of his verses exceeded ten thousand; but when on his deathbod. he gave his several Dinans to Mir Judasi (atte p. 160) to arrange. Mir Judasi, however, published whatever he thought good in he can name and threw the remainder into water. Tariqi of Sawah alludes to this in the following epigram - -

My body melts in the fire of my madness, when he [the lovely boy] is away; and if you should hang an iron chain to my neck, it would flow (molten) to my feet.

Whenever I have to bear the pang of separation from my beloved, no one bears with me but death.

Ashkī, I think my tears have turned watchers; for whenever I think of him, they rush into my face.¹

38. Asīrī of Ray.

His name is Amīr Qāzī. He is a man of education.

The messenger was a watcher in disguise, and I did not see his cunning. The cruel wretch succeeded in putting his contrivance between us.

I have pardoned my murderer, because he did not take his hand away from me; for as long as life was left within me, his murderous hands were properly employed.

His love has so completely filled my breast, that you can hear him breathe in my breath.

39. Fahmi of Ray [Tihran].3

Give him no wine who feels no higher pleasure in the juice of grapes; do not even give him water when he lies as dust before the door of the tayern.

As the Tabaqui and Daghistani ascribe the same verse to Fahmi-yi Tihrani, which Abū 'l-Farl gives to Fahmi of Ray, the identity of both is apparent. In fact, it looks as if Abū 'l-Farl had made a mistake in calling him " of Ray", because no Taghira

follows him.

¹ So do the watchers of the beloved boy rush up against Ashki, when he declares his love.

³ Asiri was, according to Bada*oni, an educated man, and the best pupil of Ḥakimu 'l-Mulk (p. 611). But the climate of India did not agree with him, and he did not find much favour with the emperor. He therefore returned to Ray, his home, where he died (i.e., before A.H. 1904).

died (i.e., before A.H. 1004).

**Badá*onigives three poets of the name of Fahmī:—1, Fahmī of Tihrān, who travelled much, and was for some time in India; 2. Fahmī of Samarqand, son of Nādirī, an able riddle-writer, who was also for some time in India; 3. Fahmī of Astrābād, who died at Dihlī. The Ma*āṣir-i Raḥīmī mentions a Fahmī of Hurmuz (Ormuz) well known in Lac and Hurmuz, who came to India, presented an ode to the Khān Khānān, got a present, and returned. Dāghistānī mentions a fifth Fahmī from Kāshān, and a sixth, of whom he gives no particulars.

I have no patience when in love, and have lost in reputation. Tell reputation to go, I cannot be patient.

40. Qaydī of Shīrāz.1

He spent some time in the acquisition of such sciences as are usually studied; but he thinks much of himself.

As thou hast never gone from my heart, I wonder how thou couldst have found a place in the hearts of all others.

- 1. Thou drovest me away, and I came back, not from jealousy, but because I wish to confess that I feel ashamed of my love having had jealousy as a companion.
- 2. My tears derive a lustre from the laughter of cruel wretches; else a wound inflicted by thee could never produce such bloody tears.

A lover may have many reasons to complain; but it is better not to unburden the heart before the day of judgment.

If I desire to accuse thee of shedding, in every look, a hundred torrents of lover's blood, my lot, though hostile enough, would be ready to be my witness.

I am gone, my reason is gone! I want a flash of madness to strike my soul, so as to keep it burning [with love] till the day of judgment.

- 1. Last night union [with the sweet boy] raised her levely form before me, and the gloomy desert of my heart shone forth in raptures.
- 2. But the bat had no power to gaze at the sun; else the sun would have revealed what is now behind the screen.

Qaydi came from Makkah to India, and was well received by Akbar. Once, at a court assembly, he apoke of the injustice of the Dhigh a Mahalli-Law, on which Akbar had set his heart (vide p. 252) and follinto disgrace. He wandered about for some time so Faqir in the Byana District, and returned to Fathpür Sikri, suffering from piles. A quack, whom he consulted, cut open the voice or the anis, and Qaydi died. He was an excellent poet. Badâ*oni.
Dighistāni says that he was a friend of CUrfi, and died in a.m. 200.

41. Payrawī of Sāwah.1

His name is Amīr Beg. He was a good painter.

Where is the wine of love given to wretches without feeling? Loving idols, is a drunkenness; let men be careful to whom to give it!

O God! I cannot reach the world of the ideal; forgive me if I worship form.

42. Kāmī, of Sabzwār.3

His mind is somewhat unsettled.

If I knew that tears could make an impression, I would altogether turn to blood and trickle from the eye.

Whether I see him [the beautiful boy] or not, my heart is in raptures. Have you ever seen such a sight?

I wished I could like a breeze pass away from this base world. This is not the street of the sweetheart, from which one cannot pass away.

My blood dances from mirth in my vein like a flame; the look he gave me commences to work, and my heart is effectually wounded.

43. Payāmī.4

His name is SAndu 's-Salām. He is of Arabian extraction, and has acquired some knowledge; but he is not clear to himself.

⁸ This verse, the beginning of Payrawi's "Form and Ideal", contains the rhetorical figure, inhibit, because it gives the title of the poem.

* Kāmi's father, Khwāja Yahyā, was a grocer (baqqāl) and lived in the Maydān Mahallah of Sabawār, in Khurāsān. Occasionally he wrote poems. When the Uzbaka took Sabawār, Mīr Yahyā went to India, and left Kāmī, then twelve years old, with one of his relations in Sabzwār. At the request of his father, Kāmī came to India, and was frequently with the Khān Khānān. He went afterwards back to Khurāsān and the author of the Ma*āṣir-i Raḥīmī saw him, in 1014, in Hirāt. In travelling from Hirāt to

his house, he was killed by robbers, who carried off the property which he had acquired in the Khan Khanan's service.

The Haft Iqlim says that his poems are good, but that he was irascible and narrow-

minded.

Bade on a size mentions him; but he wrongly calls Qumi "from the town of Qum".

Resear Kami is a young man and has just come to India (1904); his thoughts are hold.

Payrawi imitated the poet Asafi. He wrote a poem on "Form and Ideal", of which Abū "Faşl has given the first verse, and completed a Diwan of Chazals.

He says, Kāmi is a young man and has just come to India (1004); his thoughts are bold.

* Payāmi, according to Dāghistāni, was a pupil of the renowned CAllāmi Dawwāni, He was for a long time Vazir to Shāh CAlasa 'l-Mulk ibn-i Nūra 'd-Dahr of Lār. His services were afterwards dispensed with, and a Jew of the name of YaCqūb was appointed instead. But this change was not wise; for soon after, Shāh CAbbās sent an army under Hāh Virdi Khān to Lār, who conquered the country.

Fortune cheats in play, loses, and takes back what she paid. One cannot play with a companion that is up to such tricks.

- 1. How long do you file down your words and polish them; how long do you shoot random arrows at the target?
- 2. If you would take one lesson in the science of silence, you would laugh loud at your silly conversation.
- 1. I keep a thousand thunderbolts concealed below my lip. Go away, go away, take care not to put your finger on my lip.
- 2. I have come to the public square of the world, but I think it were better if my Yusuf were yet in the pit than in the bazaar.1

Patience, in order to console me, has again put me off with new subterfuges, and has stitched up the book of my happiness the wrong way.

- 1. My heart has overcome the grief of separation, and has gone from this land; it has tucked the hem up to the waist and has gone.
- 2. My heart saw among the companions no trace of faithfulness; hence it smiled hundred times by way of friendship and went away.

44. Sayyid Muhammad [Fikri].*

He is a cloth-weaver from Hirat. He generally composes Rubatis.

- 1. On the day when the lover kindled the fire of love, he learnt from his beloved what burning grief is.
- 2. This burning and melting has its origin in the beloved, for the moth does not burn till it reaches the candle.
- 1. On the day of judgment, when nothing remains of the world but the tale, the first sign of Eternity's spring will appear:

¹ Yusuf means here "life"; pit. "non existence"; bazaar, "existence,"
2 Sayyid Muhammed's postical name is Fibri. the "pensive". He came, according to the Haft Iglim, in 260 to India, and his excellent rubh is induced people to call him the "Khayyam of the age", or "Mir Rubh i". He died on his way to Jaunpar, in 273, the strike of his death being Mir Rubh i safar named.

2. The beloved will raise like plants their heads from the dust, and I, too, shall raise my head in courtship.¹

45. Qudsī of Karabalā, Mīr Ḥusayn.2

I am utterly ashamed of the dogs of thy street; for they have made friendship with a man like me.

I am in misery; and you would know the sadness of my lot, if you were instead of me to suffer for one night by being separated from him [the beautiful boy].

Who am I that thou shouldst be my enemy, and shouldst care for my being or not being?

46. Haydari of Tabriz.3

He is a merchant and a poet; he works hard and spends his gains liberally.

Show no one my black book of sorrows; let no one know my crimes [love].

1 This verse reminds me of a verse by Kalim, I think (metre Rajas):--

روز قیامت هر کسے بنست گیرد نامہً می نیزحاضر می شوم تصویرجانا در بمغل

Each man on the day of resurrection, will seize a book (the book of deeds), I, too. shall be

present, with my sweetheart's picture under my arm.

⁸ Däghistäni says that Mir Hussyn's father left Karbalä for Sabzwär. Qudsi was a great friend of Muhammad Khän, governor of Hirāt. Badā oni (III, 376) says that Mir Muhammad Sharif Nawä i, Qudsi's brother, also came to India, and "died a short time ago", i.ə., before A.H. 1004.

⁸ Haydari was three times in India. The first time he came he was young, and found a patron in Muhammad Qāsim Khān of Nishāpūr (vide above, p. 353). His company, says the Haft Iqlīm, was more agreeable than his poems. The Maynawi which he wrote in imitation of Sacdi's Bostān, is insipid, and remained unknown. Though he made money in India, he said:—

در کفور هند شادی و غم معلوم اخرا دل شاد و جای خرم معلوم جائے که بیک رویه دو آدم تعرد آدم معلوم و قدر آدم معلوم

On his second return to India he found a patron in the Khān-i Acgam (p. 343), who gave him one thousand rupees for an ode. Muhammad Khān Atga (p. 337) introduced him at court. For an ode on the elephant, Akbar presented him with two thousand rupees and a home. The third time he came to India, he attached himself to the Khān Khānān, whom he accompanied on his expedition to Gujrāt (p. 254), and received liberal presents for an ode on the victory of Sarkich. He returned to Kāshān, the governor of which town, Āghā Khizr Nahāwandi (brother of the author of the Macdair-i Raḥīmī) befriended him. As Tabrīz had just been destroyed by the Turks of Rām, he settled in Sīrāq, at a place called in the MSS, \succeq_i ; which for its excellent climate and fruits had

O Haydari, try, like the virtuous, to attain some perfection in this world of sorrow; for to leave this world deficient in anything, is like leaving the bath in a dirty state.

47. Samri.

He is the son of the preceding. His versification is good.

My disgrace has made me famous, and my shame [love] has rendered me well known; perplexed I ask myself why I remain concealed.

The farmers have committed their seeds to the field, and now hope to receive aid from the flood of my tears.

48. Farebi of Ray (1).1

His name is Shapur. He is a good man, but is in bad circumstances. If he is diligent, he may become a good poet.

1. I go and heat my brain with the love of a certain sweetheart; I sit in the midst of the flame, and breathe a hot sigh.

no equal in Ciraq or Khurasan. About that time Shah Cabbas came to the pisce to hunt pheasants (hebg), [Kabk is the Chulor partridge of India,—P.] It happened that the king's own falcon flew away, and sat down on the house of a darwish, who, notwithstanding that the king had gone personally to his house, refused to open the door. "The feaming ocean of the king's wrath rose in high waves," and he ordered a general massacre of the people of the place, which was harmilly measured abroady indiamaca. The same falcon was killed on the asset happily prevented through Haydari's influence. The same falcon was killed on the same day by an eagle on a steep hill, about a farsang from ; and the king, out of love for the animal, had a large house built on the top of the hill, which has now become a place of resort for the surrounding country. But as the hill is inaccessible for beasts of burden, the building must have cost a great deal of money and labour. Haydari died there, beloved by all, in A.H. 1002.

He had also written a book entitled Lisans I gloyd, in praise of his teacher, the post Lisani, who had been attacked in a paraphlet entitled Suke" 'Lisan, " the Slip of the Tongue," which was written by his base pupil Mir Sharif-i Tabrizi. The Matdeir i Rabius

gives a few passages from the book. Dishistani says that the post Darwick Haydar of Yasd, mentioned in Tagkiras, is very likely the same as Mawlana Haydari of Tabris, who is sometimes called "Yazdi" from

his friendship with Wahshi of Yazd.

Samri, Haydari's son, came to India after his father's death, and was made by the Khān Khānān Mir Sāmān of his household. He was also a good officer, and was killed during the Dakhiu wars, when with Shahnawas Khān, the son of his petron.

1 The second verse shows that the tablellus of the poet is Shapur. Farebi is scarcely known. With the exception of Dishistani's work, which merely mentions that Farebi lived during the reign of Akbar, I have not found his name in the Tagkiras. Sprenger (Catalogue, p. 52) mentions a Farebi of Bughārā; but as he is said to have died in a.m. 944, he must be another post. The name of his birthplace is doubtful; the MSS, of the A⁵ in have Ray, Rahi, and Dihi, or teave out the word, as Dighistāni has done. Rāni is the usual form of the adjective derived from "Ray" the well-known town in Khurāsān. 2. It is not my intention to be in ardours for myself, Shāpūr; my object is to bring a certain sweetheart before the world.

I am the thorny shrub without leaves in the desert; no bird takes shelter with me from fear of accidents.

1. If the martyr of thy love-grief is to have a tomb, let it be the gullets of crows and kites, or the stomachs of wild beasts.

2. Until I pass along the torrent of restlessness [love], I cannot plunge

into the shoreless ocean.

49. Fusuni of Shiraz.1

His name is Mahmud Beg. He is an excellent accountant, and knows also astronomy well.

When the eye has once learned to see [to love] it loses its peaceful sleep; when the heart has once learned to throb, it loses its rest.

The passion which I feel for other lovely ones, has made my heart like a bud which has been forced open by blowing upon it.

When I wish to kiss his foot, I first wipe it with my wet eye; for the eye feels, more than lip, the sweet sorrow of kissing his foot.

Woe me, if my blood is not shed for the crime of my love! To pardon my faults were worse than to take revenge on me.

Sole friend of my chamber! I feel jealous of those who stand outside disappointed. Sweet companion of my feast! I feel jealous of the spectators.

- 1. If I flee from thy cruelties tell me what dust I am to scatter on my head when far from thee.
- 2. If I sit in the dust of the earth on which I wander, whose victim shall I be when I arise? *

Abs 'l-Farl says that Fusüni was from Shirar; Badâ*oni and Taqi call him Yazdi; and Liighistani and the Atashkada says that he came from Tabris. Badâ*oni says that Fusüni came over Tattah and entered the service of the emperor, and Dighistani adds that he also served under Jahängir and Shāhjahān as Mustawfi. The Mir*āt* 'l-Çālam mentions a Fusüni, who was an Amir under Jahängir and had the title of Afrai Khān.
2 The original contains a pun on hhāk gird and gard, which I cannot imitate.

50. Madiri of Turshizi 1

I am as if blind and wander about seeking for something. I pant after this mirage [love], though I hold a cooling drink in my hand.

Nadiri, I complain of no one; I have myself set fire to this heap of thorns.

51. Maw i of Mashhad.

He is a poet of talent; if sharply spoken to, he writes very well.

I am dead, and yet the blisters of my wandering foot do not dry up; neither death nor the life to come can bring the journey towards this stage [love] to a close.

No eye is fit to behold my glory; my figure in the looking-glass even appears veiled.

If that be Mansur's love, do not grieve, O heart. Not every weakminded man is fit to love.

Dighietani mentions three poets of the name of Nadiri : (1) Nadiri of Samarquad. who came to Humayun in India. (2) a Nadiri from Shunter; and (3) a Nadiri from Syarkot.

Badd on i says that he claims descent from Haures Shayth Haji Muhammad of Khabashin; but his doings belie his claim. He is very bold, and is new (in 1004) with the youngest

prince. Maneur attained a high degree of pautheistic love; he saw Ged in everything, and at last proclaimed. And at happy "I saw Ged "-for which he was killed. The post here accuses Manger of weakness, because he proclaimed his love; he should have kept it to himself as is proper for true lovers (ride p. 625, note 1).

The author of the Haft Iqlim says that Nadiri went two years before the completion of the Haft Iqlim, i.e., in 1000, to India; but he does not know what became of him.

Turshis, or Turshish, lice near Nishāpār.

Mullā Muḥammad Rīgā comes from Khabūshān near Mashhad. On his arrival in India, says the Maddires Rabins, he found a patron in Mirza Lieuf Khan of Manhad (p. 369); but soon after, he entered the service of the Khan Khanan (p. 334) and stayed with him and Prince Danyal at Burhanpur. For his Sectadors, the Khan Khanan gave him an elephant and a present of 10,000 rupess. He also composed several odes in praise of the prince. Some people say that his porms are the the shutur a gurbs, i.e., you find chaff and grains together; but must people praise his posms. The Khizāns-yi Sāmira says that his Magnawi entitled Sou a dudaz is quite sufferent to establish his fame as a great post. This prem, of which the Asiatre Secrety of Bengal has a copy contains the story of a Suttee. New? I had not yet arranged his Quades and (thereis in form of a diwar. when he died in 1019, at Burhanpür.

Intrinsic beauty cannot be seen; and he who looks into the looking glass sees, indeed, his figure, but forms no part of the glass itself.

Make thyself a heart as large as the orb of heavens, and then ask for an atom. Do not be satisfied, Naw^cI, with a ray of the sun; cherish the lofty aspirations of the little mote.⁸

52. Baba Talib of Islahan."

He is a thoughtful poet, and is experienced in political matters.

I would not exchange my lonely corner for a whole world, and I am glad that my intercourse with the people of the world has left me this impression.

It is no wonder that my little heart expands into a wide plain, when it is filled with thy love.

I cannot raise, from weakness, my hands to my collar, and I am sorry that the rent in my collar reaches so late the hem of my garment.⁴

- 1. In being separated from me thou givest me poison to taste and yet sakest "what does it matter?" Thou sheddest my blood, thou drivest me away, and yet askest "What does it matter?"
- 2. Thou dost not care for the havoc which the sword of separation has made; sift the dust of my grave and thou wilt know what it matters.

•

³ The post means by the looking-glass the beautiful face of the beloved boy. He seem in it his worful figure; but does not become one with him.

² Properly, half a more. The dust atoms that play in the sun rays are in love with the sun.

^{*} According to the Haft Iglim, Babā Tālib had been for nearly thirty years in Kashmir, patronised by the raises of that country. When Akbar annexed the province, he came to Hindfields, where he was much listed. The Me*deir-i Rabins anys that he was often in the company of Hakim Abū 'l-Fahl (p. 446). Zayn Khān Kokah (367), Abū 'l-Fahl, and Shayhi Fayzi; as present, i.e. in 1025, he is Sadr of Unjrit. Badā ont says that he was nearly eight (twenty?) years in Kashmir, was at first a dervish, but took afterwards an employment, and entered Akbar a service. The emperor once sent him as am hassador to CAR Rāy, ruler of Little Tibbat. On his return he gave Abū 'l-Fapl a treatise on the studens of that land, which was inserted into the Akbaratess. His posses are good, and breathe fine feeling. The Igbālaāms (Bibl. Indica Edition, p. 133) confirms those remarks, and adds that Bābā Tālib died in the end of Jahāngir's reign, more than a bundred years old.

Vide p. 560, note 1.
This Rubi⁴I pleased Jahängir so much, that he entered it with his own hand in the Court album. Ighiladms, los? oit.

83. Sarmedi of Islahan 1

His name is Shartf. He possesses some knowledge, is upright, and sealous in the performance of his duties. His rhyme is excellent. He understands arithmetic.

Fortune has been faithful in my time, I am the memorial tablet of Fate's faithfulness.

I was at home, and thou camest to me with drunken eyes and with roses under the arm; the very dust of this house of grief budged forth to see the night of thy arrival

I. What have I not done to myself in the heat of transgression! What crimes have I not committed whilst trusting to Providence!

2. I and my heart have soured up to a rose hed, and we are jealous of the zephyr's going and coming.

3. A lover has hundreds of wishes besides union with him [the beautiful boy]; I still want thee, Fortune, for many things.

I have in contempt set my foot upon both worlds, neither joy nor sorrow have overpowered my hear.

1. I cherish a love which will be talked of on the day of resurrection: I oberish a grief which no tale can relate

2. A grief which can coquet with the grief of others, which no thought can comprehend and no pen can describe

54. Dakhli of islahan *

He is a man without selfishness, and of reserved character. Though he says but little, he is a man of worth

or matters. Degeneral says he was in the saily work in which I have found a notice of The Ma^adyr-i Majimi in the saily work in which I have found a notice of the post, His mane is Majik Absard, and he was the sam of Majika 7-Mulik Magshi CAR, proprietor of Worksphi, twelve family from Islahin. (The Milbolonging to the Society had originally Dorksphi; but the author appears to have a property of the sail of the mother a father was the great Shayin Abd 7-Qiam, who had

[&]quot;Muhammat Sharff was mentioned above on p 361, No. 344, as a commander of Two Standerd, Madd on i says that he was at first Chaukt cawin, and us at present (i.e., 1004) with Sharff i Amuli (p. 308) in Bengat. He used at first to write under the talkelles of "Faysf"; but in order to avoid opposition to Faysf. Ahi ! Payl's brother, he chass that if Sarmadi. Bade out looked upon him as a heretic, and often abuses him (Bud. II, 338). From the Alburndens, we see that Sharff served in the Slot year in Kaphiner, and in the end of the 23nd in Guirst. In 1000 he was cent to Bengal with Sharff Amuli, and in the beginning of 1000 we find him fighting in Oriol against Rim Chande, Rija of Khurds. Dighetial says he died in the Dakhin.

1. I have burnt the furniture of my strong and wise heart; I have set fire to the house of my aspirations and burnt it.

2. I have given up heresy and faith, and, half-way between the Kasba and the idol temple, I have burnt the sacred thread and the resary.

- 1. I know of no plaint that has made impression: I know of no evening that was followed by a cheerful morn.
- 2. They say that grief is followed by joy, but this is an error; I know but of sorrows being followed by sorrows.

Gasim Arelan of Mashhad.1

He possesses some talent. He works hard in order to collect wealth, and spends it in a genial way.

I am intoxicated with the pleasures of the society of wits: for there the subtleties of expression vanish at a hint.

Word and thought weep over my circumstances, when without thee I look into the book (of my poems).

My life is half gone—what am I worth now when a single look from thee is valued a hundred lives ?

Thou hast the brilliancy of the rose and the colour of wine. How wonderful, what a freshness!

In his retirement he used to write under the now de plume of Amri, and employed Dalhit to arrange his pooms. This occupation gave Dalhil a taste for poetry, and he received from Abit T-Qisim the talhallus of "Dalhil". After having attended on his maternal until for some time, Malik Ahmad went to Islahin, where he gained a reputation as a poet. In 167, he came to India, and was for five years in Akbar's service. In 1608 he went to Dalhim, and found a patren in the Khin Khinan, in whose service he was in 1685, then the Mc agent Indian was quitten. He also was a good soldier.

"Janilla is Qisim's now de plate, He chove this name, because his father claimed depths from Asulin Japin as faste if Malanid of Qhami. The family came from Tin, and the second quotes an ede written by Amila on the Mountain of Ajmir. He died in 1605, pushably in Lihor. Dighistical says he died at Ahmadabhid. Vide p. 160.

such influence with Tahmasp that several legacies (success) in Persia belonging to Makkah were transferred to him, and of other foundations he was appointed Mutawalli, His circumstances thus became affluent, and so many dervishes, pupils, learned men, travellers, poets, etc., collected around him, that people persuaded Tahmasp that Abu 7-Qisim was best on rebellion or hereey. He was, therefore, blinded, and lived a retired life in the village. Some time after he presented a poem to Tahmasp, which procured him a pension. In this poem, which the Ma set has partly preserved, the village is called Kuhpāya. In his retirement he used to write under the now de plums of Amri, and employed Daghii

56. Ghaytiri of Hisar.1

Manliness shines on his forehead, and simplicity is the ornament of his life.

When longing directs its way to that door [love] it overthrows all possibility of returning.

- 1. The door of Shah Akbar, the victorious, is a paradise of rest;
- 2. And if I shave my beard, I do so not to beautify myself,
- 3. But because beards, like crimes, are of a deep black dye, and can therefore have no place in a paradise.3

57. Qăsimi of Mazandarân.*

He lives as a Faqir, and wanders bare-footed and bare-headed through the world.

I do not compare thee in beauty with Yūsuf; Yūsuf was not so, I do not flatter.

1. My sickness has increased to-night in consequence of the pain of separation, and my wretched condition arises from the hundred excesses of yesterday.

2. The wine of desire flows every night freer. What shall I to-night

do with my unsteady heart?

58. Sheri.4

He belongs to a Panjabi family of Shaykhs. Under the patronage of his Majesty he has become a good poet.

The beloved [boy] came, and blotted out my name; nay, he made me quite beside myself.

Sheri was killed with Bir Bar, in 904, in the Khaybar Pess.

Qhaydri is called in the Albaradma Mulla Ghaydri, and Daghistani calls him Ghaydri of Kabul. This shows that he came from Hiser in Kabul and not from Hisar Firms. The Haft Iglim tells us that Chaytiri was at first in the service of Mirak Muhammad Hakim, Akbar's brother and king of Kabul. On the death of his patron, he entered Akbar's service, and was a Yüsbüshi, or Commander of One Hundred. He was killed, in 994, with Bir Bar, in the Khaybar Pass estastrophe (under 34, p. 367).

* Akbar, in 1000, forced his courtiers to shave off their beards; wide p. 217.

Dishistani mentione a Queim of Manandaran. Queimi seems to be an unknown post.

Mulis Sheri has been mentioned above, pp. 113, 207 212, 214. He was born in Kekuwal in the Panjab (Bari Duab). His father's name was Mawlana Yahya, He belonged to a tribe colled in Bedd out" Maji.

The beloved has so closely surrounded himself with an array of coquetry, that even Desire found access impossible in this dense crowd.

O Zephyr, the beloved has entirely filled the mould of my desire. I am thy devoted servant, but thou art rather too devoted to his street.

- 1. My heart has polluted itself with revealing its condition. Though I am silent, the language of my looks has betrayed me.
- 2. A little thing [love] offers thousands of difficulties; an object apparently within reach offers hundreds of impossibilities.

59. Rahi of Nishapur.

His name is Khwaja Jan. He is a good man.

1. O Rahī, no longer cunningly twist this thread [thy religious belief]; give up ideas of future life, beginning, and the purgatory.

2. Put the thread into the fire of love, so that the offensive smell of the water of the corpse may not go to hell (?).

The above (59) poets were presented at Court. There are, however, many others who were not presented, but who sent from distant places to his Majesty encomiums composed by them, as for example, Qāsim of Gūnābād; Zamīr of Iṣfahān; Waḥshī of Bāfa; Muḥtashim of Kāshān; Malik of Qum; Zuhūrī of Shīrāz; Walī Dasht Bayāzī; Nekī; Şabrī; Figārī; Ḥuzūrī; Qāzī Nūrī of Iṣfahān; Ṣāfī of Bam; Tawfī of Tabrīz; and Rashkī of Hamadān.

A in 30 (concluded).

THE IMPERIAL MUSICIANS.1

I cannot sufficiently describe the wonderful power of this talisman of knowledge [music]. It sometimes causes the beautiful creatures of the

We have to distinguish goyands, singers, from the standar, chanters, and shoulder, players. The principal singers and municians come from Gwälyär, Mashhad, Tabris, and Kashmir. A few come from Transonania. The schools in Kashmir had been founded by Īrānī and Tūrānī municians petronized by Zayuu '1-Çābidīn, king of Kashmir. The tame of Gwälyär for its schools of music dates from the time of Rāja Mān Tunwar. During his reign lived the famous Nāšik Bahhadā, whose melodies are only second to these of Tānsen. Bahhadā also lived at the court of Rāja Bikramājit, Mān's son; but when his patron lost his throne, he went to Rāja Kīrat of Kālinjar. Not long afterwards he accepted a call to Gujrāt, where he remained at the court of Sultān Bahādar (a.D. 1536). Islem Shāh also was a patron of music. His two great singers were Rām Dās and Mahāpāter. Both entered subsequently Akbar's service. Mahāpāter was once sent as ambassador to Mukund Deo of Orisā.

harem of the heart to shine forth on the tongue, and sometimes appears in solemn strains by means of the hand and the chord. The melodies then enter through the window of the ear and return to their former seat, the heart, bringing with them thousands of presents. The hearers, according to their insight, are moved to sorrow or to joy. Music is thus of use to those who have renounced the world and to such as still cling to it.

His Majesty pays much attention to music, and is the patron of all who practise this enchanting art. There are numerous musicians at court. Hindus, Iranis, Turanis, Kashmiris, both men and women. The court musicians are arranged in seven divisions, one for each day in the week. When his Majesty gives the order, they let the wine of harmony flow, and thus increase intoxication, in some, and sobriety in others.

A detailed description of this class of people would be too difficult; but I shall mention the principal musicians.

- 1. Miyan Tansen, of Gwalyar. A singer like him has not been in India for the last thousand years.
- Baba Ramdas, of Gwalyar, a singer. 2.
- Subban Khan, of Gwalyar, a singer.
- Srigyan Khan, of Gwalyar, a singer. 4.
- Miyan Chand, of Gwalyar, a singer. 5.
- Bichitr Khan, brother of Subhan Khan, a singer. 6.
- Muhammad Khan, Dhari, sings. 7.
- Bir Mandal Khan, of Gwalyar, plays on the sarmandal. 8.
- Bas Bahadur, ruler of Malwa, a sunger without rival (p. 473). 9.
- Shihab Khan, of Chwalyar, performs on the bin. 10.
- Da dd Dhari, sings. 11.
- Sarod Khan, of Gwalyar, sings. 12.
- Miyan Lal, of Gwalyar, sings. 13.
- Tantarang Khan, son of Miyan Tansen, sings 14.
- Mulla Is-haq Dhari, sings. 15.
- Usta Dost, of Mashhad, plays on the flute (may) 16

Reparding Tänsen, or Tänsein, or Tänsin, wide p. 445. Räm (band is said to have once given him one kror of tankse as at present. Ibrahim but in vain persuaded Tansen

to come to Agra. Abil 1-Fasl mentions below his son Tentarang Khan, and the Padishik-ndma (II, 8—an interesting pasage) mentions another sun of the name of Bilds.

O Bede on (II, 42) says, Ram Discouns from Latinau. He appears to have been with Bayram Khan during his rebellion, and he received once from him one lath of tankas. empty as Bayram's treasure chast was. He was first at the court of Islam Shih, and he is looked upon as second only to Timeen. His son Sur Dis is mentioned below.

Dhari means "a singer", "a musseian".

Jahangir says in the Tusuk that Lai Kalawant (or Kalawan, i.e., the singer) died. in the 3rd year of his reagn, "sixty or rather seventy years old. He had been from his youth in my father's service. One of his concubines, on his death, poisoned herself with opium. I have rarely seen such an attachment among Muhammadan women."

- Nānak Jarjū, of Gwālyār, a singer. 17.
- 18. Purbin Khan, his son, plays on the bin.
- Sür Dās, son of Bābū Rām Dās, a singer. **19**.
- Chand Khan, of Gwalvar, sings. 20.
- Rangsen, of Agra, sings. 21.
- 22. Shaykh Dawan Phari,1 performs on the karnā.
- Rahmatu 'lläh, brother of Mulla Is-haq (No. 15), a singer. 23.
- Mir Sayyid Ali, of Mashhad, plays on the ghichak. 24.
- Ustā Yūsuf, of Hirāt, plays on the tambūra. 25.
- Qasim, surnamed Koh-bar.2 He has invented an instrument 26. intermediate between the qübüz and the rubāb.
- Tash Beg, of Qipchaq, plays en the qübüz. 27.
- Sultan Hafiz Husayn, of Mashhad, chants. 28.
- Bahrām Qulī, of Hirāt, plays on the ghichak. 29.
- Sultan Hashim, of Mashhad, plays on the tambura. 30.
- Ustā Shāh Muḥammad, plays on the surnā. 31.
- 32. Ustā Muḥammad Amīn plays on the tambūra.
- Hātiz Khwāja SAlī, of Mashhad, chants. 33.
- Mīr 'Abdu 'liāh, brother of Mīr 'Abdu 'l-Hay, plays the Qānun. 34.
- Pīrzāda,3 nephew of Mīr Dawam, of Khurāsan, sings and chants. 35.
- Ustā Muhammad Husayn, plays the tambūra.4 36.

1 Dharl means "a singer", "a musician ".

Koh-bar, as we know from the Padishahnama (I, b., p. 335) is the name of a Chaghta 1 tribe. The Nafation'l-Matagir mentions a poet of the name of Muhammad Qinim Kohbar, whose nom-de-plume was Sabri. Fide Sprenger's Catalogue, p. 50 (where we have to read Koh-bar for Guh-pas).

Pirzāda, according to Badā⁴oni (III, 318) was from Sabawar. He wrote poems under the takholing of Liwasi. He was killed in 995 at Lahor, by a wall falling on him.

4 The Maddeir-i Rahimi mentions the following musicians in the service of the Khan Khānān—Āghā Muhammad Nā⁴ī, son of Ḥājī Ismā⁴īl, of Tabriz; Mawlānā Aswātī, of Tabriz; Uståd Mirza CAli Fåthagi Mawlana Sharaf of Nishapur, a brother of the poet Nazīrī (p. 549), Muhammad Mumin, aliae Hāfizak, a tambūra-player; and hāfiz Nagr,

from Transoxania, a good singer.

The Tuzuk and the Iqbaladma mention the following singers of Jahangir's reign—

Jahangirdad; Chatr Khan; Parwisdad; Khurramdad; Makhu; Hamsa.

During Shahjahan's reign we find Jagnath, who received from Shahjahan the title of Koerati; Dirang Khan; and Lai Khan, who got the title of Guncomunder (ocean of excellence). Lai Khan was son-in-law to Bilas, son of Tanson. Jagnath and Dirang Khan

were both weighed in silver, and received each 4,500 rupees.

A wrangzib abolished the singers and musicians, just as he abolished the court-historians. Music is against the Muhammadan law. Khāfi Khān (II, 213) tells a curious incident which took place after the order had been given. The court-musicians brought a bier in front of the Jharokha (the window where the emperors used to show themselves daily to the people), and wailed so loud as to attract Awrangzib's attention. He came to the window, and saked whom they had on the bier. They said, "Malody is dead, and we are going to the graveyard." "Very well," said the emperor, "make the grave deep, so that neither voice nor coho may issue from it." A short time after, the Jharokha also was abolished.

ADDITIONAL NOTES.

Page 31, note 1.

TODAR MAL. For correcter and fuller biographical notes, vide p. 376.

Page 35, note 2.

QULLI KHAN. The correct year of his death is given on p. 381.

Page 36, line 20.

Bănăontul. This word is not in the Dictionaries; but there is no doubt that it means "White Agate". The word is also mentioned in the 4th Rook (my Text Edition, II, 60); where it is said that all the weights used at court for weighing jewels were made of "transparent Bābāghūrī". Tāhir Nasrābādī, in his Tazkircā, under Jalāl, has the following. "When the case came on," he said to Mīrzā Taqī, "I hav. often counted with the point of my penknile the Bābāghūrī threads (the veins) of your eye—there are seventoen."

در روز دیوان با میرزا تنی میگفت که مکرر بنول قستراش زنار بابافورئی چشم شیا را شعرده ۱۰ هسه زنار دارد آا

Page 46, middle.

SALARIES OF THE BROAMS. Under Shahjahan and Awrangsib, the queens and princesses drew much higher salaries. Thus Mumtas Mahall had 10 lakes per annum, and her eldest daughters 6 lakes, half in cash and half in lands. Awrangsib gave the "Begam Sahib" If lakes per assum.

Regarding Núr Jahán's pension, vide p. 574, note 3.

Page 49, nme 7.

GULBADAN BROAM. From Badãoni, II. 14, we see that she was Akbar's paternal aunt, i.e. she was Humāyūn's sister. She was married to Khuz Khwāja, vide pp. 207, 394

Page 58, line 4, from top.

South. Soro is the correct name of a town and Pargana is Sirker Kol. It lies east of the town of Kol (Aligarh), near the Ganges.

Page 58, line 14, from below.

Pannin. This I believe to be a mistake for "Pathan" or "Pathankot". The MSS. have ينهان or ينهان, but as the initial six in MSS. is often written with three dots below it, it is often interchanged with بنهان and reversely. The spelling بيتهان Pathan, for Pathan, is common in Muhammadan historians. My conjecture is confirmed by the distance mentioned in the text.

Page 69, note 2.

Kills. Mr. F. S. Growse, C.S., informs me that glids is to the present day the Kashmirf term for cherries.

Page 75, line 7.

MARUWA. This partly confirms Elliot's note under Gula (Beames' Edition, Races of the N.W. Provinces, II, p. 335) and corrects Shakespeare's Dictionary.

Page 77, line 7, from below.

PAN LEAVES. In the 3rd Book of the Å*in (Text, p. 416, l. 20) Abū 'l-Faşl mentions another kind of pān, called Makhi or Mukhi, grown in Bihār.

Page 84, line 7.

QAYSURI. Col. Yule tells me that the correct name is FARSURI. According to Marco-Polo, Farsur was a state in Sumatra, probably the modern Barus.

Page 87, note.

Zhalo. This should be Zhalo, for ser-i bad, i.e. "under the wind", leeward, the Persian translation, as Col. Yule informs me, of the Malay Bawak angin, "below the wind," by which the Malays designate the countries and islands to the east of Sumätra.

Khāfi Khān (I, p. 11) couples Zerbād with Khatā, over both of which Tūiū Khān, son of Chingis Khān, ruled.

Page 93, note 6.

مركران . I have since seen the spelling كركراة which brings us a step nearer to etymology. Fariq means "supellex"; and kürk means "fur".

Page 93, line 2, from below.

AHMANIBID. The comma after Ahmadābād may be wrong. Ahmadābād is often oalled Ahmadābād-i Gujrāt.

Page 94, line 17.

GHIVAS-I NACEMBAND. We know from the Taylire of Tähir Nagrahādi that Ghiyās was born in Yazd. "The world has not since seen a weaver like him. Besides, he was a good poet. Once he brought a piece of mushajjar brorade, on which there was among other figures that of a Bear between some trees, to Shāh Sābbās (1585-1629), when a courtier after praising the stuff admired the bear. Ghiyās said on the spur of the moment.

"The gentleman looks chiefly at the bear. Each looks at his own libenses." Bears in the East are looked upon as stupid animals. A proverb says,

[&]quot;A bear on the hill is an Avicenna," i.e. a fool among bigger fools is a philosopher. Nasrabadi quotes some of Ghiyas's verses.

Page 100, middle.

COTTON CLOTHS. Of the various cotton cloths mentioned by Abt 'l-Pagl.

Chautar was woven in Hawell Saharanpür.

Sīrī Ṣāf and Bhīraū, in Dharangā,on, Khāndesh. Gangājal, in Sīrkār Ghorāghāt, Bengal.

Mihrkul, in Allahabad.

and Pachtoliya was mentioned on p. 574, in connexion with Nür Jahan.

Page 105, note 2.

ADAM-I HAPT-HAZIR?. I find that this expression is much older than Abū 'l-Fagi's time. Thus Ziā^a 'd-Din Baranī in his preface to the *Tārikh-i Firtzzhāhī* (p. 5, l. 6), states that the Khalifa 'Umar lived seven thousand years after Adam.

Page 107, note 8.

ASHRAF KHAR. A corrector and fuller biography of this grandes was given on p. 423. He died in 983, not 973.

Page 108, note 3.

KNANDIN. The collection of Delhi MSS, belonging to the Government of India has a copy of the Tazkirat 'l-Audiya written by Khandan in 920 a.m., and yet the Miraam 'l-Alam gives 915 as the year of his death.

Page 110, note 3, line 4.

BECHO. Though Bechā is a common Hindūstāni name, there is little doubt that the correct name of the saint is Panchū, or Panjū, ride p. 607. Badāoni (II, 54) gives as tārīkh of his death the words and tells the reader to subtract the middle letter (_), i.e. 971-2 = 969. Vide also my Essay on "Badāoni and his Works", Journal Asiatic Society of Bangol, 1869, p. 118.

Page 123, line 18

Samonim. Akbar's favourite gun. We know from the Tuzuk (p. 20) that Akbar killed with it Jatmall, the champion of Chitor.

Page 129, lines 27 to p. 130, line 2.

The reader is requested to substitute the following:---

Elephants are found in the following places—In the Sübah of Ägrah, in the jungles of Bayāwān and Narwar, he far as Barār; in the Sübah of Rāhābād, in the confines of Pannah, (Bhath) Ghorā, Ratanpūr, Nandanpūr, Sirguja, and Bastar; in the Sābah of Malwah, in Handiah, Uohhod, Chanderi, Santwās, Rijāgarh, Rāsun, Hoshangābād, Garha, and Hariāgarh; in the Sūbah of Bihār, about Rohtās and in Jhārkhand; and in the Sūbah of Bengal, in Orisā and in Sātgān—The elephants from Pannah are the hest.

Page 179, note 3.

Sulayman Kararani reigned in Bengal from 971 to 900.

Page 193, note 1.

Prince Murad was born on the 2rd Maharram, 978. Buddoni, II, 132. Vide below.

Page 203, middle, and note.

In the Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, for May, 1870 (p. 146), I have shown that the unclear words in Badžoni's text are:—

"the cunabula which is their time of mirth."

By "cunabula" the Jesuits meant the representations of the birth of Christ, in wax, etc., which they used to exhibit in Agrah and Lahor.

Page 281, line 8.

The Sadr read the khuibak in the name of the new king, and thus the juids became a fact. Khān, I, p. 52, l. 2, from below.

Page 282, middle.

MAWLANA 'And" 'L.Blof. Vide p. 596, note 3.

Page 321.

ARBAR'S WIVES. For Ragiyah the diminutive form Ruqayyah is to be substituted. Regarding Jodh Bāi vide next note.

Sulfan Salīma Begum. She is the daughter of Gulruich Begum, a daughter of Bābar. Mīrzu Nurs 'd-Dīn Muhammad, Gulruich's husband, was a Naqshbandi Khwāja. Gulruich Begum must not be confounded with another Gulruich Begum, who was the daughter of Mīrzā Kāmrān and wife of Ibrāhīm Husain Mīrsā (vide p. 516).

Of other women in Akbar's harem, I may mention (1) the daughter of Qari ¶aa (p. 498); (2) an Armenian woman, Tuzuk, p. 324. Vide also Keane's Agra Guidd, p. 38. (3) Qismiyah Bānū, married by Akbar in the 19th year (Akbaru., III, 94); (4) a daughter of Shams* 'd-Din Chak (Akbaru., III, 659).

Sultan Murad. He was married to a daughter of Mirza Azis Koka (p. 343). Their child, Sultan Rustam, did not live long (Akbarn., III, 539, 552).

SULTAN DANYAL. The correct date of his birth seems to be the 2nd Jumida I, 979, not the 10th; but the MSS, continually confounded ps and can His first wife was a daughter of Sultan Khwaja (p. 466), by whom he had a daughter of the name of Safadat Banu Begum, who was born in 1000 (Akbara., III, 643).

Page 323.

Jananoin's Wives. An additional list was given on p 533, note 1. Besides them, I may mention, (1) a daughter of Muhārak Chak of Kashmīr; (2) a daughter of Husain Chak of Kashmīr (Akbara., III, 659); (3) another Kashmīr lady, mentioned in Akbara., III, 639.

Page 329, middle.

DEATH OF MIRZA RUSTAM. Thus the date is given in the Ma'agir" 'I Umara; but from the Fadishahnama (II, 302) we see that Mirza Rustam died on, or a few days before, the 1-t Rabis I, 1052. The author adds a remark that "the manners (augas) of the Mirza did not correspond to his noble birth, which was perhaps due to the absence of nobility in his mother".

Page 329, line 4, from below.

QARA QUILI THEKS. The correct name is Qaraqoiniu. The Calcutta Chaght is Dictionary gives Qaraquiniu. Vambéry (History of Bolchara, p. 265, note) mentions

the Ustajiū, Shāmiū, Nikaliū, Bahārlū, Zū 'l-Qadr, Kājār, and Afshār, as the principal Turkish tribes that were living in Transcaucasia, on the southern shore of the Caspian and in the west of Khurāsān... Qarāqoinlū mesns " the black sheep tribe ".

Page 332, note 1.

The correct name of the place where Bayram was defeated in Gunachur, کوناچور, which lies S.E. of Jalindhar. The word کنور بهلور, which the Bibl. Indies Edition of Beda, ont gives, contains "Phillaur", which lies S.W. of Gunachur.

Page 342, note.

I do not think that Pir Muhammad came from the Sharwan mentioned in this note. It is more likely that he was a Shirwani Aighan.

Page 343, note.

This note has been corrected on p. 445, line 14, and p. 458, note.

Page 348, line 6, from below.

Zn't-Qann in the name of a Turkman tribe; vide above.

Page 361, last line.

GOGANDA. Regarding the correct date of the battle, ride p. 460, note 2.

Page 376.

Topan Mal. The Ma'deir" 'l-Umard says that Todar Mal was born at Lahor. But it is now certain that Todar Mal was born at Laharpür, in Audh : vide Proceedings Asiatic Society Bengal, September, 1871, p. 178.

Page 402, note 1.

Miyān Kāi... The note is to be cancelled. Miyān Kāl has been explained on p. 615, note

Page 404, line 4

Yosuv Kuln Regarding his death, eide Turuk, p. 328 His een Irrat Khin is wrongly called in the Bibl. Indica Edition of the Padichahnama (I, h. p. 302) غيرت خن (الله الله name was Azize 'lish; hence his title 'lasst

Page 412, line 1.

Qiann Kmin. I dere say the phrase "Chamanardi Khurdaan" merely means that he was Governor of Kābul.

Page 413, line 34.

Bigs Knin. He is often called "Khin Biqi Khin".

Page 423, line 15.

Min Blace. The spelling "Uigar" is now common, but in India the word in pronounced "Ighur". The query may be cancelled; seds p. 466, note 1.

Page 435, line 9.

DASTAM KELN. Vambery spells " Dostum ".

Page 454, middle.

- SHAYEN FARID-I BUENERI. That the name of Farid's father was Sayyid Ahmad-i Buhhāri, may be seen from the short inscription on the "Buhhāri Mosque" in the town of Bihār, which was built by Shaykh Lād, at the cost of Farid-i Buhhāri, and bears the date 16th Rajab, 1017.
- Mr. J. G. Delmerick has sent me the following inscription from Farid's Jami⁴ Masjid in Faridabad:—

بهد شاه نور الدین جهانگیر شهنشاهی بدین و داد واحسان اساس این بنای خیر بنهاد فرید عمر و ملت مرتضلی خان بعز وشوکت و جودو سخاوت خلف این الخاف تا شاه مردان رقم خیر القاع از خامه سرزد بنی تاریخ این جاوید بنیان

- 1. In the reign of Shah Nura 'd-Din, a king who is pious, just, and liberal,
- 2. Murtaph Khan, the unique one (farid) of the age and faith, erected this religious building.
- 3. He is honoured, powerful, generous, and liberal, a worthy descendant of the bing of men [Ali].
 - 4. As Tarikh of this lasting structure, the words Khayre 'l-Biqa' issued from the pention gives 1014 a.H.

Page 468, middle.

Khwija Tirin Muhammad. He is mentioned as a Sijistani on p. 528, among the Bakhshis.

Page 476, note 1.

MACCE KRAN-I KABULI. This robel, who gave Akbar no end of trouble, had the audacity to assume royal prerogatives in Bengal. The following inscription I received, through Bābū Rājendrālai Mitra, from Rāja Pramatha Nāth, Rājā of Dīghaputi, Rājshāhl. It was found in a ruined mosque at a village called Chatmohor, soe very far from Dīghaputi.

این مسجد رفیع در زمان سلطان الاعظم عمدة السادات ابو الفتع محمد معموم خان خلد الله ملکه ابدا یا رب و یا باقی بناکرد خان رفیع مکان عالبشان خان محمد س توی محمد خان فافشال فی سنه تسم و ثبانین و تسعیایة ۱۱

This infly marque was built during the time of the great Sulfan, the chief of Sayyide, Abu 'l-Fâth Muhammad Khān—May God perpetuate his kingdom for ever. O Lord, O Thou who remainent! by the high and establed Khān, Khān Muhammad, son of Tai Muhammad Khān Qāqshāl, in the year 989.

This was, therefore, nearly two years after the outbreak of the Bengal Military Revoit (9th Zi Hajjah, 987); vide p. 486.

Page 485, line 7.

PAYYIB MUHAMBAD. Regarding the correct date of his death, vide p. 548.

Page 490, line 27.

SCRAT. There is every probability that Scrath, and not Strat, is intended.

Page 506.

THE GARKHARS. Vide pp. 544, 545.

The places Pharwala and Dangali (Lin), not Dangali) mentioned in the note as the principal places in the Gakkhar District, are noticed in E. Terry's Voyage to East India (London, 1655, p. 88). "Kakares, the principal Cities are called Dekalee and Purhola; it is a large Province, but exceeding mountainous; divided it is from Tartaria by the Mountain Caucasus; it is the extremest part North under the Mogol's subjection."

De Lact also gives the same passage.

Page 512, line 1.

YARAQ KHĀN. The correct name is, I believe, Borāq Khān. Vide Vambé y's Bokhara, p. 153.

Page 552, middle.

Keen Häre. Regarding Küch Häjü and Küch Bihar and Mukatran: Khangeide viy article on these constries in Journal Asiatic Society Bengal for 1872, p. 54.

Page 553, line 5.

GHAZBÎN KHÂN, of Jâlor.

"The Pahlunpūr family is of Afghān origin, belonging to the Lohānī tribe, and, it is said, occupied Bihār in the reign of Humāyūn. They subsequently took service with the king of Dihli; and from Akbar Shāh, in a.c. 1597, Chazoīn Khān, the chief, obtained the title of Diwān for having successfully repulsed a univasion of Afghān tribes, for his services on this occasion, he was also rewarded with the government of Lāhor. In a.c. 1682, Fath Khān Diwān reseived the provinces of Jālor, Sānchor, Pahlunpūr, and Disah from Awrangzib. Fath Khān diesi in 1688, leaving an inity sen, Fir Khān, who was supplanted in his rights by his incle Kamāt Khāng who, subsequently, being unable to withstand the increasing power of the Rathors of Mārwār, was compelled, in a p. 1698, to quit the country (Jālor), and reture with his family and dependents to Pahlunpūr, where the family has remained ever since. Selections, Fombily Guerament Records, No. XXV.—New Series, p. 15.

Page 301 line 27.

"At I Qui I But Israzi.". Vambéry spells Ustajlu, which is the asine of a Turkish tribe; vide p. 687.

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19	333,	lines	27,	3 0 ,,	top,	**	'Abda 'l-Fath	91	Abu 'l-Fath.
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**	406,	++	7	**	top,	99	Khāwja Sultān 'Ali	**	Khwaja Sultan ^c Ali.
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**	507,	**	18	**	lottom,	**	p. 32 0	99	p. 336.
**	526 ,	**	18	**	top,	29	Ḥu sāmⁿ 'd -Din	09	Ḥusām ^a 'd∙Din.
**	5 3 2,	**	11	**	top,	99	Tagmal	**	Jagmal.
**	534.	**	16		bottom,	**	Murābādād	**	Murādābād.
99	53 9,	99	17	**	top,	**	Dodávari	**	Godāvari.
99	542,	90	30	92	top,	**	'Abū'l-Qādir	**	"Alid" 'l-Qădir.
93	54 3,	**	7	**	top,	.,	Arjum Singh	**	Arjan Singh.
,,	543,	P9	9	**	top,	**	246. Sakat Singh	**	256. Sakat Singh (vide line 17, p. 551).
**	57 3 , l	ines	5, 6	**	bottom.		p. 309	**	p. 321.
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99	614.	for .	18	99	bottom,	.,	vide p. 172	99	vide p. 181.
**	615.	99	7	***	bottom	99	vide p. 159, noto	99	vide p. 167, note.
**	642.	99	5 n	. ,,	bottom,	**	pp. 334 , 528	20	pp. 354, 596.
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٠,	67 U,	**	18 n	, 1	bottom.	, , 1	iethildl	99 (istikläl.
	672.	99	17	99	bottom.	•9	vide above, p. 353	**	vide above, p. 376.
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OF

ABUL FAZL-I-'ÄLLAMI

Vol II

A Gazetteer and administrative Manual of Akbar's Empire and past History of India.

Translated into English

By COLONEL H. S. JARRETT
Secretary and Member, Board of Examiners, Calculta.

SECOND EDITION

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

After the lamented death of H. Blochmann on 13th July, 1878, at the early age of 40 years only, a search among his papers showed that he had not translated any portion of the Ain-i-Akbari beyond the first volume which the Asiatic Society of Bengal was then publishing. In fact, his careful editing of the vast text of the Ain had been such a laborious task, and his English version of the first volume of it was such a monument of scholarship and tireless research in annotation, that he could not have had the time to begin the translation of the second volume. The Society entrusted his unfinished work to Lt.-Col. H. S. Jarrett, who finished printing the translation of the second volume in 1891. Thus, Jarrett had at his disposal only such works of reference and learned treatises on India as were in print in 1884-1889. The authorities cited by him in his notes, as I have pointed out in the Introduction to my revised edition of the 3rd volume of his translation, have proved to be obsolete and often useless in the light of our knowledge today.

Since 1890, a complete revolution in these branches of orientology and the history of Hindu and Muslim India has been effected by the publication of Hastings's Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics, the Encyclopædia of Islam, the Grundriss of Buhler, Elliot and Dowson's History of India as told by its own Historians, the Cambridge History of India, and many learned monographs on particular sovereigns and dynasties by Indian writers which touch the high-water mark of modern critical scholarship and exhaustive research.

All these authorities were unknown to Jarrett. His sole resource for the Hindu dynastic lists was Prinsep's Useful Tables (published in 1832) which is often based on this very Ain-i-Akbari and improved by reference to the mythical Purānas (as summarised in Wilson's translation of the Vishnu Purāna.) As for the Muslim rulers, he had to depend on the primitive History of India by Elphinstone (1841) or its source Firishta. Our reconstruction of Indo-Muslim history from inscriptions, coins and original Persian manuscripts was naturally missed by a writer of the years 1885-1889.

Therefore a mere reprint of Jarrett's translation and notes today would not do justice to the present state of Oriental scholarship and would naturally disappoint the modern reader. Thus the first task of an editor of Jarrett's translation is to correct and modernise his notes and elucidations by sweeping away his heaps of dead leaves, and giving more accurate information from the latest authorities. My second aim has been to lighten the burden of his notes, many of which are not only obsolete in information, but prolix to the point of superfluity. It is, I think, a mistake of the translator's duty to try to make a modern reader get all his ideas of Hindu philosophy, science, mythology, hagiography, and the topography and history of Muslim and Hindu India from the notes to an English translation of the Ain-i-Akbari. The modern reader will find very much fuller and far more accurate information on these subjects in the voluminous

encyclopædias, gazetteers and standard monographs published in the present century, which are available in the libraries of learned societies.

I have also economised space and saved the reader from frequent unnecessary interruptions, by the omission of Jarrett's notes on the emendations of the printed Persian text made by him (except in a few cases of vital importance.) The numberless variant readings which encumbered the pages of his second volume have been mostly cleared away by the acceptance of the true forms in the body of the book and rejecting all those that are palpably wrong or unhelpful in solving our doubt. It is well-known to the learned world that the editing of many of the volumes in the Persian and Arabic section of the Bibliotheca Indica series, was not done with the care and accuracy which characterise the oriental texts published in London or Paris, Leyden or Beyrut. Therefore all obvious misprints and wrong readings in the text of the Ain have been silently corrected in this revised edition of the translation, and many hundreds of notes of the first edition deleted.

The third volume of the Ain-i-Akbari is an encyclopædia of the religion, philosophy and sciences of the Hindus, preceded by the chronology and cosmography of the Muslims, as required by literary convention, for comparison with the Hindu ideas on the same subjects. The second volume was designed to serve as a Gazetteer of the Mughal Empire under Akbar. Its value lies in its minute topographical descriptions and statistics about numberless small places and its survey of the Empire's finances, trade and industry, castes and tribes.

Jarrett's translation of Volume II is weakest in this essential respect. For the more than six thousand place-names in this volume he could consult only Hunter's Imperial Gazetteer of India (in the rather crude early edition of 1887), but that work is quite unhelpful for the purpose of identifying the minute places mentioned in the Ain, and its volume of maps is on too small a scale to give the information we need. The highly useful and detailed provincial Gazetteers—such as Atkinson's N. W. P. Gazetteer and Campbell's Bombay Gazetteer, were completed after the Eighteen-eighties, too late for Jarrett's use. Nor did he consult the quarter-incin-to the mile maps of India published by the Surveyor-General and entitled the Indian Atlas. These two authorities,—the provincial Gazetteers and the Survey maps—are indispensably necessary for correctly tracing the place-names in the Ain-i-Akbari.

I have consulted these two primary works of reference and corrected Jarrett's (or Abul Farl's) names and notes, with infinite labour, the nature of which can be understood only by comparing the list of mahals in a district (sarkār) in Jarrett's edition with the corresponding page in mine. Nine-tenths of the place-names in this book have been identified and entered in the corrected spelling in the course of my revision. This improvement of Abul Fazl's work will be completed and the nature of the gain to our knowledge of Mughal Indian topography will become evident to the modern reader, after the publication of a supplementary volume, on which Prof. Nirod Bhusan Roy is now working and which will contain a very much enlarged geographical index giving the location and exact references to mapsheets and Gazetteer-pages for each place mentioned here

and discussing the probable location or necessary emendation of the small proportion of places not satisfactorily traced by me. Very many of the mistakes in Jarrett (or rather in the printed Persian text followed by him) were due to the wrong placing or omission of dots (nuqta) and the well-known confusion of certain letters of the Arabic alphabet by our copyists. These I have silently corrected.

The chapter on the subah of Kashmir, which was the most confused and wrongly spelt in this volume,—has been revised throughout by Professor Nirod Bhusan Roy, on the basis of Stein's Memoir and Chronicle of the Kings and the official Gazetteer (by Bates). But the necessary changes are so many that the new information has been lumped together at the end, instead of being distributed in countless footnotes on the respective pages, and the useless notes and extracts of the first edition have been omitted.

I am deeply obliged to Prof. N. B. Roy for the care and persistence with which he has assisted me in this work of revision and performed the exacting task of reading the proofs (up to p. 192) of such a difficult book. A special word of thanks is due to the Sri Gouranga Press, which has patiently and efficiently done the rather exasperating work of printing this volume from a copy of the first edition, whose rotten paper crumbled at the touch, and on which my ink corrections had made the text even less readable than before. The sight of this press copy had scared away two first-rate printing establishments in Calcutta to whom it was previously offered, and the acceptance of the work of printing it was really a favour shown to the Society and to learning, by the Sri Gouranga Press. For my appreciation of the manner in which, on the whole, Jarrett completed a stupendous task, I refer the reader to my Introduction to the Translation of the Third Volume of the Ain, 2nd edition.

The absence of uniformity in the transliteration of oriental words in the Roman alphabet, is explained by the facts, (1) that Jarrett himself did not follow one uniform system throughout the first edition printed by him, (2) that the rotten paper of the single copy of this first edition which was given to me for preparing my press-copy. made it impossible for me to erase wrong marks and insert the latestcurrent signs in most places, and (3) that the typing of the entire book and the insertion of diacritical marks uniformly according to the system at present followed by the Society, could not be carried out for financial reasons. In short, this edition had to be printed in the rough practical form that I have given to it, or not at all. But two little hints may be given here; in the unchanged portions of larrett's work the inverted comma stands for the letter aligh (in names like-ud-din), while in my portion it stands for the letter 'ain; and the mark over the long A (capital) could not be inserted owing to some technical difficulty in linetype composition.

EXTRACTS FROM JARRETT'S PREFACE

Whatever the verdict of those competent from linguistic knowledge and acquaintance with the abrupt, close and enigmatic style of the original to judge of the merits of my translation, no pains at least have been spared to render it a faithful counterpart consistently with a clearness of statement which the text does not everywhere show. The peculiar tone and spirit of Abul Fazl are difficult to catch and to sustain in a foreign tongue. His style, in my opiniou, is not deserving of imitation even in his own. merits as a writer have, in general, been greatly exaggerated. Omitting the contemporary and interesting memoirs of Al Badaoni, whose scathing comments on the deeds and motives of king and minister have an independent value of their own, the accident that Abul Fazl's works form the most complete and authoritative history of the events of Akbar's reign, has given them a great and peculiar importance as state records. This they eminently deserve, but as exemplars of style, in comparison with the immutable types of excellence fixed for ever by Greece and Rome, they have no place. His unique position in Akhar's court and service enhanced the reputation of all that he wrote, and his great industry in a position which secured wealth and invited indolence, fully merited the admiration of his countrymen. Regarded as a statistician, no details from the revenues of a province to the cost of a pine-apple, from the organisation of an army and the grades and duties of the nobility to the shape of a candlestick and the price of a curry-comb, are beyond his microscopic and patient investigation: as an annalist, the movements and conduct of his sovereign are surrounded with the impeccability that fences and deifies Oriental despotism, and chronicled with none of the skill and power, and more than the flattery of Velleius Paterculus: as a finished diplomatist, his letters to recalcitrant generals and rebellious viceroys are Eastern models of astute persuasion, veiling threats with compliments, and insinuating rewards and promises without committing his master to their fulfilment. But these epistles which form one of his monuments to fame. consist of interminable sentences involved ir frequent parentheses difficult to unravel, and paralleled in the West only by the decadence of taste, soaring in prose, as Gibbon justly remarks, to the vicious affectation of poetry, and in poetry sinking below the flatness and insipidity of prose, which characterizes Byzantine eloquence in the tenth century. A similar affectation, and probably its prototype, is to be found in the most approved Arab masters of florid composition of the same epoch, held by Ibn Khallikan's crude and undisciplined criticism to be the perfection of art, and which still remains in Hindustan the ideal of every aspiring scribe.

His annals have none of the pregnant meaning and point that in a few masterly strokes, exalt or brand a name to all time, and flash the actors of his drama across the living page in access that dwell for ever in the memory. The history of nearly forty-six years of his master's reign contains not a line that lives in household words

among his own countrymen, not a beautiful image that the mind delights to recall, not a description that rises to great power or pathos, nor the unconscious simplicity redeeming its wearisome length which lends such a charm to Herodotus, and which in the very exordium of Thucydides, in Lucian's happy phrase, breathes the fragrance of Attic thyme. His narrative affects a quaint and stiff phraseology which renders it often obscure, and continues in an even monotone, never rising or falling save in reference to the Emperor whose lightest mention compels the adoring prostration of his pen, and round whom the world of his characters and events revolves as its central sun. Whatever its merit as a faithful representation, in a restricted sense, of a reign in which he was a capable and distinguished actor, it lacks the interesting details and portraiture of the life and manners of the nation which are commonly thought to be below the dignity of history but which brighten the pages of Eastern historians less celebrated than himself, and are necessary to the light and shade of a perfect picture.

His statistical and geographical survey of the empire which this volume comprises is a laborious though somewhat lifeless compilation, of the first importance indeed as a record of a past and almost forgotten administration to guide and instruct the historian of the future or the statesman of to-day, but uninformed by deductive comment and illustration which might relieve the long array of bald detail. His historical summaries of dynasties and events in the various Subahs under their ancient autonomous rule, are incoherent abridgements. often so obscurely phrased as not to be understood without a previous knowledge of the events to which they relate and his meaning is rather to be conjectured than elicited from the grammatical analysis of his sentences. The sources from which he drew his information are never acknowledged. This of itself would have been of no moment and their indication might perhaps have disturbed the unity of his design had he otherwise so incorporated the labours of others with his own as to stamp the whole with the impress of originality, but he not seldom extracts passages word for word from other authors undeterred by the fear or heedless of the charge, of plagiarism.

Such, in my opinion, is the reverse of the medal which represents Abul Fazl as unrivalled as a writer and beyond the reach of imitation. The fashion of exaggerating the importance and merits of a subject or an author by those who make them their special study, especially when that study lies outside the common track of letters, inevitably brings its own retribution and ends by casting general discredit on what in its place and of its kind has its due share of honour or utility. The merit and the only merit of the Ain-i-Akbari is in what it tells and not in the manner of its telling which has little to recommend it. It will deservedly go down to posterity as a unique compilation of the systems of administration and control throughout the various departments of Government in a great empire, faithfully and minutely recorded in their smallest detail, with such an array of facts illustrative of its extent, resources, condition, population, industry and wealth as the abundant material supplied from official sources could furnish. This in itself is praise and fortune of no common order and it needs not the fictitious ascription of unparalleled powers of historiography in its support. The value of the Ain in this regard has been universally acknowledged by European scholars and it may not be out of place to quote here the opinion of the learned Reinaud on this work in his 1st vol. of the Geographie d' Abulfeda, as it accurately represents its nature and worth and the style and quality of its literary composition. He writes:—

"Muslim India offers us, at the commencement of the 17th century, a work of compilation, which is of great interest for geography; it is a Persian treatise composed by Abul Fazl, the minister of the Mughal Emperor Akbar, and entitled the Ain-i-Akbari or the Institutes of Akbar. The empire founded in India by Babur, had attained, under the reign of Akbar, a great extension, and stretched from Afghanistan up to the head of the Gulf of Bengal, from the Himalaya up to the Deccan. Due to the excellent government established by Akbar, the provinces, long ravaged by intestine wars, had acquired a new shape. On the other hand, the liberal views of the Emperor and of his ministers, had nothing in common with the narrow and exclusive spirit which characterises Islam, and they had caused to be translated into Persian the best works of Sanskrit literature. Abul Fazl, putting himself at the head of a body of scholars, undertook a geographical, physical and historical description of the empire, accompanied by statistical tables. of the sixteen subahs or Governments of which the Mughal empire was then composed, is there described with minute exactitude; the geographical and relative situation of the cities and boroughs (market towns, qasba) is there indicated; the enumeration of the natural and industrial products is carefully traced there; as also the names of the princes, both Hindu and Musalman, to whom the subah had been subject before its inclusion in the empire. We next find an exhibition of the military condition of the empire and an enumeration of those who formed the household of the sovereign, &c. The work ends in a summary, made in general from indigenous sources, of the Brahmanic religion, of the diverse systems of Hindu philosophy. &c.

The author, by the pursuit of a misplaced erudition has accomplished the style of the ancient Persian authors; it is often difficult to understand it. In 1783, Francis Gladwin, encouraged by the Governor-General Hastings, published an abridged English version of the work. (He then condemns Gladwin's defects,—inaccuracy, confusion, and 'horrible alteration' of indigenous, particularly Sanskrit, words in transcribing them in the Arabic Alphabet, and calls for a new edition as a very useful service to students.)

In the table of the names of places confusion exists in the original text. Evidently, the person who in that early age was charged with the drawing up of the table had little knowledge of geography."

H. S. JARRETT.

Calcutta, 1901

Translated from French into English by J. Serker for the second edition.

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BOOK THIRD

IMPERIAL ADMINISTRATION

Since somewhat of the recent imperial institutions regulating the Army and the Household have been set down, I shall now record the excellent ordinances of that sagacious intellect that energizes the world.

'A IN I

THE DIVINE ERA

The connection of monetary transactions without fixity of date would slip from the grasp, and through forgetfulness and falsehood raise a tumult of strife; for this reason every community devises a remedy and fixes an epoch. Since thought fosters well-being and is an aid to facility (of action), to displace obsolete chronology and establish a new usage is a necessity of government. For this reason, the prince regent on the throne of felicity in the 29th year of the Ilāhi Divine Era, for the purpose of refreshing that pleasure-ground of dominion and revenue, directed its irrigation and rendered blooming and lush the palace-garden of the State.

Compassing events within a determinate time, the Persian calls māhroz (date); the Arab has converted this into mu'arrakh (chronicled), and thence "tārikh (date) is a household word. Some derive the Arabic from irākh, a wild bull." This conjugation of the measure of tafa'il means, to polish. As ignorance of the time of an event grew less, it

Akbarnamah (Beveridge's trans), iii. 644; this era was introduced at the beginning of the 29th regual year, 8 Rabi A. 962=10th March 1584.

Deginning of the 25th regular year, 8 km A. 302=10th march 1884.

³ Encyclopaedia of Islam, Supplement, p. 230: "The root of the word tārikh (meaning era, date) is w-r-kh, common to the Semitic languages, which we find for example in the Hebrew yerah, month.... The survival of a tradition in al-Birani is interesting; according to this, the word is an arabisation of the Persian māhruz; here again there is the vague consciousness that the word has something to do with fixing the beginning of the Bonth. al-Khwarizmi in his Mastik al-Ulum expressly states that this tradition is to be rejected." Abul Farl's etymology is sometimes as bad as his geography. [1.8.]

became distinguished by this name. Some assert that it is transposed from 'tākhir which is referring a late period to an antecedent age. Others understand it to be a limit of time wherein an event determines. They say "such a one is the tarikh of his tribe," that is, from whom dates the nobility of his line. It is commonly understood to be a definite day to which subsequent time is referred and which constitutes an epoch. On this account they choose a day distinguished by some remarkable event,3 such as the birth of a sect, a royal accession, a flood or an earthquake. considerable labour and the aid of fortune, by constant divine worship and the observance of times, by illumination of the understanding and felicity of destiny, by the gathering to-gether of far-seeing intelligences and by varied knowledge especially in the exact sciences and the Almighty favour, observatories were built: wonderful upper and lower rooms with diversity of window and stair arose on elevated sites little affected by dust.

By this means and with the aid of instruments such as the armillary sphere and others double-limbed and bi-tubular,4 and the quadrant of altitude,5 the astrolabe, the globe and others, the face of astronomy was illumined and the computation of the heavens, the position of the stars, the extent of their orbits in length and breadth, their distance from each other and from the earth, the comparative magnitude of the heavenly bodies and the like were ascertained. So great a work without the daily increasing auspiciousness of a just monarch and his abundant solicitude, is not to be accomplished. The gathering together of learned men of liberal minds is not achievable simply by means of ample

* This passage is so strikingly similar to the opening of the 3rd chapter of Al Biruni's Athar ni Baqiya that it can scarcely be accidental. There is nothing to hinder the supposition that Abul Fazl was acquainted with that writer's works and not a little indebted to him. [H. S. J.]

I cannot determine accurately what these may be. It is possible that the first may be the skaphium of Aristarchus which was a gnomon, the shadow of which was received on a concave hemispherical surface, having the extremity of its style at the centre, so that angles might be measured directly by arcs instead of the tangents. The second may refer to the invention of Archimedes to ascertain the apparent diameter of the sun by invention of Archimedes to ascertain the apparent diameter of the sun by an apparatus of double cylinders. There was another, too, of Aristarchus to find the distance of the sun by measuring the angle of elongation of the moon when dichotomized. The kitab ul Fibrist mentions only the astrolube and the armillary sphere, p. 284. Sedillot (Prologomenes des Tables Astron. d'Olong Beg) speaks of a "gnomon a trou" used by Nasiruddin Tusi.

So I venture to interpret the term. Dozy (Supplem. Dict. Arah.) quotes Berbrugger on this word "Ruba'a-el-moudjib, le quart de cercle horodictique, instrument d'une grande simplicite dont ou fait usage pour connaître l'heure par la hauteur du soleil." Moudjib should be "mujayyab',

wealth, and the philosophic treatises of the past and the institutions of the ancients cannot be secured without the most strenuous endeavours of the sovereign. With all this, thirty years are needed to observe a single revolution of the seven planets. The longer the period and the greater the care bestowed upon a task, the more perfect its completion.

In this time-worn world of affliction Divine Providence has vouchsafed its aid to many who have attained considerable renown in these constructions, such as Archimedes, Aristarchus and Hipparchus in Egypt, from whose time to the present, the 40th year of the divine era, 1769 years have clapsed; such as Ploteny in Alexandria who flourished some 1410 years ago; as the Caliph Māmun in Baghdad, 790 years past, and Sind bin 'Ali and Khālid bin 'Abdul Malik al Marwazi 764 years since at Damascus. Hākım and Ibn' Aa'lam also laid the foundations of an observatory at Baghdad which remained unfinished, 712 years, and Battāni' at Raqqa 654 years previous to this time. Three

The ancients gave the name of planets to the five planets visible to the maked eye, and the sun and moon. The names of the five—Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Seturn first occur in the cosmical scheme of Philolans (Lewis. Astron. of the Ancients) The thirty years must refer to that planet of the seven occupying the longest period in its revolution, namely, Saturn which was the most remote then known. It takes 29 years and 5½ months (very nearly) to return to the same place among the fixed stars, whether the centre of motion be the Sun or the Earth.

It is needless to say that all these figures are very inexact. Archimedes flourished 287-212 B.C., Aristarchus somewhwere about 280-264 B.C., and Hipparchus is placed by Suidas at from B.C. 160 to 145, and yet they are all bracketed together. The date of Pleteny Aliustrious as he is as a mathematician, a tronomer and geographer, is uncertaint. He observed at Alexandria, A.D. 139 and was alive in A.D. 161. Mannan succeeded to the Caliphate on the 24th September 813. He caused all Greek works that he could procure to be translated, and in particular the Almagest of Plotemy. Almagest is a compound of the Greek with a prefix of the Arabic article. Encycl. Metropolitano, Art. Astron.)

Encycl. Metropolitano, Art. Astron.)

Abu Tayyib Sind-b-'Ali was a Jew converted to Islam in the Caliphate

(1 Mömun and was appointed his astronomer and superintendent of obser-

^{*}Khalld-b-'Abdul Malik, A.H. 217 (882) a native of Mers. He is included among three astronomers who first among the Arabs, instituted observations from the Shammasiyah observatory at Baghdad

observations from the Shanmasivah observatory at Baghelad "Blow at 'A'a'lam A.H. 375 (A.D. 985), stood in great credit with Adhad ad daulah, but finding himself in less estimation with his son Simusud Daulah, he left the court but returned to Baghelad a year before his death. His astronomical tables were celebrated not only in his own time but by later astronomers.

inter astronomers.

Muhammad 5. Jahir al Battani (Albatenius), a native of Harran and inhabitant of Raqua. His observations were begun in A.H. 264 (A.D. 877-8) and he continued them till A.H. 306 Ency. Islam, i. 080, "one of the greatest of Arab astronomers," (where details about his writings and achievement); he died in 317 A.H. He was surnamed the Ptolemy of the Arabs. He corrected the determination of Ptolemy respecting the motion of the stars in longitude, ascertaining it to be one degree in 70 instead of 100 years; modern observations make it one degree in 72 years. He also determined very exactly the eccentricity of the ecliptic and corrected the

hundred and sixty-two solar years have passed since Khwājah¹² Nasir of Tus built another at Murāgha near Tabriz and 155 is the age of that of Mirzā Ulugh Begis in

Samargand.

Rasad signifies 'watching' in the Arabic tongue and the watchers, therefore, are a body who, in a specially-adapted edifice, observe the movements of the stars and study their aspects. The results of their investigations and their discoveries regarding these sublime mysteries are tabulated and reduced to writing. This is called an astronomical table (zij). This word is an Arabicized form of the Persian, zik which means the threads that guide the embroiderers in weaving brocaded stuffs. In the same way an astronomical table is a guide to the astronomer in recognising the conditions of the heavens, and the linear extensions and columns, in length and breadth, resemble these threads. It is said to be the Arabic rendering of zih from the frequent necessity of its use, which the intelligent will understand. Some maintain it to be Persian, signi-

length of the year, making it consist of 365 days, 5 hours, 46 minute, 24 seconds, which is about 2 minutes short of but 4 minutes nearer the truth than had been given by Ptolemy. He also discovered the motion of the

apogee.

13 Nasiru'ddin is the surname of Abu Ja'far Md. b. Muhammad-b-Hasan or Ibn Muhammad at Tusi, often simply called Khwājah Nasiru'ddin (A.H. 597-672). Hulāku the Tartar chief placed him at the head of the philosophers has elemency had spared in the sack of Moslem and astronomers whom his elemency had spared in the sack of Moslem towns, and gave him the administration of all the colleges in his acquired dominions. The town of Maragha in Azarbayjan was assigned to him and he was ordered to prepare the astronomical tables which were termed Imperial (Blkhān). [Enc. Islam, iv. 980, under al-Tusi]

13 Ulugh Beg, (name Muhammad Turghāi) born 1393, died 1449 A.D., was the son of Shah Rukh and grandson of Tamerlane. In 810 he possessed the government of some provinces of Khorasān and Mazanderān and sales.

was the son of Shah Rukh and grandson of Tamerlane. In 810 he possessed the government of some provinces of Khorasan and Mazanderan and in 812, that of Tarkistan and Transoxania. He, however, quickly abandoned politics and devoted himself passionately to his favourite studies. He desired that his tables show'd be scrupplously exact and procured the best instruments them available. These at this period, were of extraordinary size. The obliquity of the ecliptic was observed in A.D. 995 with a quadrant of 15 cubits and 992 had a radius of 40 cubits (57 feet 9 inches). The quadrant used by Ulugh Beg to determine the elevation of the pole at Samarqand, was as high as the summit of St. Sophia at Constantinople (about 180 feet). The astronomy had produced only one catalogue of the fixed stars, that of astronomical tables were first published in A.H. 841 (A.D. 1437). The ancient astronomy had produced only one catalogue of the fixed stars, that of Hipperclaus. Ulugh Beg, after an interval of sixteen centuries, produced the second. His observatory at Samarqand (begun in 1428 under the architect Ali Qualiji), in its day was regarded as one of the wonders of the world. These corrected Ptolemy's computations and compiled the Ziji-Jadid Sulland. These tables became celebrated in Europe—trans. by Hyde in 1665, by the period of astronomical works in the East finishes." [Ency. Islam, iv. 994-996.]

For the compilation of Astronomical Tables by Muslima (sif), see Enc. [slans, i. 408.

fying a mason's rule, and as he, through its instrumentality determines the evenness of a building, so an astronomer aims at accuracy by means of this astronomical table.

Many men have left such compilations to chronicle

their fame. Among these are the Canons of.

1. Majur the Turk.

There are two of this family whom Sedillot terms the Benou Amajour. Hammer-Purgstall makes them the same person but adds another name Abul Qāsim 'Abdullah. According to him, they were brothers, and the former was the author of the Canon called al Bedia or "the Wonderful;" the latter of works on other astronomical tables with disputed titles. He appears to quote from the Fihrist and from Casini who borrows from Ibn Jounis, but the Fihrist distinctly states that Abu'l Hasan was the son not the brother of Ali b. Amajur. Ibn Jounis speaks of Abul Qāsim also, and as a native of Herat. The Benou Amajur were astronomers of repute and made their observations between the years 885-933, leading the way to important discoveries. (Sed p. xxxv et seq).

- 2. HIPPARCHUS.
- 3. PTOLEMY.
- 4. Pythagoras.
- 5. ZOROASTER.
- 6. THEON OF ALEXANDRIA.
- 7. SAMAT THE GREEK.

Another reading is Sabat but I cannot recognize nor trace the name satisfactorily. The epithet Yunāni inclines me to believe the name to be that of a Greek astronomer in Islamic times.

8. Thibit-b-Qurrah b Hārun was a native of Harrān, of the Sabean sect, and rose to eminence in medicine, mathematics and philosophy, born A. H. 221 (A.D. 836), died in A. H. 288 (A.D. 901). He was much favoured by the Caliph al Muatadhid who kept him at Court as an astrologer. He wrote on the Spherics of Theodosius, and retranslated Euclid already turned into Arabic by Hunain-b-Ishāq al Ibādi. He was also author of a work in Syriac on the Sabean doctrines and the customs and ceremonies of their adherents. Ibn Khall. D'Herb. Sedillot. p. xxv et seq. For a list of his works, see the Fibrist, p. 272.

9. Husīm b. Sinan (var. Shabāq.)

I believe the first name to be an error. The Fihrist mentions a son of Sinan with the patronymic Abul Hasan who is no doubt here meant. He was grandson of Thābit-b-Qurrah, and named also Thābit according to D'Herb. as well as Abul Hasan after his grandfather. (Sedillot). Equally preficient in astronomy with his grandfather, he was also a celebrated physician and practised in Baghdad. He wrota history of his own time from about A.H. 290 to his death in 360. Abul Faraj speaks of it as an excellent work. See also Ibn Khall. De Slane. Vol. II. p. 260 and note 7. His father Sinān the son of Phābit-b-Quarrah, died at Baghdad A.H. 331. They were both Harranians, the last representatives of ancient Greek learning through whom Greek sciences were communicated to the illiterate Araba.

Sinān made a collection of meteorological observations called the Kitāb ul anwā, compiled from ancient sources, incorporated by Albiruni in his Chronology, and thereby preserved to us the most complete Parapegma of the ancient Greek world. See Albiruni, Chronol, Sachau's Transl. p. 427 n.

10. THĀBIT-b-MUSA.

I can find no such name. The Fihrist gives Thabit-b-Ahusa, head of the Sabean sect in Harran.

11. Muhammad-b-Jabir al Battāni. See p. 3, note 11.

12. AHMAD-b-'ABDULLAH JABA.

Jaba is a copyist's error for Habsh. He was one of Al Mānnun's astronomers, and distinguished by the title of Al Hāsib or the Reckoner. He was employed by Mānnun at Sinjar to observe the obliquity of the Ecliptic and to test the measurements of geometrical degrees. He compiled a set of tables by the Caliph's order. Ham. Purg. B. III, p. 260. Abul Faraj (ed. 1663, p. 247) says that he was the author of three Canons; the first modelled on the Sindhind, the second termed Mumtahan or Proven (after his return from his observations) and the third the Lesser Canon, known as the 'Shāh'.

ABU RAYHĀN.

Abu Rayhān-Muhammad-b-Ahmad Albiruni, born 362 A. 11. (A. D. 973), d. 440. (Ar. D. 1048). For further particulars I refer the reader to Sachau's preface to the *Indica* and the *Chrenology* of this famous savant.

- 14. Khālid-b-'Abdul Malik. See p. 3, note 9.
- 15. YAHYA-b-MANSUR.

More correctly Yahya-b-Abi Mansur, was one of Ai Mansur's most famous astronomers. Abul Faraj (p. 248), says that he was appointed by that Caliph to the Shammāsiyah observatory at Baghdad and to that of Mount Qāsiun at Damascus. The Fibrist gives a list of his works (p. 275) and (p. 143) his genealogy and descendants who appear to have shared and augmented their father's fame. He died about 833, (A. H. 218) in Māmun's expedition to Tarsus and was buried at Aleppo. Enc. Islam, iv. 1150.

16. Hāmid Marwarudi.

This is doubtless, Abu Hāmid, Ahmad-b-Muhammad as Sāghāni. Saghan is a town near Marw. Ibn Khallikan's derivation of Marwarrud will explain the difference in the titulal adjectives of place. I transcribe De Slane, V. I, p. 50. "Marwarradi means native of Marwarrud, a well known city in Khorasan, buth on a river, in Persian ar-rud, and situated 40 parasangs from Mar .: as Shāhjān; these are the two Marws so frequently mentioned by poets: the word Shāhjān is added to the name of the larger one from which also is derived the relative adjective Marwazi; the word rud is joined to that of the other city in order to distinguish between them. Marwarud has for relative adjective Marwarrudi and Marwazi, also, according to as Samāni." Shāhjān is, of course, Sāghān. Abu Hāmid was one of the first geometricians and astronomers of his time (d. 379, A. H. 898), and a maker of astrolabes at Baghdad and was employed to certify the correctness of the royal astronomical reports. Ham Purg. B. V. 313:

17. MUGHITHI. Perhaps. Mughni tabulae astronomicae suffi-

cientes, mentioned by Hāji Khalifa, p. 568, Art. Zich.

SHARQI. (Var. Sharfi.) probably Abul Qasim as Saraqi of whom Casiri writes. 'Abulcassam Alsaraki Aractensis (of Raqqa), Atrologiæ judiciariæ et astronomiæ doctrina, uti etiam Tabularum et Spheræ peritia haud ignobilis, inter familiares atque intimos Saifeldaulati Ali-ben-Abdalla-ben Hamdan, per ca tempora Regis, habitus est, quibuscumque Sermones Academicos frequens conferebat (Saifeldaulatus Syriæ Rex, anno Egiræ 356 obiit. (Sedillot, p. xlviii.)

19. ABUL WAPĀ-NURHĀNI. An error for Buzjāni. Buzjān is a small town in the Nisabur district in the direction of Herat. He was born A. H. 328 (939) d. 388 (998). In his 20th year he settled in Iraq. A list of his works will be found in the Fihrist, p. 283. Ham. Purg. B. V. 306. His Canon was termed "as Shāmil." His most important work was the Almagest, which contains the formulas of tangents and secants employed by Arab geometricians in the same manner as in trigonometrical calculations of the present day. In the time of Al Battani, sines were substituted for chords. By the introduction of tangents he simplified and shortened the expression of circular ratios. His anticipation of the discoveries of Tycho Brahe, may be seen in Sed. p. ix. Enc. Isl, i. 133, s.v. Abu-l-Wala.

THE JAMI'. (Plura continens)

THE BALIGH (Summum attingens) Kyahushyar. 21.

THE 'ADHADI.

Kushyār-b-Kenān al Hanbali, wrote three Canons, according to Hāji Khalifa. Two were the Jāmi' and the Sāli' (Baligh is however confirmed by D'Herbelot, art. Zigi. These works were on stellar computations, on almanacy the motions of the heavenly bodies and their number, supported by geometrical proofs. His compendium (mujural) summarises their contents (p. 564) The Jāmi' is again mentioned lower down as a work in 85 chapters applied by the author to rectify or elucidate the Persian era. He added to it a Supplement in illustration of each chapter of the Jami'. The third Canon is called simply Zij Kushyar translated into Persian by Md-b-'Umar-b-Abi Talib at Tabrizi. This was probably dedicated to Adhad ud Daulah Alp Arslan, lord of Kinyasan, who had condescended to accept this title from his creature the feeble Qāim bi amri llāh at Baghdad. Hence, I conjecture, the name Adhadi.

SULAYMAN-b-MUHAMMAD. Untraceable. This name does not

occur in one of the MSS, of the Ain.

ABU HAMID ANSARI.

The only descendant of the Ausars that I can find among the astronomers is Ibn us Shatir. d. 777 A. H. (1375); the name was Alauddin, patronymic not given. See Haj. Khal. pp. 557, 566. It is possible that the celebrated Abu Hāmid al Ghazzāli may be meant

SAFAIH. Evidently the name of a Canon and not of its 25

author.

26. Abul Farah Shirkei.

Majatta'. Apparently the name of a Canon mentioned by Hăji Khalifar auctore Ibn Shari', collecta de astrologia judiciaria.

28. MURHTAR auct. Shaikh Abu Mansur Sulaiman b. al Husainb-Bardowaih. Another work of the same name (Dilectus e libris electionis dierum, astrologicæ) was composed by the physician Abu Nasr Yahya b. Jarir at Takriti for Sadid ud Daulah Abul Ghanāim Karim.

29. ABUL HASAN TUSI. This name occurs in the Filirist (p. 71) as that of a scholar learned in tribal history and poetry. A son of the same name is mentioned as a distinguished doctor, but there is no notice of his astronomical knowledge.

30. Ahmad-b-Ishāo Sarakhsi.

The name of Ishāq does not occur in the genealogy of any Sarakhsi that I can discover. The text probably refers to Ahmad-b-Md. b. at Tayyib, the well known preceptor of the Caliph al Muatadhid by whom he was put to death in A. H. 286 (899) for revealing his pupil's confidences. D'Herb. states that he wrote on the Eisagaege of Porphirius, and Albiruni (Chronology) mentions him as an astrologer and cites a prophecy of his where he speaks of the conjunction of Saturn and Mars in the sign of Cancer.

31. GHARĀRI. Probably Al Fazāri. Abu Ishāq Ibrahim-b-Habib the earliest maker of astrolabes among the Arabs, who was the author of a canon and several astronomical works. Fibrist, p. 273, date not

given.

32. -AL HĀRUNI.

It is difficult in such bald mention of names, where so many are alike, to be sure of the correctness of allusion. This is, probably, Hārun-b-al Munajjim, an astrologer, native of Baghdad and an accomplished scholar. His great grandfather was astrologer to the Caliph al-Mansur and his son Yahya served al Fadhl-b-Sahl in the same capacity, died A. H. 288 (901). Ibn Khall. IV, p. 605.

33. ADWAR I KIRAIN (Cycles of conjunctions) the name of a

Canon whose author I cannot discover.

34. YAKUB-b-TĀUS.

I may safely hazard the emendation Tariq for Tāus. This astronomer is mentioned by Albiruni. Ham. Purg. gives his date A, H. 218 (833) and a list of his works apparently copied from the Fihrist, p. 278.

35. KHWĀRAZMI.

Muhammad-b-Musa, by command of al Māmun, compiled an abridgement of the Sindhind (Siddhānta); better known as a mathematician than as astronomer—see Sedillot, I. xvi. He was the author of a Canon according to the Fihrist, p. 274. Enc. Isl. ii. 912.

36. YUSUFI. The secretary of Al Mamun, Abut Tayyib-h-'Abdillah is the only name I discover in this relative form. The Fihrist, 'p. 123) mentions no astronomical works of his. Perhaps, Yusuf-b-Ali Thatta (1043) or Ibn Yusuf al Massisi may be meant: the text is too vague to determine accurately.

37. Wāri—the work of Ulugh Beg "fi Mawāh ul āamāl un Najumiya" (de transtitibus operationum astronomicarum) is the only

title approaching that of the text that I discover.

38. JAUZHARAYN—Jauzhar the Arabic form of Gauzhar, is the head and tail of Draco. The two points in the Ecliptic which mark its intersection by the orbit of a planet in ascent and descent, are called its Nodes or two Jauzhars—(Istilābāt ul Funon.) There is a Canon called Fi Maqawam al Juzhar de motu vero capitis et caudædraconis, by Shaikh Ibn ul Qādir al Barallusi—see Haj-Khall, p. 561,

39. Sama'ani. D'Herbelot mentions under this surname Abu Saad Abdul Karim Muhammad, the author of a work on Mathematics entitled Adāb fi istimāl il Hisāb. A. H. 506—62. The Fihrist p. 244, records another Samaān as a commentator on the Canon of Ptolemy, and a third Ibn Samaān, the slave of Abu Mashar, and author of an astronomical work.

40. IBN SAHRA.

The variants of this name suggest its doubtful orthography. Ibn Abi Sahari is mentioned by Ham. Purg. as an astrologer of Baghdad whose predictions were fortunate. He lived in the latter half of the century, 132—232, (749—846) the most brilliant period in the annals of Arab literature.

41. ABUL FADHL MÄSHALLAH, incorrectly Mäshada in the text.—Born in Al Mansur's reign, he lived to that of Al Mämun. His name "What God wills" is simply a rendering of the Hebrew Mischa. The Fihrist calls him Ibn Athra and notes his voluminous writings, copied by Ham, Purg. B. III. 257.

42. 'Aāsımı—untraceable.

- 43. Kabir of Abu Ma'shar—a native of Balkh, a contemporary and envious rival of Al Kindi.—At first a traditionist, he did not begin the study of astronomy till after the age of 47. He died at Wasit exceeding the age of 100, A. H. 272, (885)—An astronomer and astrologer of great renown. In the latter capacity, he paid the penalty of success in a prediction by receiving a flogging at the command of Al Musta'in; upon which his epigram is recorded. "I hit and got hit." Thirty-three of his works are named in the Fibrist, p. 277. He was known in Europe as Albumaser and his works translated into Latin, see Sachau's Albiruni (Chronol.) p. 375,—also Haj. Khal. art. zij.
 - 44. SIND-b-'ALI. See note p. 3.
 - 45. IBN AÄLAM. See note p. 3.
 - 46. SHAHRYĀRĀN.

This Canon occurs in Albiruni (Chronol.) with the addition of the word Shāh.—Sachau confesses his ignorance of it. Haj. Khal. gives a Canon called Shahryar which is well-known—translated into Arabic by At Tamimi from the Persian. Fihrist, 244. v. also Sachau's preface to Albiruni's India, p. xxx.

47. ARKAND.—In Albiruni called "the days of Arkand." The more correct form according to Reinaud, Memoire sur l Inde, p. 322, would be the Sanskrit Ahargana—See Sachau's note p. 375 of Albiruni's Chronol. from which I quote.

Albiruni made a new edition of the Days of Arkand, putting into clearer words and more idiomatic Arabic, the then existing transla-

tion which followed too closely the Sanskrit original.

48. IBN SUFI.

Al Shaikh Md b. Abil Fath as Sufi al Misri wrote an epitome of the Canon of Ulugh Beg with additional tables and notes. It was with reference to this epitome that the work of Al Barallusi, Bihjat ul Fahr fi Hall is Shams Wal Qamr was written, of which the Jauzhar, one of its three parts, is alluded to in 38.

49. SEHALĀN KĀSHI.

Sehelan, Sehilan or Ibn Sehilan according to D'Herbelot was the name of the Minister of Sultan ud Daulah of the Buyide family, whose enmity with his brother Mushrafud Doulah was due to the policy or personal feeling of that statesman. A canon might have been published under his patronage and name.

50. AHWAZI. D'Herbelot alludes to several authors under this name; one a commentator on Euclid. The Fihrist names Md-b-Ishaq al Ahwazi, without date. He appears to have written on agriculture

and architecture.

51. THE 'URUS OF ABU JAFAR BUSHANJI.

Bushanj, according to Yaqut (Mujam il Buldan) is a small town about 40 miles from Herat, which has given birth to some eminent scholars, but I can find no astronomer among them.

52. ABUL FATH-Shaikh Abul Fath as Sufi who amended the

tables termed Samarqandi. Haji Khal, 566, III.

53. A'KKAH RÄHIBI-untraceable.

MASAUDI.-The Canon Masudicus is extant in 4 good copies in European libraries, and waits for the combination of two scholars, an astronomer and an Arabic philologist, for the purpose of an addition and translation, v. Sachau, pref. to Alberuni's India. p. xvi. Enc. Islam, iii. 403.

55. MUATABAR OF SANJARI. The surname of Abul Fath Abdur Rahman, called the treasurer; he was a slave of Greek origin, in the service of A'li al Khāzin al Marwazi and much in his favour. On the completion of his Canon, the Sultan Sanjar sent him a thousand dinars which he returned. Haj. Khal. III. 564.

56. WAJIZ-I-MUATABAR is doubtless, as its name imports, an

epitome of the foregoing.

57. AHMAD ABDUL JALIL SANJARI, author of two ireatises on stellar influences. D'Herbelot mentions him as an astrologer of note, but adds no particulars.

58. MUHAMMAD HASIB TABARI.

Untraceable.

59. 'ADANI.

60. TAYLASĀNI.

61. ASĀBAI.

62. KIRMĀNI.

These are names of tables which I do not find mentioned. By the term Taylasan is meant a paradigm showing astronomical calculations, in the shape of half an oblong quadrangular field divided by a diagonal. It is named after the form of the Scarf (Taylasān) worn by learned men in the East. A model will be found in Albiruni's Chronology. (Sachau), p. 133.

63. SULTAN 'ALI KHWĀRAZMI. Ali, Shah-b-Md-b-il Qāsim commonly known as 'Alauddin Al Khwarazmi, the author of a Canon called Shāhi--the royal; also of a Persian epitome from the Elkhāni Tables, called the Umdat ul Elkhaniya. Haj. Khal. p. 565, III.

64. FARHIR 'ALI NASABI

The variants indicate a corrupt reading—untraceable.

65. THE 'ALAI OF SHIRWANI. Fariduddin Abul Hasan Ali-b-il Karim as Shirwani, known as Al Fahhād, eminent among the later astronomers, the author of several canons besides the one mentioned -See Haj. Khal. p. 567, in two places.

There are two other Canons called 'Alai, H. K. 556-7.

66. RAHIRI-var. Zahidi-untraceable.

- 67. Mustawri-mentioned by Haj. Khal. without author's name.
 - 68. MUNTAKHAB (Selectus) OF YAZDI.

69. ABU RAZĀ YAZDI.

Yazd is a town between Naysabur and Shiraz. I find no record of either the canon or the astronomer.

70. KAYDURAH.

71. IKLILI.

Al Iklil is the 17th Lunar Station—three stars in the head of Scorpio. I infer from the absence of any mention of such astronomers that these canons are named after stars. I can learn nothing of Kaydurah.

72. Nasiri-perhaps called after Nasirud-Daulah-b-Hamdan,

temp. Mutii billah, A.H. 334. (946 A D.) 73. MULAKHKHAS. (Summarium).

- 74. DASTUR. Dastur ul Aml fi Tashih il Jadwal—a Persian commentary by Mahmud-b-Mahd.-b-Kādhizāda (known as Meriem Chelebi, in H. K. and D'Herb.) of the Canon of Ulugh Beg. See H. K. p. 560, III, and Sedillot, clv. I.
 - 75. MURAKKAB. (Compositus).
 - 76. Miklamah. (Calamarium).

77. 'Asā. (Baculas)

78. SHATSALAH. Var. Sashtalah.

79. HASIL. (Commodum).

- 80. Khatai. A name of N China; its people possessed an Astronomical Calendar in common with the Aighur Tribe, v. D'Herb. Art. Igur.
 - 81. DAYLAMI.

This is a bare list of tables of whose authors there is no certain record. Two of them, Khatai and Daylam point to the countries where they were in vogue. Kublai Khan the brother of Hulaku after his conquest of China, introduced into the Celestial Empire the astronomical learning of Baghdad, and Cocheon-king in 1280, received the tables of Ibn Yunas from the hands of the Persian Jamaluddin. For the extent of Chinese science at this time, see Sedillot. ci. I.

82. MUFRAD. (Simplex) OF MD.-b-AYYUB.

This Canon is in H. K. without the author's name.

83. KIMIL (Integer) OF ABU RASHID.

There is a commentary of the Shamil of al Buzjani by Hasan-b-Ali al quimnati, entitled the Kamil, mentioned in H. K. p. 565. III. 84. ELKHANI.

There are the tables of Nasiruddin Tusi.

85. JAMSHIDI. Ghiyāthuddin Jamshid together with the astronomer known as Kadhizadah, assisted Ulugh Beg in the preparation of his Canon. The former died during the beginning of the work, the latter before its completion. H. K. 559. D'Herbelot (Art. sig. Ulug. Beg.) reverses this order and asserts that Jamshid finished it. I suspect that he has copied and mistaken the sense of H. K.

86. GURGANI. Another name for the Canon of Ulugh Beg. See Sed. p. cxix.

Whatever they set down, year by year from an astronomical table, as to the particular motions and individual positions of the heavenly bodies, they call an Almanac. It embodies, in fact, the diurnal progression of a planet from its first entrance into Aries to a determinate point in the ecliptic, in succession, and is in Hindi called patrah. The Indian sage considers astronomy to be inspired by divine intelligences. A mortal endowed with purity of nature, disposed to meditation, with accordant harmony of conduct, transported in soul beyond the restraints of sense and matter, may attain to such an elevation that earthly and divine forms, whether as universals or particularized, in the sublime or nethermost regions, future or past, are conceived in his mind. From kindliness of disposition and in the interests of science they impart their knowledge to enquirers of auspicious character, who commit their lessons to writing, and this writing they term Siddhant. Nine such books are still extant; the Brahm-Siddhant, the Suraj-Siddhant, the Som-Siddhant, the Brahaspat-Siddhant, inspired by Brahma, the sun, moon, and Jupiter respectively. Their origin is referred to immemorial time and they are held in great veneration, especially the first two. The Garg-Siddhant," the Narad-Siddhant, the Parasar-Siddhant, the Pulast-Siddhant, the Bashista-Siddhant,these five they ascribe to an earthly source. The unenlightened may loosen the tongue of reproval and imagine that these mysteries acquired by observation of Stellar movements, have been kept secret and revealed only in such a way as to ensure the gratitude of reverential hearts, but the keen-sighted and just observer will, nevertheless, not refuse his assent, the more especially as men of innate excellence and outward respectability of character have for myriads of years transmitted a uniform tradition.

These last are named after five celebrated Rishis or Munis. The antiquity of Indian astronomy is a matter of disputs among the learned. The curious inquirer may refer to the 8th Vol. of the Asiatic Researches where Mr. Bentley reduces its age, maintained by Monsieur Bailly to date back to the commencement of the Kali Yug, 3102 B.C.—to within a few hundred years, and fixes the date of the Sáraj-Siddhānt—the most ancient astronomical treatise of the Hindus and professed to have been inspired by divine revelation 2,164,899 years ago,—to 1038 of our era. Mr. Bentley is in turn learnedly answered by a writer in the Edinburgh Review for July 1807. Sir W. Jones' essay on the Chronology of the Hindus may be read in conjunction with the preceding papers, v. Alb. India, Chap. XIV, where the names of the Sidhānts and their sources are differently given.

Among all nations the Nychthemeron¹³ is the measure of time and this in two aspects, firstly, Natural, as in Turan and the West, from noon to noon, or as in China and Chinese Tartary from midnight to midnight; but the reckoning from sunset to sunset more universally prevails. According to the Hindu sages, in Jagmot"—the eastern extremity of the globe, they reckon it from sunrise to sunrise; in Rumak—the extreme west, from sunset to sunset; in Ceylon, the extreme south, from midnight to midnight and the same computation obtains in Delhi: in Siddhapur. the extreme north, from noon to noon. Secondly, the Equated also called Artificial, which consists of a complete revolution of the celestial sphere measured by the sun's course in the ecliptic. For facility of calculation, they take the whole period of the sun's revolution and divide equally the days thereof and consider the fractional remainder as the mean of each day, but as the duration of the revolutions is found to vary, a difference between the natural and artificial day arises. The tables of Al-Battani assume it as 59 minutes, 8 seconds, 8 thirds, 46 fourths, 56 fifths and 14 sixths. Those of Elkhani make the minutes and seconds the same, but have 19 thirds, 44 fourths, 10 fifths and 37 sixths. The recent Gurgani tables agree with the Khwajahis up to the thirds, but give 37 fourths, and 43 fifths. Ptolemy in the Almagest accords in minutes and seconds, but sets down 17 thirds, 13 fourths, 12 fifths and 31 sixths. In the same way ancient tables record discrepancies, which doubtless-arise from varying knowledge and difference of instruments. The cycle of the year and the seasons depend upon the sun. From the time of his quitting one determinate point till his return to it, they reckon as one year. The period that he remains in one sign is a solar month. The

[&]quot;This term for the twenty-four hours of light and darkness was used by the later Greeks and occurs in 2 Cor. xi. 25. Its precision of meaning commends its use which Sachau has adopted.

"Ughter is the name of a Chaghtai tribe eponymously applied to this country, see D'Herb. Art. Igur and the observations thereon Vol. IV, p. 300.

"Cf. Albiráni's India, Edit. Sachau, p. 133, Chap. XXVI. This word should be "Jamköt." Albiráni quotes from the Siddhānia. The 4 cardinal points mentioned are given as the names of 4 large towns—the globe is described a spheroid, half land, half water: the mountain Mira occupies the centre, through which the Equator (Nalkash) passes. The Northern half of the mountain is the abode of angelic spirits, the southern that of Daityas and Nags and is therefore called Daitantar. When the sun is in the medidian of Meru, it is midday at Jamkôt, midnight at Rumak and evening at Biddapar. The latter name is spelt by Abiráni with a double d. See a map of this peculiar geographical system prefixed, to Gladwin's translation of the Afor and in Blochmann's text edition, following the preface.

"Nasfru'ddin Tási, author of the Elkhāni tables."

interval of the moon's departure from a given position to its return thereto with the sun in conjunction or opposition or the like, is a lunar month. And since twelve lunations are nearly equal to one annual revolution of the sun, they are called a lunar year. Thus both the year and the month are solar and lunar: and each of these two is Natural when the planetary revolutions are regarded and not the computation of days, and Equated when the computation is in days and not in the time of revolution. The Hindu sage divides the year, like the month, into four parts, allotting a particular purpose to each. Having now given a short account of the night, the day, the year and the month which form the basis of chronological notation, we herein set down somewhat of the ancient eras to complete our exposition.

A note on Islamic astronomy (compiled from the Encyclopaedia of Islam, i. 497-501.) For the Muslims, as for the Greeks, astronomy only aims at studying the apparent movements of the stars and giving a geometrical representation of them; it comprises therefore what we call spherical astronomy and the "theory of the instruments".

The sum total of the practical knowledge necessary for determining by calculation or instruments the hours of day and night, having especially in view the fixing of the times of the five canonical prayers in the mosques, is called 'ilm al mawaqit or science of the fixed times. In the beginning of Islam the Arabs already possessed some knowledge of practical astronomy. . . . But it was only in the 2nd century of

the Hijra (=8th century A.D.) that the scientific study of astronomy was entered on, under the influence of two Indian books: the Brahma-sphuta-Siddhānta of Brahmagupta (628) which was brought to the Court at Baghdad in 771 and was used as a model in Arabic by Ibrahim b. Habib al Fazari and Yaqub b. Tariq; and the treatise of Aryabhatta composed in 500, from which Abul-Hasan al Ahwazi derived his tables of the planetary movements.

To these selections from Indian books there was soon added the Arabic translation of the Pahlavi tables entitled Zik-i-shatroayar ("royal astronomical tables") compiled in

[&]quot;A synodical month, the interval between two conjunctions of the sun and moon, is 29 d. 12 h. 44 m. It was founded on the most obvious determination of the moon's course and and furnished the original month of the Greeks, which was taken in round numbers at 30 days. By combining the course of the sun with that of the moon, the tropical year was assumed at a rough computation to consist of 12 unations or 360 days. See Astron. of the

the last period of the Sassanian empire; but about the 11th

century A.D. they ceased to be used.

The Greek influence was the last in order of time. but first in order of importance. It introduced into Muslim astronomy the geometrical representation of the celestial movement. The first (and unsatisfactory) Arabic translation of the Almagest dates from about 800 A.D.; it was followed by two other versions much superior (in 828 and c. 850.) Translations of other Greek works on astronomy. esp. Tables were made later in large numbers.

(The author of the above account, Signior C. A. Nallino, has treated the subject much more fully in Hastings's Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics, xii, 94-101, under "Sun Moon and Stars".

-[1. Sarkar.]

ERA OF THE HINDUS

The creation of Brahmā is taken as its commencement and each of his days is an epoch. They assert that when 70 kalps are completed, each consisting of 4 Yugs²⁰ and the total of these being 4,320,000 years, a Manu appears. He is the offspring of the volition of Brahma and his co-operator in the creation. In each of his days fourteen successive Manus arise. At this time which is the beginning of the 51st year of the age of Brahma, there have been six Manus, and of the seventh, 27 kalps have elapsed, and three Yugs of the 28th, and of the fourth Yug, 4,700 years. In the beginning of the present Yug, Raja Judhishthira conquered the universe and being at the completion of an epoch, constituted his own reign an era and since that time to the present which is the fortieth of the Divine era, 4,696 years have elapsed. It continued in observance 3,044 years. After him Bikramājit²¹ reckoned from his own accession to

The first is Svayambhuva (as spring from Svayam-bhu, the self-existent,) the author of the Limous Code: the next five are Syarochesha, Uttama, Tamasa, Raivata, Chakshusha: the seventh is called Vaivasvata, or the Sunborn and is the Mann of the present period,—sonjectured to be Noah, as the next is thought to be Adam —Prinsep's Usefal Tables.

11 This era to which the luni-solar system is exclusively adapted is called Sanvat, Vulg. Sombat. It began when 3044 years of the Kali Yng had elapsed. I.e., 57 years before Christ, so that if any year, say 4925 of the Kali

¹⁸ Viz., the Satya or Krita, Treta, Dwapar and Kali; the first comprises 1,728,000 years; the second, 1,296,000, the third, 864,000, the fourth, 432,000—heing a total of 4,320,060. For Hindu Cosmology, Hastings's Encyclo. of Religion, iv. 155-161 (14 Jacob: and Hindu Calendar, ibid., v. 870 (Hopkins.) The best and most hetaled practical table is Swami-Kannu Pillai's Indian Ephemens, 7cols, (1922), which supersedes all earlier and smaller works, but it covers only 700-1990 v.D. [1 Sarkar.]

the throne and thus in some measure gave relief to mankind. He reigned 135 years. In this year 1652 years have since then gone by. They relate that a youth named Salbahan,2 was victorious through some supernatural agency and took the Rājā prisoner on the field of battle. Since the captive was not deserving of death, he treated him with consideration and asked him if he had any request to make. He replied that though all his desire was centred in retirement from the world and in the worship of the one Supreme Creator, he still retained the wish that his era might not be obliterated from the records of the age. It is said that the boon was granted, and although he introduced his own era, he did not interfere with the observance of the other. Since this era, 1517 years have expired, and they believe that it will continue in use for 18,000 years more, after which Raja Bijiyābhinandan will institute a new era from his own reign which will last 10,000 years. Then Naga Arjun will come to the throne and promulgate another era which will continue for 400,000 years, after which Kalki,22 whom they regard as an avatar, will establish a fresh era to last 821 years. These six are considered the principal eras and are called Saka, for there were many epochs and each termed "Sanpat." After the invasion of Sālbāhan, the era of Bikramājit was changed from "Sāka" to "Sanpat." After the expiration of these six, the Sat Yug will re-commence and a new epoch be instituted.

The Hindu astronomers regard the months and years as of four kinds-1st, "Saurmās," which is the sun's continuance in one sign of the Zodiac, and such a year consists

which case deduct the amount from 58 and the result will be the date S.C. This era is in general use throughout Hindustan properly so called.—Useful Tables, Part II, p. 26.

18 Sălivăhan, a mythological prince of Deccan who opposed Vikramāditya raja of Ujjain. His capital was Pratishthāna on the Godaveri. The Sāka era, dates from his birth and commences on the lat Bysākh, 3179. K. Y. which fe'l on Monday, 14th March, 78 A.D. Julian style.—Ibid. p. 22.

18 Vishnu, in his future capacity of destroyer of the wicked and liberator of the world. This is to constitute the tenth and last availar and is to take place at the end of the four vugs. He is to resonwar as a Rrahman in the

applied to that of Salivahan.

Yug be proposed and the last expired year of Vikramaditya be required, subtract 3044 therefrom and the result, 1881, is the year sought. To convert Samvat into Christian years, subtract, 57; unless they are less than 58 in which case deduct the amount from 58 and the result will be the date B.C.

place at the end of the four yugs. He is to re-appear as a Brahman, in the town of Sambhal, in the family of Vishnu Sarma.

** Properly 'Sanwat.' Sakd signifies an era or epoch and is generally

The text is here in error. The full stop after dst nullifies the sense. It should be omitted together with the alif of dst. The sentence is then complete and the meaning obvious and consistent. Sat is the ordinary Persian transliteration of the Sanskrit satys.

of 365 days, 15 gharis, 30 pals, and 221/2 bipals; 2nd. "Chandramas," which is computed from the first day of the moon's increase to the night of the new moon. This year is of 354 days, 22 gharish and one 'bal.' The beginning of the year is reckoned from the entry of the sun into Aries. This month consists of 30 lunar days (tithi). Each twelve degrees of the moon's course, reckoning from its departure from conjunction with the sun is a tithi: and from the slowness or speed of the moon's progress there is a difference in the number of gharis from a maximum of 65 to a minimum of 54. The first, tithi is called Pariwa; the second Duj; the third Tij; the fourth Chauth; the fifth Panchamin; the sixth Chhath; the seventh Saptamin; the eighth Ashtamin; the ninth Naumin; the tenth Dasmin; the eleventh Ekādasi: the twelfth Duādasi; the thirteenth Tirudasi; the fourteenth Chaudas; the fifteenth Puranmasi; and from the 16th to the 29th, they use the same names up to the 14th. The 30th is called Amawas. From Pariwa the 1st to the 15th they call Shukla-pachch, and the other half Kishna-pachch. Some begin the month from the 1st of Kishna-pachch. In their ephemerides generally the year is solar and the month lunar.

And since the lunar year is less than the solar by ten days, 58 gharis 29 pals and 221/2 bipals, on the calculation of a mean rate of motion of the sun and moon, the difference, after 2 years, 8 months, 15 days and 3 gharis, would amount to one month, and according to the reckoning in the ephemeris would occur in not more than 3 years or in less than 2 years and one month. According to the first calculation, there is this difference in every twelve months and in such a year they reckon one month twice: according to the latter system, in every solar month when there are two conjunctions," and this must necessarily occur between

MA ghart is 24 minutes, a pel 24 seconds, a bipel, a second. This would give 6 hours, 12 minutes and 22% seconds, whereas according to our calculation, it should be 5 hours, 48 m. 47% s. very mearly.

We This minus the pel is our calculation exactly.

This minus the sal is our calculation exactly.

The year commences at the true instant of conjunction with the sun and moon, that is on the new moon which immediately procedes the beginning of the solar year, falling, somewhere within the 30 or 31 days of the solar month Chairm. The day of conjunction (analyses)d) is the last day of the expired menth; the first of the new month being the day after conjunction. The Mibis are computed according to apparent time, yet registered in civil time. For the computations of this perplaying notation I refer the reader to the Useful Tables, Part II, p. 24.

When two new means fall within one solar menth, the name of the corresponding lutter menth is repeated, the year being then intercalary or

Chait and Kuār (āsvin) and does not go beyond these seven months. They term this intercalary month Adhik (added), vulgarly called Laund.

The third kind of month is Sawan Mas. They fix its commencement at any day they please: it is completed in

thirty days. The year is 360 days.

The fourth, Nachhattar, is reckoned from the time the moon quits any mansion to her return thereto. This

month consists of 27 days and the year of 324.

The number of the seasons is, with them, six³⁰ and each they call *Ritu*. The period that the sun remains in Pisces and Aries, they term *Basant*: this is the temperate season: when in Taurus and Gemini, *Girekham*, the hot season; in Cancer and Leo, *Barkha*, the rainy season; in Virgo and Libra, *Sard*, the close of the rainy season and the beginning of winter; in Scorpio and Sagittarius, *Hemant*, winter; in Capricornus and Aquarius, *Shishra*, the season between winter and spring.

They divide the year likewise into three parts: to each they give the name of Kal, beginning from Phagun. They call the four hot months Dhupkal; the four rainy months Barkhakāl and the four cold months Sitkāl. Throughout the cultivable area of Hindustan, there are but three Pisces, Aries, Taurus and Gemini are the summer; Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, the rains; Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus and Aquarius, the winter. The solar year they divide into two parts. The first beginning with Aries to the extreme of Virgo they term Uttargol, which is the sun's progress to the north of the Equator, and from the beginning of Libra to the extreme of Pisces, Dakkhangol, the sun's course to the south of the Equator. Also from the first of Capricorn to the end of Gemini, they call Uttarāyan, the sun's northern declination (the summer solstice): and from the 1st of Cancer to the end of Sagittarius Dachchhanāyan, or the sun's southern declination (the winter solstice). Many events, occurring in the first of these divisions, especially death, are deemed fortunate.

The Nycthemeron they divide into 60 equal parts and to each they give the name of ghatis, more commonly ghari. Each ghari is subdivided into the same number of parts,

containing 13 months. The two months of the same name are distinguished by the terms adhika (added) and sija (proper or ordinary). U. T. p. 23.

**Of two sidereal months each, the succession of which is always the same: but the vicissitudes of climate in them will depend upon the position of the equinoctial colure.—U. T. II, 18.

ERAS 19

each of which they call pal. In the same way they apportion the pal, and each part they term nāri and also bipal. Each nāri is equal to six respirations of a man of an equable temperament, undisturbed by running, the emotions of anger and the like.

A man in good health respires 360 times in the space of one ghari, and 21,600 times in a Nycthemeron. Some affirm that the breath which is respired, they term Swās and that which is inspired Parswās, and both together they called a parān. Six parāns make a pal, and 60 pals a ghari. An astronomical hour which is the 24th part of a Nycthemeron is equal to $2\frac{\pi}{2}$ gharis. Each night and each day is again divided into 4 parts, each of which is called a pahr, but these are not all equal.

The Khatāi era.

They reckon from the creation of the world, which in their belief took place 8,884 Wans and 60 years previous to the present date. Each Wan is 10,000 years. They believe that the duration of the world will be 300,000 Wans—according to some 360,000. They employ the natural solar year and the natural lunar month. They begin the year from the sun's mid passage through Aquarius. Muhiuddin Maghrebi places it at the 16th degree, others between the 16th and 18th. They divide the Nycthemeron into 12 Chāghs. Each of which is subdivided into 8 Kehs, and to evey one of these they give a different name.

They divide the Nycthemeron also into Feneks. For this computation of time they have three cycles, viz., Shāng Wan, Jung Wan, and Khā Wan, each comprising 60 years and each year of the cycle is defined by a double.

of the Sultan of Aleppo. Surnamed at Mughrebi from his having been educated in Spain and Africa, associated in A. H. 688 with Nasir-u'ddin Tusi in the apperintendence of the observatory at Muragha, and shared in the composition of the Elkhani tables. D'Herbelot. See D'Herb. (Vol. IV. p. 42.) on this nomenclature and his tables of the cycles. For Chinese era, Hastings'

Ency., iii. 82.

The word bads may also grammatically but in point of fact less accurately apply to the cycle. The following explanation taken from the Useful Tables (Part II. p. 14-15 under 'Chinese era'), will elucidate the text. They have two series of words, one of ten and the other of twelve words; a combination of the first words in both orders is the name of the 1st year; the next in each series are taken for the 2nd year, and so to the 16th; in the 11th, the series of 10 being exhausted, they begin again with the first combining it with the eleventh of the second series; in the 12th year, the second word of the first series is combined with the twelfth of the assumd;

notation. The revolution of the cycle is marked by a series of ten and a series of twelve symbols. The first is employed for the notation of the year and the day; the second is similarly applied and is likewise horary. By the combination of these two series, they form the cycle of 60 and work out detailed calculations.

The Turkish Era.

Called also the Uighuri. It is similar to the foregoing, except that this cycle is based on the series of 12. They reckon their years and days after the same manner, but it is said that some astronomical tables also employ the series of 10. The commencement of their era is unknown. Abu Raihān (Albiruni) says38 that the Turks add nine to the incomplete Syromacedonian years and divide it by 12: and in whatever animal the remainder terminates, counting from the Sign of the Mouse, the year is named therefrom. But weighed in the balance of experiment, this is found wanting by one year. The intention, undoubtedly, is to carry the remainder down the animal signs of the series,

for the 13th year, the third word of the first list with the first of the second list is taken, that list also being now exhausted. Thus designating the series of 10 by Roman letters, and that of 12 by italics, the cycle of 60 will stand thus.

1 = 4	21 a i	41 a e
2 b b	22 b k	42 b f
3 c c	23 ¢ 1	43 C g
4 d d	24 d m	
5. e e	24 Q III	44 d h
0.66	25 e a	45 e i
6 f f	26 f b	46 f k
7 g g	27 g c	47 g 1
8 h h	28 h d	48 h m
9 i i	29 i e	49 i a
10 k k	30 k f	
11 a 1	31 a g	50 k b
12 b m	22 5 5	51 a c
	32 b h	52 b d
13 C R	33 c i	53 C e
14 d b	34 d k	54 d f
is e c	35 e 1	55 e g
16 f d	36 f m	56 f h
17 g e	37 g a	20 A II
18 5 f	38 h b	57 g i
17 g e 18 h f 19 i g		58 h k
20 k h	39 i c	59 i 1
first couls	40 k d	60 k m

The first cycle, according to the Jesuits, began in February 2397 B.C.; we are now, therefore, in the 72nd cycle, the 28th of which will begin in 1800. To find the Chinese time, multiply the elapsed cycle by 60, and add the odd years: then if the time be before Christ, subtract the sum from 2398; but after Christ, subtract 2397 from it; the remainder will be the year required.

This reference I have not been able to trace in Albiruni's Athar at Baqiya, or his India. [Jarrett] The Turkish era has fallen into disuse, but the names of the Cyclic years as borrowed in Indo-China, Champa and Japan, are given in Hastings, Encycl., iii. 110-115. [J. 8.]

and beginning from the Mouse, to adopt the name of the animal in which it terminates. Although the commencement of the era is unknown, yet we gather sufficient information regarding the year of the cycle and its name. And if 7 years be added to the imperfect years of the Maliki era, dividing by 12, whatever remains is the year of the animal reckoning from the Mouse. This will prove correct according to the following series.

Names of the twelve years of the Cycle.

1. Sijqān, the Mouse. 2. Ud, the Ox. 3. Pārs, the Leopard. 4. Tawishqān, the Hare. 5. Loiy, the Dragon, 6. Y'ilān, the Serpent. 7. Yunt, the Horse. 8. Qu, the Sheep. 9. Bij, the Ape. 10. Takhāku, the Cock. 11. Yit, the Dog. 12. Tankuz, the Hog. They add the word it to each of these words, which signifies year.

The Astrological Era.

The astrologers reckon from the Creation and assert that all the planets were then in Aries. The year is solar. According to their calculation, from that time to the present 184,696 years have elapsed.

The Era of Adam.

Its beginning dates from his birth. The years are solar, the months lunar. According to the Elkhani tables, 5,353 solar years have elapsed to the present date. But some of those possessing a book of divine revelation make it 6,346 solar years; others 6,938 solar: others again, 6,920, solar, but according to what has been reported from learned Christians, it is 6,793.

The Jewish Eva.

Begins with the creation of Adam. Their years are natural, solar: their months, artificial, lunar. They reckon their months and days like the Arabians according to an intermediate system. The years is of two kinds, vis., Simple, which is not intercalary, and Composite, in which

[&]quot;These 12 signs of the Zodisc exactly correspond with the missile in the series of the Japanese Cycle given in the Useful Tables, but the varianteer names are different. The calculations based on them are vaguely stated: in Albirani's Chronology, some information may be obtained from the Rules for the reduction of Eras.

produce - "

an intercalation is effected. Like the Hindus they intercalate a month every three years.35

The Era of the Deluge.

This era is computed from this event; the year is natural, solar, the month natural, lunar. The year begins from the entry of the Sun into Aries. Abu Ma'shar of Balkh based his calculations regarding the mean places of the stars on this era from which to the present year 4.696 vears have elapsed.

The Era of Bukht Nassar (Nebuchadnezzar).

This monarch instituted an era from the beginning of his own reign. The year is solar, artificial, of 365 days without a fraction. The month, likewise, is of 30 days and five days are added at the end of the year. Ptolemy in his Almagest computed the planetary motions on this era. Since its commencement 2.341 years have elapsed.

The Era of Philipus (Arrhidæus).*

Called also Filbus or Filgus. It is also known as the Era of Alexander of Macedon. It dates from his death. The years and months are artificial, solar. Theon of Alexandria has based his calculations of the mean places of the stars in his Canon on this Era, and Ptolemy has recorded some of his observations regarding it, in the Almagest. Of this period, 1,917 years have elapsed.

The Coptic Era."

This is of ancient date. Al Battani states that its years are solar, artificial, consisting of 365 days without a fraction. The Sultani tables say that its years and months

¹⁵ Or 7 months in 19 lunar years. Cf. Albiruni's Chronology, p. 13. Por the Jewish era, Hastings's Encyclo. Sii. 117-123, after which Prinsep's Useful Tab, ii. 8 is unnecessary. For the era of Nebuchadnezzar, Encyclo. of Islam, under Bukht-Nasar (i. 784) and under Tarkh (Sappl. 231.) The Arabs have confounded Nabonassar with Nebuchadnezzar (though 143 years separate the two.) Ptolemy makes this era begin in 742 B.C. For calculating dates in this system, see Prinsep's Useful Tab. ii. 9. [J. 8.]

Me was half brother of Alexander the Great, the son of Philip and a female dancer, Philinna of Larissa. Prinsep's U. T. ii. 10. Enc. Islam, Sapp. 231, thus era began on 12 Nov. 324 B.C.

This is the era of Diocletian or the Martyrs; was much used by the Christian writers till the introduction of the Christian era in the 6th century, and is still employed by the Abyssinians and Copts. It dates from 29th August, 284. Prinsep, ii. 7. Ency. Isl. iv. 1211.

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resemble the Syro-Macedonian. It has the same intercalations, but the Coptic intercalary days precede those of the Syro-Macedonian by six months.

The Syro-Macedonian Era.

The years and months are artificial, solar, and they reckon the year at 365 1/4 days exactly. In some astronomical observations, the fraction in excess is less than 1/4. According to Ptolemy, it is 14 m. 48 s. The Elkhani observations make the minutes the same, but 32 seconds and 30 thirds. According to the calculations of the Cathayans the minutes are the same, and 36 seconds, 57 thirds; to the recent Gurgani observations, the minutes agree, with 33 seconds; the Maghrebi has 12 m.: the Battāni, 13 m. 36 s. Muhiyuddin Maghrebi says that some of the Syro-Macedonian calculations make the fraction more than a quarter, others less than a quarter, and thus a quarter has been taken as the medium. Others assert that the Syro-Macedonians have by observation determined the fraction to be a full 1/4. Consequently it is a natural solar year, although Mulla 'Ali Kushji makes it a solar year even on the first mentioned basis. This era dates from the death of Alexander the second, [corr. IV] Bicornutus, but was not employed till 12 years after his death. Others assert that he established it in the 7th year of his reign when he set out from Macedonia, his kingdom, bent on foreign conquest. Muhiyuddin Mughrebi on the other hand, states that it began with the reign of Seleucus (Nicator) who founded Antioch. This era was in use both with the Jews and Syrians. They relate that when Alexander the son of Philip marched from Greece to the conquest of Persia, he passed through Jerusalem. Summoning the learned Jews of Syria he directed them to discontinue the Mosaical era and to employ his own. They thus answered him. "Our forefathers never observed any era above a thousand years and this year our Era will complete the thousand; from next year, therefore, thy command shall be obeyed." And they acted accordingly. And this took place in Alexander's 27th year. Some maintain that this Grecian era is of Hebrew origin. Kushyar in his Jami' says that there is no difference between the Syro-Macedonian and the Syrian era, except in the names of the months. The Syrian year begins on the 1st day of Tishria

ul Awwal. This happened formerly when the sun was in the 4th degree of Libra, and now falls on the 11th.30 With the Syro-Macedonians, that date is the 1st of Qanuni i Sani, when the sun is near the 20th degree of Capricorn. Battani mentions this era39 as beginning with Philip, father of Alexander Bicornutus, but that he called it after his son to exalt his fame; and he has based on it the calculation of the mean places of the planets in his Canon. Of this era 1905 vears have elapsed.

The Augustan Era.

He was the first of the Roman Emperors. The birth of Jesus Christ happened in his reign. The era begins with his accession. The year is the same as the Syro-Macedonian, and the months are Coptic; the last month in the common years has 35 days and in leap years 36. Of this era 1623 years have elapsed.40

The Christian Era.

Begins with the birth of Jesus Christ. The year consists, like the Syro-Macedonian, of 365 d. 5 h. At the end of 4 years, they add a day to the end of the second month. The beginning of their Nycthemeron is reckoned from midnight. Like the Arabians, they name the days of the week, beginning with Sunday. The commencement of their year, some take to be the entry of the sun in Capricorn: others, from the 8th degree of the same.

The Era of Antoninus of Rome.

It begins with his accession [138 A.D.]. The years are Syro-Macedonian, the months Coptic. Ptolemy deter-

Ano.her reading is 15th. Gladwin has 16th. Better known as the Seleucid era, began on 1 Oct. 312 B.C. (see to Ginzel.) Ency. Islam, Supp 231; also iv. 1211.

There is a discrepancy among chronologers as to the commencement of this era. Some determine it to the 1st October 312 B.C. (W. Smith, Cl. Dic. art Seleuc); the U. T. (ii. 11) places it, 311 y. 4 m. B.C. The Syrias Greeks began their years in September, other Syrians in October: the Jews, about the autumnsl equinox. It is used in the book of Maccabeen and appears to have begun in Nisan. Supposing it to begin on 1st September 312 B.C.; to reduce it to our era, subtract 311 y. 4 m.

The Spanish era of the Caesars is reckoned from 1st January, 36 B.C., being the year following the conquest of Spain by Augustus. It was much

being the year following the conquest of Spain by Augustus. It was much used in Africa, Spain, and the south of France. By a Synod held in 1180, its use was abolished in all the churches dependent on Barcelona. Pedro IV of Arragon abolished it in 1350. John of Castile in 1362. It continued to be used in Portugal till 1455.—U. T., ii, 11. But Enc. Islam, Supp. 231, differs; its epoch 14 Feb. 27 B.C."

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mined the position of the fixed stars in his Almagest on this era of which 1,457 years have elapsed.

KRAS

The Era of Diocletian" of Rome.

He was a Christian emperor. The era begins with his accession. The years are Syro-Macedonian, the months Coptic; 1,010 years have since elapsed.

The Era of the Hijra.

In pre-Islamic times, the Arabs had various eras, such as the building of the Ka'bah, and the sovereignty of Omar' b. Rabii'a to whom was due the rise of idolatry in Hijāz, and this continued in use till the year of the Elephant, which they, in turn, observed as a fresh epoch. Every Arab tribe constituted any important event in their history, an era. In the time of the prophet this thread of custom had no coherence, but from the date of the Hijra, they gave each year a special name. Thus that year was called the "year of Permission," that is, the permission to go from Mecca to Medina. The second year was named the "year of Command," i.e., to fight the unbelievers."

"The 3rd year was called, the year of the trial. 4th ., year of Congratulation on the occasion of ** marriage. 5th ,, year of the earthquake year of inquiring .. 6th .. 9.6 7th ... vear of victory. 174 98 8th ,, year of equality. 9th ,, ,, year of exception. 10th ,, year of farewell. Chronol. Albiruni, Sachen, p. 35,

⁶¹ The name in the text is Diocletian. Abul Fazl evidently meant Constantine, but probably following the text of Albiruni, (Chronol) he copied the heading of the Era of Diocletian, without nothing in the body of the passage, the change of name to Constantine, as the 1st Christian Emperor. The number 1010 is an error. Gladwin his 1410. If Abul Fazl counts from the era of Diocletian A.D. 284, the intermediate years would be about 1310; if from A.D. 324, the date of Constantine's sole mastership of the empire 1270, if from his proclamation as Emperor by the legions in 306, the number would be 1290. His father Constantine was proclaimed Caesar by Diocletian in A.D. 292.

A.D. 292.

***An error (taken from Albirani) for 'Amr-b-Lohayy, born about 167 A.D., was king of Hijaz; for his genealogy see Ency 1st i. 336, and Caus de Perc. Essal Sur Phist. And. Tabl. II, VIII. The great tribe of Khuman's trace their descent from him. Whitst at Bulkā in Syria, he had seen its inhabitants practising idolatry; their idols, they averred, protected and favoured them, granting rain at their prayers. At his request they presented him with the idol, Hobal, which he set up in Mecca and introduced its worship.

^{**570} A.D: the year in which Mahomed was born, and the name of which commemorates the defeat of Abraha, the Pthiopian king of Yaman. Quran, Sura 105

At the accession of the second Caliph (Omar), Abu Musa Asha'ri, governor of Yaman made the following represen-"Your despatches have arrived dated the month of Shaban. I cannot discover what date is understood by Shaban." The Caliph summoned the learned. Some of the Jews advised the use of their era. The sage Hurmuzān* said; "the Persians have a computation which they call Mahroz' and this he explained. But as there were intercalations in both, their skill in calculation was slight, he did not accept either but adopted the era of the Hijrah. The month according to their system is reckoned from the sight of one new moon, after the sun has completely set, till the next is visible. It is never more than 30 nor less than 29 days. It sometimes occurs that four successive months are of 30 days, and three of 29. Chronologers putting aside calculations based on the moon's appearance. reckon lunar months in two ways, viz., Natural, which is the interval of the moon's departure from a determinate position, with the sun in conjunction or opposition or the like to its return thereto; 2ndly; Artificial; since the motions of the moon are inconstant and their methodisation as well as an exact discrimination of its phases difficult, its mean rate of motion is taken and thus the task is facilitated. In the recent (Gurgāni) tables, this is 29 days, 12 hours and 44 minutes.47 The rule is this, that when the fraction is in excess of half, it is reckoned as one day. Thus when the excess is over a half, they take the month of Muharram as 30 days, and the second month 29, and so on alternately to the last. In common years, therefore, Dhil Hijjah is 29 days. The mean lunar year consists of 354 d. 8 h. 48 m. which is less than a solar artificial year by

"Hurmuzan was a learned Persian, taken prisoner by Abu Musa and sent to the Caliph Omar by whom his life was spared, though the grace was obtained with some difficulty. He subsequently became a convert. Ency. Islam, ii. 338. Nawawi, Tahzib-ul-Asmā.

⁴⁸ Abu Musa Al Asha'ri was one of the Companions, a native of Kufah. He joined the prophet at Mecca and was a convert before the Flight to Medina. He was also one of the fugitives to Abyssinia and including his journey from Yaman to Mecca shared in the unusual distinction of three flights. Ency. Islam, I. 481.

¹⁵ this is a lunation or synodical month, the interval between two conjunctions of the Sun and Moon. The periodical month, as distinguished from this, is the time taken in transit by the moon from any point of the Zodiac back to the same point: it consists of 27 d. 7 h. 43 m. Hence a lunar month is sometimes taken in round numbers at 28 d. and this is the length of a lunar month according to the law of England. Lewis. Astr. of the Anc. "And 36 seconds. Ibid.

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10 d. 21 h. 12-m. Mirza Ulugh Beg has based his new Canon on this era of which 1002 years have elapsed to the present time.

The Era of Yazdajird.

He was the son of Shahryār Aparwez⁶ b. Hurmuz b. Noshirwān. It began with the accession of Jamshid. After him every succeeding monarch renewed his designation by his own accession and Yazdajird also re-instituted it from his assumption of sovereignty.⁵⁰ The years are like the Syro-Macedonian; but the fraction in excess was reserved till at the end of 120 years, it amounted to a whole month, and that year was reckoned at 13 months. The first intercalation was after Farwardin, and it was called by the name of that month. Then Urdibihisht was twice counted and so on. When the era was renewed under the name of Yazdajird, and his authority terminated in disaster, the continuity of intercalation was neglected. The years and months are artificial, solar. 963 years have since elapsed.⁵¹

Note on the Hijera cra. "The question on what day the 1st Muharram of the year 1 A.H. fell is not yet decided." (Discussion of different theories; Encyclopædia of

Islam, Suppl. 231).

"Authorities are not agreed on the exact date of the Hidjra. According to the most usual account, it took place on the 8th Rabi' I (20th Sept. 622 A.D.). But this would not be the date of the departure from Mecca but of the arrival in Medina. According to other versions, it was the 2nd or the 12th Rabi' I.... The 8th was preferred as it was a Monday. According to a tradition, the Prophet is said to have answered when asked why he observed Monday especially, "on this day I was born, on this day I received my prophetic mission, and on this day I migrated. The fixing of the Hidjra as the beginning of the Muhammadan era dates from the Caliph 'Omar. The traditions which try

[&]quot;In Albiruni, Shahry of Porvey Parwez or Aparwez signifies Victorious, Bra of Yazdajird, Estey, Islam, Supp. 232, also Prinsep's Useful T. ii. 12. Fucy, Islam, iv. 178, gives Yazdajird Ht. ir 632-651 A.D.) after Ardashir III. (r. 628-630), with "several ephenteral rulers" between them. J. S.

A.D. 632.

If "In Persia, since the age of Zoroaster, the revolution of the sun has been known and velebrated as an annual festival, but after the fall of the Magian empire, the intercalation had been neglected: the fractions of minutes and hours were multiplied into days and the date of the spring was removed from the sign of Aries to that of Piaces. Gibbon. Decl. and Fall. Vol. X. p. 367, Rd 1797.

to trace it to the Prophet himself are devoid of all probability." (Ency. Islam, ii. 302).

In Ency. Islam, iv. 1210 (under Zamān), there is a full

discussion of the calendar adopted by the Muslims.

"Although the era of Islam begins with the 15th (16th) of July, 622 A.D., the lunar year, peculiar to the Muslims, was not established till the year A.H. 10. When Muhammad in that year (A.D. 631) made his last pilgrimage to Mecca, . . . he arranged . . . that the year should consist of 12 lunar months of 29, (28, 30) days each, and that intercalation (nasi') was to be forbidden (Quran, ix. 36 fl.) . . . The Meccans had had a more or less perfect solar year (before this, as) the names of the months in part indicate clearly certain definite seasons of the year—a situation, in the case of a changeable lunar year, evidently out of the question. . . . The Arabs adopted the week of the Jews and Christians." (K. Vollers in Hastings's Encyclopædia of Religion, iii. 126-127).—J. Sarkar.

The Maliki Era.

It is also called Jalāli. The Persian Era was used at that period. Through the interruption of continuity in intercalation, the commencements of the years fell into confusion. At the instance of Sultān Jalāluddin⁵² Malik Shāh Saljuki, Omar Khayvam and several other learned men instituted this era. The beginning of the year was determined from the sun's entry into Aries. The years and months were at first Natural, but now the month is the ordinary Artificial. Each month consists of 30 days and at the end of Isfandārmuz, they add 5 or 6 days. Of this era, 516 years have elapsed.

The Khani Era

dates from the reign of Ghāzān³³ Khān and is founded on the Elkhāni tables. The years and months are Natural,

¹⁷ A brilliant sketch of his life may be read in Gibbon, Ch. 57, and Euc. isl. iii. 211. For his era Eucy. Islam, i. 1006 (under Djalall), also iv. 672 (under Tarikh) and iii. 888 (under Nawruz.) The era begins on 15 March 1070 A.

Khan son of Jenghiz, of the Moghul Tartar or likhanian Dynasty of Persis. He ascended the throne in A. H. 694 (A.D. 1294) and was succeeded by Ghiasu'ddin Au-gaptu Khuda bandah Muhammad, A. H. 703 (A. D. 1303). U. T. P. II, p. 146. The likhani era, in Ency. Isl. Supp. 232. Ghäzan Kh. in 151d. ii. 149.

solar. Before its adoption the State records bore date from the Hiirah and the lunar year was current. By this means the road was opened to grievous oppression, because 31 lunar years are equal to only 30 solar years and great loss occurred to the agriculturists, as the revenue was taken on the lunar years and the harvest depended on the solar. Abolishing this practice Ghāzān Khān promoted the cause of justice by the introduction of this era. The names of the month are the Turkish with the addition of the word khāni. Of this, 293 years have elapsed.

The Ilahi Era.

His Majesty had long desired to introduce a new computation of years and months throughout the fair regions of Hindustan in order that perplexity might give place to easiness. He was likewise averse to the era of the Hijra (Flight) which was of ominous signification, but because of the number of short-sighted, ignorant men who believe the currency of the era to be inseparable from religion, His Imperial Majesty in his graciousness, dearly regarding the attachment of the hearts of his subjects did not carry out his design of suppressing it. Although it is evident to rightminded people of the world, what relevancy exists between the market-coin of commercial dealing and the night gleaming jewel of faith, and what participation between this chain of objective connection and the twofold cord of spiritual truth, yet the world is full of the dust of indiscrimination, and the discerning are heedful of the fable of the fox" that took to flight when camels were being impressed. In 992 of the Novilunar year, the lamp of knowledge received another light from the flame of his sublime intelligence and its full blaze shone upon mankind. The fortunately gifted, lovers of truth raised their heads from the pillow of disappointment and the crooked-charactered, drowsy-willed lav in the corner of disuse. Meanwhile the imperial design was accomplished. Amir Fathullah Shirazi, 55 the representative

The Habi era was introduced by Akbar at the beginning of the 28th year of his reign, 8th Rabi ul Awwal 992 A.H. = 10th March 1884 (Akbarnamah, tr. iii. 644) Prinsep, Useful Tubles ii. 37.

** See Alu Akb. trans., Vol. I, p. 33, n.

[&]quot;has a camel with thee and what resemblance hast thou to it?" 'Peace!" he answered for if the envious should, to serve their own ends, say"—"This is a came!," who would care about my release so as to inquire into my condition?"

of ancient sages, the paragon of the house of wisdom, set himself to the fulfilment of this object, and taking as his base the recent Gurgani Canon, began the era with the accession of his Imperial Majesty. The splendour of visible sublimity which had its manifestation in the lord of the universe commended itself to this chosen one, especially as it also concentrated the leadership of the world of spirituality, and for its cognition by vassals of auspicious mind, the characteristics of the divine essence were ascribed to it, and the glad tidings of its perpetual adoption proclaimed. The years and months are natural, solar, without intercalation and the Persian names of the months and days have been left unaltered. The days of the month are reckoned from 29 to 32, and the two days of the last are called Roz o Shab (Day and Night). The names of the months of each era are tabulated for facility of reference. [Tr.'s note. The Uighur and Coptic months are spelt differently by Albiruni from Abul Fazl, The spelling of the Jewish month names also is incorrect in the printed text of the Ain.

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9. . <u>.</u> .	10.
Hindu months.	Khatāi months.	The Oighur Bra.	The Brs of the astrologers.	The Bra of Adam.	The Brs of the Jews.	The Era of the Delage.	The Bra of Nabonaser.	The Era of Philipus Arrhi-? daeus.	The Birs of the Copts.
	hanweh hezheweh	Arëm Ay. Ikandi Ay.	"	Fo	Tishri Marhesh-		Thoth Băpeh	Thoth Bapeh	Thoth Pšopi
Jeth Asarh Sanwan Bhadon Kunwar Katik Aghan Pus Magh	ämweh Iarweh Iweh Iweh Iweh Iweh Iweh Iweh Iweh I	Ochanj Ay. Dardanj Ay. Beshanj Ay. Altinj Ay. Yetinj Ay. Saksanj Ay. Tuksanj Ay. Onnanj Ay.	99 99 99 99 99 99 99 99 99 99 99 99 99	99 93 93 93	wān Kislew Tebeth Shebāt Adbār Nisān Iyār Siwān Tammuz Ab	**	Hātor Kahak Tubah Amsher 9 9 9 9	Hator Kehak Tubah	Athyr Khawak Tybi Makhir Phamanoth
11.	12.	3. 14. 15		16.	1	7.	18.	1.)	20.
Syro-Ma- cedonian Bra.	The tian	The Kra of	Er F	a of ti fijrah			The M		The Divine Era.
Tashrinui Awwai Tashrinuil Akhir Kanunil Awwai Kanunuil Akhir Shebat Azar Nisan Avyar Huzuran Tamuz Ab	Janua Febru Marc Marc May July July Augu Septe Nove	ary	Mn Safi Rail Jun Rail Sho Sho Dh	harrai ar bia' I. bia' II nāda i nāda i jub n'bān madhi wwāl i Ka'd i Hijj	Mah Styl Ardibi Mah Khuri Mah Iir M S Amur Mah Vihe O, S Aban O, S Aban O, S Bahm Mah Island	i. Old r' hisht , O. S lad i. O.S lad i. O.S lh. O tad i. O.S Mah i. Mah i. Mah i. Mah i. O.S	i Jalidac.	fäh Khanili te. fic. like with the word "Khän after the "Ay" In the li" mont the wo	i Ilāhi āc. hke 18, 3 substi- te tuting "Ilāhi" i" for "Jalāli." tth h rd

The events of the world recorded in chronological sequence, are accounted the science of history, and he who is proficient in them, is a historian. Many writings in this branch of knowledge regarding India, Khatā, the Franks, Jews and other peoples are extinct. Of the Muhammadan sect, the first who in Hijaz occupied himself with this subject was Muhammad-b-Ishaq, then follow Wahab-b-Murabbih, Wāqidi, Asma'i, Tabari, Abu A'bdullah Muslim-b-Qutaybah, Aa'tham of Kufa, Muhammad Muqanna, Hakim A'li Miskawaih, Fakhruddin Muhammad-b-Ali, Dāud Sulaiman Binākiti, Abul Faraj, 'Imadu-ddin-b-Kathir, Muqaddasi, Abu Hanifah Dinawari, Muhammad-b-Abdullah Masa'udi, İbn Khallākān, Yāfa'i, Abu Nasr Utbi; amongst the Persians, Firdausi Tusi, Abul Hasan Baihaqi, Abul Husain author of the Tārikh-i-Khusrawi, Khwajah Abul Fazl Baihaqi, A'bbās-b-Musa'b, Ahmad-b-Sayyār, Abu Ishāq Bazz'az, Muhammad Balkhi, Abul Qāsim Ka'bi, Abu'l Hasan Fārsi, Sadruddin Muhammad author of the Tājul-Maāsir, (Corona monumentorum), Abu Abdullah Juzjāni (author of the Tabaqāt-i-Nāsiri), Kabiruddin Irāqi, Abul Qāsim Kāshi, author of Zubdah (Lactis flos), Khwājah Abul Fazl, author of the Makhzan ul Balaghat (Promtuurium eloquentice) and Fadhāil-ul-Muluk (Virtutes principum præstantes) A'lauddin Juwaini, brother of the Kinwajah Shamsuddin, author of a Diwan, (he wrote the Tarikh Jahānkushā, Historia orbis terrarum victriv), Hamdullah Mustaufi Qazwini, Qādhi Nidhām Baydhāwi, Khwājah Rashidi Tabib, Hāfiz Abru, and other trustworthy writers.

For a long time past, likewise, it has been the practice to record current events by a chronogram and to make the computation of years appear from a single word, a hemistich and the like, and this too they term a date; as for instance, for the accession of his Majesty, they have devised the words Nasrat-i-Akbar (victoria insignis) and Kām Bakhsh (Optatis respondens), but the ancients practised it little: thus the following was written on Avicenna.—

The Demonstration of Truth, Abu A'li Sina, Entered in Shaja' (373) from non-existence into being. In Shasa (391) he acquired complete knowledge. In Takan (427) he hade the world forewell

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

"The whole of this series of authors is taken bodily and in the same order by Abul Fazl from the Raudhat-us-

Safā without acknowledgement." (H. S. Jarett.)

For convenience of printing and also of study, Jarrett's notes on the ancient authors, a bare list of whose names is given by Abul Fazl, have been here collected in one place, instead of being dispersed as separate footnotes. For more modern and detailed information consult the Encyclopædia of Islam under each name." (J. Sarkar.)

Md.-b-Ishāq,—author of the well-known work Al Maghāzi wa's Siyar (expeditiones bellicæ et biographiæ); he was a native of Medina and as a traditionist held a high rank, and regarded by Al-Bukhāri and As-Shāfa'i as the first authority on the Muslim conquests. He died at Baghdad A.H. 151 (A.D. 768). It is from his work that Ibn Hishām extracted the materials for his life of the

Prophet.

Wahab-b-Murabbih,—was a native of Yaman and one of the "Abnā", i.e., a descendant of one of the persian soldiers settled there. He died at Sana'ā in Yaman A.H. 110, in Muharram (April-May A.D. 728)—(others say in 114 or 116) at the age of 90. He was a great transmitter of narrations and legends. A great part of the information given by Moslem historians regarding the pre-Islamic history of Persia, Greece, Yaman, Egypt, etc., comes from him. He was an audacious liar, as Moslem critics of a later period discovered. Ibn Khall. De. Sl. IV. p. 672-3.

Wāqidi,—Abu A'bdullah, Muhammad-b-Omar. Wāqid, al Wāqidi, a native of Mecca, author of the well-known "Conquests" of the Moslems, born A.H. 130 (Sept. A.D. 745), died on the eve of Monday 11 Zul Hijjah, A.H. 206

(27th April A.D: 823).

Asma'i,—Abu Sa'id A'bdu'l Malik-b-Kuraib al Asma'i, the celebrated philologer, a complete master of Arabic. He was a native of Basra, but removed to Baghdad in the reign of Hārun-ar-Rashid. It is said he knew by heart 16,000 pieces of verse; born A.H. 122 (A.D. 740) and died in Safar A.H. 213 (March-April A.D. 728). Ency. Isl. i. 490.

Tabari.—Abu Jafar M-b-Jarir at-Tabari, author of the Great Commentary of the Quran and of the celebrated history. He is regarded as an exact traditionist, born A.H.

224 (A.D. 838-9) at Amol in Tabaristan and died at Bagh-

dad A.H. 319 (A.D. 923). Ency. Isl. iv. 578.

Abu Abdullah Muslim,—(213-270 A.H.) A native of Dinawar, some say of Marw, author of the Kitāb-ul-Ma'ārif and Adāb-ul-Kātib (=the Writer's Guide): the first a work of general knowledge, from which Eichhorn extracted his genealogies of the Arabs published in his Monumenta historiæ Arabum: it contains a number of short biographical notices of the early Moslems.

Aa'tham Kufi,—Muhammad-b-A'li, known as Aa'sim Kufi; his work the Futuh Aa'thim (H.K.) is a short account of events from the death of the prophet to the death of Husain at Karbalā. It was translated into Persian

by Ahmad-b-Mustaufi.

Md. Muqanna',—Freytag gives his name from the Scholia as Muhammad-b-Ohmaizah. He is said to have been called Muqanna' from the veil he wore to protect the beauty of his person. He squandered his wealth in lavish gifts and in the time of the Omayyads was still living, of much account with his people, but in poverty. Not to be confounded with Abu 'Amr (afterwards Abu Md.) Ibn al Muqaffa' (Ency. Islam ii. 404), who was known as the Katib or Secretary and was the author of some celebrated epistles, and also translated Kalila and Damna into Arabic.

Abu Ali Ahmad-b-Miskawaih,—a Persian of good birth and distinguished attainments. He was treasurer to Malik Adhd-ud-daulah-b-Buwaih, who placed the utmost trust in him. He was the author of several works. Abul Faraj relates (Hist. Dynast. p. 328) that Avicenna consulted him on a certian abstruse point; and finding him slow of intelligence and incapable of solving his difficulty, left him. His death is placed about A.H. 420.

Daud Sulaiman Binakiti,—author of the Raudhat-ul-Albāb (Viridarium cordatorum) a compendium of Persian history. He lived tempore Jinghiz Khan and wrote on the history of Khātāi kings at the request or command of Sultan Abu Said Bahādur.

Abul Faraj,—(1) 897-967 A.D., author of the great Kitāb al Aghani. (2) Barhebraeus, 1226-1286, author of a famous Universal History (See Ency. Isl. under the above two names).

Hefidh I'maduddin,—Ismail-b-A'bdu'llah ad Dimashqi died in A.H. 774 (A.D. 1372). The name of his history is

'Al Bidāyah wa'l Nihāyah (Initium et finis) and is continued to his own time.

Muqaddasi,—There are several of this name. Shams-uddin Abdullah was the author of a geography entitled Ahsanu'l taqasim fi Ma'rifati'l aqalim, a description of the seven climates, died A.H. 341 (Å.D. 1049, Ency. Isl. iii. 708); a second Husāmuddin Md. b. A'bul Wāhid author of a work on judicial decisions; died A.H. 642 (A.D. 1245); a third, probably the one alluded to, Shahābuddin Abu Mahmud as Shāfa'i author of the work Muthirul Gharam ila' Ziāratil Quds wāl Shām (Liber cupidinem excitans Hierosolyma et Damascum visendi). He died in 765 (A.D. 1363). H. K.

Abu Hanifa Ahmad-b-Dāud ad Dinawari, author of a work Islah ul Mantiq (Emendatio sermonis). He died 290

(A.D. 902) H. K.

Masāudi,—author of the Muruj-ud-Dahāb. (Prata Auria) which he composed in the reign of the Caliph Mutia' Billah and many other works. It begins with the creation of the world, and is continued through the Caliphs to his own time. He died in Cairo in 346 A.H. (A.D. 957). Ency. Isl. iii. 403.

Ibn Khallakan,—the famous biographer: his work the Wafayātul Aa'yān containing the lives of iliustrious men is well-known. It was composed in Egypt under Sultān Baybars of the Mameluke dynasty. He has given a few particulars of his life at the close of this work which was finished in A.H. 672 (A.D. 1273-4). He was born in 608 (A.D. 1211) and died in 681 (A.D. 1282, Ency. Isl., ii. 396).

Abdullah-b-Asa'd al Yaja'i al Yamani, died 768 A.H. (A.D. 1266). He wrote the Mirat ul Janan wa l'brat ul Yakdhān (speculum cordis et exemplum vigilantis), a historical work beginning with the Flight and continued to his own time. Another is the Raudhatul Riahin (Viridarium hyacinthorum) containing lives of Moslem saints. Ency.

Isl., iv. 1134.

Utbi,—author of the Tārikh Yamini which contains the history of the Ghaznivide Sultan Yamin ud Daulah Mahmud-b-Subuktigin of whom he was a contemporary: it is brought down to the year 427 (A.D. 1036-7).

Baihaqi,—(1) Abu Hasan' Ali-b-Zayd al Baihaqi author of the Wishāhi Dumyatil Qasr: a supplement to the Dumyat ul Qasr of al Bakharzi the poet, who died A.H. 467 (A.D. 1075), and author of work called Tārikhi Baihaq.

Ency. Isl., i. 592.

Baihaqi,—(2) Abul Fazl Md. b. Husain, author of a history of the Ghaznavids in more than 30 vols., of which only five volumes covering the reign of Masa'ud b. Mahmud has been preserved. *Ency. Islam*, i. 592-593.

Abul Husain,-Muhammad-b-Sulaiman Al Asha'ri;

the Tārikh Khusrawi, is a history of the Persian kings.

Abbas b. Musa'b,—author of the Tārikh Khorāsān.
Ahmad-b-Sayyār-b-Ayyub,—the Hāfidh; Abul Hasan
al Marwazi, a traditionist of great repute and accuracy.
Died A.H. 268, A.D. 881. Abul Mahasin V. II. p. 45.

Abu Ishaq-Muhammad-b-al Bazzāz was the author of

a history of Herat.

Muhammad-b-Akil al Balkhi-d—A.H. 316 (A.D. 928). (Abul Mahasin II. p. 235) author of a history of Balkh. H. K.

Abu'l Qāsim Ali-b-Mahmud, author of a history of

Balkh.

Abu'l Hasan,—Abdul Ghāfir-b-Ismail Al Fārsi, author of the Siyāq fi daili tārikh Nishabur (Cursus orationis appendix ad historiam Nishaburae). He died A.H. 527 (A.D. 1132). H. K.

Juzjāni,—The Tabaqāt-i Nāsiri is on the military expeditions of Nāsiruddin Mahmud Shāh-b-Iltamish of Delhi. The name of the author is Abu Omar, Othman-b-Muhammad al Minhāj, Sirāj al Juzjāni. Translated by Raverty in

Biblio. Indica series.

Kabiruddin Irāqi,—son of Tajuddin Irāqi, who wrote of the conquests of Sultan Alāuddin Khilji. He was a skilled rhetorician, and writer; see a slight sketch of him in the Tārikh Firoz Shāhi, of Ziāuddin Barni, p. 361.

Abul Qasim Jamaluddin Muhammad,-d. 836 (A.D.

1432), author of the Zubdatut Tawarikh, in Persian.

Abul Fadhl Ubaidullah—(H.K.: in Raudhat us Safa, 'Abdullah) -b-Abi Nasr Ahmad-b-Ali-b-al Mikāl; both the works mentioned are historical.

Alauddin Ata Malik al Juwaini,—the author of the Jahan Kusha' a Persian history, Ency. Isl., i. 1067-1070,

under Djuwaini.

Hamdullah Qazvini,—author of the Tārikh Guzida (Præstantissima ex historia) which ranks among the best general histories of the East, written for the Wazir Ghiāthuddin Muhammad. It was first composed in 50,000 verses,

and then turned into prose about A.H. 730 (A.D. 1329-

30). Ency. Isl., ii. 844.

Qadhi Nasiruddin Abdullah-b-Omar al Baidhāwi-d-A.H. 684 (A.D. 1285), author of the Nidhamut Tawārikh (Ordo historiarum), a compendium of Persian history with an account of Moslem dynasties from the house of Umayyah to that of Khwārazm and the Mongols (1275 A.D.). Ency. Isl., i. 590.

Khj. Rashidi,—Khwājah Rashiduddin Fadhlullah, Tabib, "one of the greatest historians of Persia (put to death in 718, A.D. 1318), author of the Jamiut Tawārikh (Historia universalis). He began it just before the death of Ghāzān Khan A.H. 704 (1304 A.D.). His successor Khudabandah Muhammad ordered him to complete it and preface it with his name and to add to the history of the Jingiz dynasty, a more general account, Ency. Isl., iii. 1124.

Hāfidh Abru,—Shihābuddin Abdullah b. Lutfullah b. Abdur Rashid al Khwāfi (and not al-Haravi), author of the Zubdatut Tawārikh composed for Baisonghor Mirzā, an account of the principal events and strange or extraordinary occurrences recorded in the history of the world, carried down to A.H. 829 (1425 A.D.). He died in 834 (A.D. 1430). Ency. Isl., ii. 213.

Avicenna,—The full name of this philosopher is Abu Ali Husain-b-Abdullah-b-Sina, as Shaikh, ar-Rāis. He is therefore known in the East as Ibn Sina and Pur-i-Sina, from his father's name. Ency. Isl., ii. 419-420 (under Ibn Sina). He was born in Bukhārā A.H. 370 (A.D. 980) and

died in 428 (A.D. 1036) at the age of 58.

A'IN I.

The Provincial Viceroy, Sipah Sālār, literally, Commander of the Forces.**

He is the vicegerent of His Majesty. The troops and people of the provinces are under his orders and their welfare depends upon his just administration. He must seek the

[&]quot;The Sipah-Salär's duties are described also in a fermion of Akhar included in Mirdi-i-Ahmadi (Gaekwad's Or. Series), i. 163-170. See Mughel Administration by Jadunath Sarker. 3rd ed., ch. iv. §2 for further details and references to additional sources. The distinction between the provincial

will of God in all that he undertakes and be constant in praise and supplication. He must never lay aside the consideration of the people's prosperity nor suffer his zeal to sleep. He must not be prompt to vain converse or asperity of manner. Vigilance and the due distinction of ranks must be his care, especially towards subordinates near his person and officials at a distance. What is the duty of dependents must not be committed to his sons, and what these can perform he should not execute himself. In all transactions he should confide in one wiser than himself and if he can find none such, he should confer with a few chosen individuals and weigh carefully their deliberations.

It haps at times, the hoary sage
May fail at need in counsel right,
And unskilled hands of tender age
A chance shaft wing within the white.

[S'adi, Gulistān, Ch. 3.]

He should not admit many men to his secret councils, for the prudent, zealous, warm, disinterested adviser is rare. lest one of them should provoke dissension, and opportunities for timely action escape. He should regard his office of command as that of a guardian, and exercise caution, and making a knowledge of the disposition of men a rule of government, live as it behoves his office. Levity and anger he should keep under the restraint of reason. He should reclaim the rebellious by a just insight into the conduct of affairs and by good counsel, failing which, he should be swift to punish by reprimands, threats, imprisonment, stripes or amputation of limb, but he must use the utmost deliberation before severing the bond of the principle of life. He should not pollute his tongue with abuse which is the manner of noisy vagabonds of the market place. He should refrain from the use of oaths in speech for this is imputing falsehood to himself by implication and distrust in the person he addresses. In judicial investigations, he should not be

viceroy (sipak sālār) and the revenue-head (diwān) is as old as the first government set up by the Araba after the conquest of Rgypt: "In the early centuries of Arab rule (in Rgypt) two political functions are sharply distinguished, the governorship and the treasury. The governor, Amir, had control over the military and police only. . . Alongside of him was the head of the treasury the "Amil. . . These two officials had to keep a strict watch on one another." (C. H. Becker in Ency. Islam, ii. 13.) These provincial viceroys were afterways called alzims and subak-dārs. Akbar divided his empire into 12 provinces and appointed a uniform set of officials to each, first in his 24th regnal year (1579). See Akbarnāmah, tr. ii. 413. [J. Sarhar.]

satisfied with witnesses and oaths, but pursue them by manifold inquiries, by the study of physiognomy and the exercise of foresight, nor, laying the burden of it on others, live absolved from solicitude.

Beware lest justice to that judge belong,

Whose own ill-deed hath wrought the suppliant's wrong. Let him not inflict the distress of expectation upon supplicants for justice. He should shut his eyes against faults and accept excuses, and adopt such a course of conduct as will not disparage his good breeding and dignity. He should not intefere with any man's creed. A wise man, in worldly affairs that are transient, seeks not his own loss, why then should he knowingly abandon the spiritual life that is eternal, for if it be true, disturbance is criminal and if otherwise it is the malady of ignorance and is deserving of kind treatment. Each division of the kingdom, he should entrust to zealous upright men and provide for the safety of the roads by the establishment of trusty guards and from time to time receive reports of them. He should select for purposes of secret intelligence honest, provident, truthful and unavaricious men, and if such needful individuals are not to be obtained, in every affair he should associate several who are unknown to each other and inspecting their several reports thus ascertain the truth. His expenditure should be less than his income, and from his treasury he should supply the needy, especially those who loose not their tongues in solicitation. He should never be negligent of the supplies and accourrements of the troops. He should not refrain from the practice of horsemanship, and should use the bow and the matchlock and command this exercise to his men. In attaching individuals to his own person and in the increase of confidence, he should employ a cautious circumspection. Many are the evil dispositioned and licentious of nature who profess sincerity and sell themselves at a high price. He should turn his attention to the increase of agriculture and the flourishing condition of the land and earn the gratitude of the people by the faithful discharge of his obligations and account the befriending of the agricul-turists as an excellent service to the Almighty. He should retain impartial collectors of revenue and from time to time obtain information regarding their actions. Let him store for himself a goodly reward in the making of reservoirs, wells, watercourses, gardens, serais and other pious founda-tions, and set about the repairing of what has fallen into ruin. He should not be given to retirement nor be unsettled in mind which is the manner of recluses, nor make a practice of associating with the common people nor be ever surrounded by a crowd which is the fashion of blind worshippers of outward appearances.

Court not the world nor to it wholly die; Walk wisely: neither phœnix be nor fly.

Let him hold in honour the chosen servants of God, and entreat the assistance of spiritually-minded anchorites and of mendicants of tangled hair and naked of foot. imploring of blessings from the sun and the solar lamp, he should not consider as its deification or a worshipping of fire." Let him accustom himself to night vigils and partake of sleep and food in moderation. He should pass the dawn and the evening in meditation and pray at noon and at midnight. When he is at leisure from worldly affairs and introspection of conscience, he should study works of philosophy and act according to their precepts. If this does not satisfy his mind, he should peruse the spiritual admonitions of the Masnawi [of Jalal-ud-din Rumi] and regardless of the letter imbibe its spirit. He should entertain his mind with the instructive stories of Kalila and Damua, and thus gaining a knowledge of the vicissitudes of life, regard the experience of the ancients as his own. Let him apply himself to the cultivation of true knowledge and put aside childish tales. Let him associate with a discreet and trusty friend and give him permission to look carefully into his daily conduct in order that he may privately represent whatever, in the balance of his discretion, appears blameworthy and if at any time his penetration should be at fault he should not be thereat displeased for men have ever been backward in uttering a displeasing truth especially in a season of anger when reason slumbers and the spirit is aflame. Courtiers, for the most part, seek pretexts of evasion and lend a false colouring to error, and if perchance one of them should be really concerned, he will hold his peace for fear, for he is indeed difficult to find who would prefer another's benefit to his own injury. Let him not be roused to anger by the representations of detractors, but rest in the path of circumspection, for men of evil nature, dissemblers in speech, palm off their tales with the semblance of truth and representing themselves as disinterested, labour to in-

[&]quot; See Vol. I, pp. 200-202.

jure others. He should not consider himself as fixed of residence but hold himself ever ready for a summons to the presence. Let him not be malevolent, but prefer courtesy and gentleness. He should not subvert ancient families but let an illustrious ancestry redeem unworthy successors. Let him see that the younger among his followers when they meet, use the greeting Allah u akbar, "God is greatest', and the elder reply Jalla-jalaluhu, 'His majesty is eminent'. Let him not take as food a sheep or a goat of under one year and he should abstain from flesh for a month after the anniversary of his birthday. He shall not eat of anything that he has himself killed. He should restrict himself in sensual gratification and approach not a pregnant woman: food which is bestowed in memory of the deceased, he should prepare each year on his birthday and regale the needy.

With heavenly treasures store thy grave—provide While yet in life—none may when he hath died. [Gulistan.]

When the sun advances from one sign of the zodiac to another, let him offer up a thanksgiving and discharge cannon and musketry to arouse the slumberers in forgetfulness. At the first beams of the world-illumining sun and at midnight which is the turning point of its re-ascension, let him sound the kettle-drum and enforce vigilance.

A'IN II.

The Fauidar.

In the same way that His Majesty, for the prosperity of the empire, has appointed a Commander of the forces for

Akbar's order for its general use as a form of salutation among the public in the place of the customary saids 'sistlems (sanctified by its frequent occurrence in the Quran, xvi. 34, xxxix. 73 &c.), led the ignorant populace to believe that he wished to be acknowledged as God. "This caused great commotion." (Badayuni, tr. ii. 308.) For Abul Fazl's vexation at this universely. 319 and of the Sahan in the Sahan in the said of the said o

phrase''), 218 and m. [J. Serber.]

[&]quot;Allahu akbar -This formula, as the briefest expression of the absolute superiority of the One God (Allah) over the idols of the pagan Araba, is used in Muslim life in different circumstances, in which the idea of Allah, His greatness and goodness is suggested. . . . The call to the daily prayer (assum) is opened with a four-fold labbir (=the cry Allahu Abbar.) The Prophet is said to have uttered very irequently the labbir during the Hajj. (Ency. Islam, iv. 627 under takbir.)

each province, so by his rectitude of judgment and wise statesmanship he apportions several pargannahs to the care of one of his trusty, just and disinterested servants," appreciative of what is equitable, and faithful to his engagements; and him they style by the above name. As a subordinate and assistant he holds the first place. Should a cultivator or a collector of the crown lands or an assignee of government estates prove rebellious, he should induce him to submit by fair words, and if this fail, he shall take the written evidence of the principal officers and proceed to chastise him. should pitch his camp in the neighbourhood of the body of rebels and at every opportunity inflict loss upon their persons and property but not risk at once a general engagement. If the affair can be concluded with the infantry he should not employ cavalry. He should not be rash in attacking a fort, but encamp beyond bowshot and the reach of its guns and musketry, and obstruct the roads of communication. He should be vigilant against night attacks and devise a place of retreat, and be constant in patrolling. When he has captured the rebel camp, he must observe equity in the division of the spoil and reserve a fifth for the royal exchequer. If a balance of revenue be due from the village, this should be first taken into account. He should constantly inspect the horses and accoutrements of the troops. trooper be without a horse, his comrades should be assessed to provide for him and if a horse be killed in action, it should be made good at the expense of the State. He must duly furnish a roll of the troops present and absent, to the royal court and ever bear in mind the duty of carrying out its sacred ordinances.

A'IN III.

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The Mir A'dl and the Qazi.

Although the supreme authority and the redress of grievances rests with sovereign monarchs, yet the capacity of a single person is inadequate to the superintendence of

^{**} For the duties of the faufdar (modern district magistrate cum superintendent of police and commandant of local forces but not collector), see Sarkar's Mughal Administration, 3rd. ed., IV. § 4,

the entire administration. It is therefore necessary that he should appoint one of his discreet and unbiassed servants as his judiciary delegate. This person must not be content with witnesses and oaths, but hold diligent investigation of the first importance, for the inquirer is uninformed and the two litigants are cognisant of the facts. Without full inquiry, and just insight, it is difficult to acquire requisite certitude. From the excessive depravity of human nature and its covetousness, no dependence can be placed on a witness or his oath. By impartiality and knowledge of character, he should distinguish the oppressed from the oppressor and boldly and equitably take action on his conclusions. He must begin with a thorough interrogation and learn the circumstances of the case; and should keep in view what is fitting in each particular and take the question in detail, and in this manner set down separately the evidence of each witness. When he has accomplished his task with intelligence, deliberation and perspicacity, he should, for a time, turn to other business and keep his counsel from others. He should then take up the case and reinvestigate and inquire into it anew, and with discrimination and singleness of view search it to its core. If capacity and vigour are not to be found united, he should appoint two persons, one to investigate whom they call a Qazi," the other the Mir A'dl to carry out his finding.

A'IN IV.

The Kotwal.61

The appropriate person for this office should be vigorous, experienced, active, deliberate, patient, astute and humane. Through his watchfulness and night patrolling the citizens should enjoy the repose of security, and the evil-disposed lie in the slough of non-existence. He should keep a register of houses, and frequented roads, and engage the citizens in a pledge of reciprocal assistance, and

[&]quot; Qazi in Serker's Mughal Administration, Ch. II, § 7.
" Kotwal in ibid., Ch. IV, § 5, Mirat-Ahmadi, i. 168. In the later Mughal Empire the inspection of markets was often entrasted to the muhissib (from Aurangzib's reign).

bind them to a common participation of weal and woe. He should form a quarter by the union of a certain number of habitations, and name one of his intelligent subordinates for its superintendence and receive a daily report under his seal of those who enter or leave it, and of whatever events therein occur. And he should appoint as a spy one among the obscure residents with whom the other should have no acquaintance, and keeping their reports in writing, employ a heedful scrutiny. He should establish a separate serāi and cause unknown arrivals to alight therein, and by the aid of divers detectives take account of them. He should minutely observe the income and expenditure of the various classes of men and by a refined address, make his vigilance reflect honour on his administration. Of every guild of artificers, he should name one as guildmaster, and another as broker, by whose intelligence the business of purchase and sale should be conducted. From these also he should require frequent reports. He should see to the open thoroughfare of the streets and erect barriers entrances and secure freedom from defilement. night is a little advanced, he should prohibit people from entering or leaving the city. He should set the idle to some handicraft. He should remove former grievances and forbid any one from forcibly entering the house of another. He shall discover thieves and the goods they have stolen or be responsible for the loss. He should so direct that no one shall demand a tax or cess (baj wa tamgha) save on arms, elephants, horses, cattle, camels, sheep, goats and merchandise. In every Subah a slight impost shall be levied at an appointed place. Old coins should be given in to be melted down or consigned to the treasury as bullion. He should suffer no alteration of value in the gold and silver coin of the realm, and its diminution by wear in circulation, he shall recover to the amount of the deficiency. He should use his discretion in the reduction of prices and not allow purchases to be made outside the city. The rich shall not take beyond what is necessary for their consumption. Hs shall examine the weights and make the ser not more nor less than thirty dams. In the gaz hereinafter to be mentioned, he should permit neither decrease or increase, and restrain the people from the making, the dispensing, the buying or selling of wine, but refrain from invading the privacy of domestic life. Of the property of a deceased or missing person who may have no heir, he shall take an

inventory and keep it in his care. He should reserve separate ferries and wells for men and women.

He should appoint persons of respectable character to supply the public watercourses, and prohibit women from riding on horseback. He should direct that no ox or buffalo or horse, or camel be slaughtered, and forbid the restriction of personal liberty and the selling of slaves. He should not suffer a woman to be burnt against her inclination, nor a criminal deserving of death, to be impaled, nor any one to be circumcised under the age of twelve. Above this limit of age, the permission may be accorded. Religious enthusiasts, calenders, and dishonest tradesmen he should expel or deter from their course of conduct, but he should be careful in this matter not to molest a God-fearing recluse, or persecute barefooted wandering anchorites. He should allot separate quarters to butchers, hunters of animals, washers of the dead, and sweepers, and restrain men from associating with such stony-hearted gloomy-dispositioned creatures. He shall amputate the hand of any who is the pot-companion of an executioner, and the finger of such as converse with his family. He should locate the cemetery outside of, and to the west of the city. He should prohibit his adherents from wearing sombre garments in mourning and induce them to wear red. From the first till the nineteenth of the month of Farwardin, during the whole month of Aban, the days of the sun's passage from one sign of the zodiac to another, viz., the first of every solar month, the sixteenth of the same, the Ilahi festivals, the days of the eclipse of the sun and moon, and on the first day of the week, he shall prohibit men from slaughtering animals, but hold it lawful as a necessity for feeding animals used in hunting and for the sick. He shall remove the place of execution to without the city and see that the Ilāhi festivals ore observed. He shall have lamps lit on the night of the Nauroz (New Year's day) and on the night of the 19th of Farwardin. On the eve of a festival, as well as on the festival itself he shall cause a kettle-drum to be sounded at each watch. In the Persian and Hindu almanacs, he shall cause the Ilahi era to be adopted and the beginning of the month according to the Hindu nomenclature he shall place in Shukla-pachek.

A'IN V.

The 'Aml-guzār or Collector of the Revenue.

Should be a friend of the agriculturist. Zeal and truthfulness should be his rule of conduct. He should consider himself the representative of the lord paramount and establish himself where every one may have easy access to him without the intervention of a mediator. He should deal with the contumacious and the dishonest by admonition and if this avail not, proceed to chastisement, nor should he be in apprehension of the land falling waste. He should not cease from punishing highway robbers, murderers and evildoers, nor from heavily mulcting them, and so administer that the cry of complaint shall be stilled. He should assist the needy husbandman with advances of money and recover them gradually. And when through the exertions of the village headman the full rental is received, he should allow him half a biswahe on each bigha, or otherwise reward him according to the measure of his He should ascertain the extent of the soil in cultivation and weigh each several portion in the scales of personal observation and be acquainted with its quality. The agricultural value of land varies in different districts and certain soils are adapted to certain crops. He should deal differently, therefore, with each agriculturist and take his case into consideration. He should take into account with discrimination the engagements of former collectors and remedy the produce of ignorance or dishonesty. He should strive to bring waste lands into cultivation and take heed that what is in cultivation fall not waste. He should stimulate the increase of valuable produce and remit somewhat of the assessment with a view to its augmentation. And if the husbandman cultivate less and urge a plausible excuse, let him not accept it. Should there be no waste land in a village and a husbandman be capable of adding to his cultivation, he should allow him land in some other village.

He should be just and provident in his measurements. Let him increase the facilities of the husbandman year by year, and under the pledge of his engagements, take nothing beyond the actual area under tillage. Should some

The 20th part of a bigha.

prefer to engage by measurement and others by appraisement of crops, let him forward the contracts with all despatch to the royal presence. Let him not make it a practice of taking only in cash payments but also in kind. This latter is effected in several ways. First, kankut: kan in the Hindi language signifies grain, and kut, estimate. The whole land is taken either by actual mensuration or by pacing it, and the standing crops estimated in the balance of inspection. The experienced in these matters say that this comes little short of the mark. If any doubt arise, the crops should be cut and estimated in three lots, the good, the middling and the inferior, and the hesitation removed. Ofte: too, the land taken by appraisement, gives a sufficiently accurate return. Secondly, bātāi, also called bhaoli, the crops are reaped and stacked and divided by agreement in the presence of the parties. But in this case several intelligent inspectors are required, otherwise the evil-minded and false are given to deception. Thirdly, khet batāi, when they divide the fields after they are sown. Fourthly, lang batai; after cutting the grain, they form it in heaps and divide it among themselves, and each takes his share home to clean it and turn it to profit. If it be not prejudicial to the husbandman, he may take the value of the corn-hearing land in cash at the market rate. If on this land they sow the best kinds of produce, 65 in the first vear he should remit a fourth of the usual assessment. at the time of collection, the better produce is found to be larger in quantity than the previous year, but less land cultivated, and the revenue be the same, let him not be provoked or removed to contention. He should always seek to satisfy the owner of the crops.. He should not entrust the appraisement to the headman of the village lest it give rise to remissness and incompetence and undue authority be conferred on highhanded oppressors, but he should deal with each husbandman, present his demand, and separately and civilly receive his dues.

He must take security from land surveyors, assessors and other officers of revenue. He should supply the officials engaged in the land measurements, for each day on which

⁴⁶ Hus-i-Kämil such as sugar, pas, indigo, opinus or cotton in contradistinction to fins-i-lidne, inferior crops, such as maise,

they are employed, with 16 dams and 31 sers, and as a monthly ration, on the following scale:

		Flour.	Oil.	Grain. ser	Vegetables &c. dām
	•••	5 4	1/2 1/2	7 4	4 4
Land surveyor and four thanadars, each	•••	8	1	5	5

He shall affix a mark to the land surveyed and shall take a bond from the headman that there shall be no concealment regarding the land, and the various crops shall be duly reported. In the process of measurement if any inferior portion of land be observed, he shall at once estimate its quantity, and from day to day take a note of its quality and this voucher he shall deliver to the husbandman. But if this discovery be made after the collection of the revenue. he shall gather information from the neighbours and from unofficial documents and strike an average. In the same way as the kārkun (registrar of collections) sets down the transactions of the assessments, the muqaddam⁴ (chief village revenue officer) and the patwāri (land-steward) shall keep their respective accounts. The Collector shall compare these documents and keep them under his seal and give a copy thereof to the clerk. When the assessment of the village is completed, he shall enter it in the abstract of the village accounts, and after verifying it anew, cause its authentication by the kārkun and patwāri, and this document he shall forward weekly to the royal presence and never delay it beyond fifteen days. After the despatch of the draft estimates to the imperial court, should any disaster to the crops occur, on ascertaining the exact particulars on the spot, he shall calculate the extent of the loss and recording it in writing, transmit it without delay in order that it may be approved or a commissioner despatched. He should collect the revenue in an amicable manner and extend not the hand of demand out of season. He should begin the collection of the spring harvest from the Holi, which is a Hindu festival occurring when the sun is about to pass from Aquarius and is entering or has reached mid-way in Pisces and the Autumn harvest from the Dasharah, which is a festival falling when the sun is in the middle or

⁴⁴ For muqaddam, Wilson, 351.

last days of Virgo or the first ten of Libra. Let him see that the treasurer does not demand any specials kind of coin, but take what is of standard weight and proof and receive the equivalent of the deficiency at the value of current coin and record the difference in the voucher. He should stipulate that the husbandman bring his rents himself at definite periods so that the malpractices of low intermediaries may be avoided. When there is r. full harvest, he should collect the appropriate revenue and accept no adjournment of payments on future crops.

Whosoever does not cultivate land liable to taxation but encloses it for pasturage, the Collector shall take for each buffalo six dams, and for an ox, three dams yearly, but for a calf or a buffalo which has not yet calved, he shall make no demand. He shall assign four oxen, two cows and one buffalo to each plough and shall lay no impost on these. Whatever is paid into the treasury, he shall himself examine and count and compare it with the day-ledger of the karkun. This he shall verify by signature of the treasurer and placing it in bags under seal, shall deposit it in a strong room and fasten the door thereof with several locks of different construction. He shall keep the key of one himself and leave the others with the treasurer. At the end of the month, he shall take from the writer (bitikchi) the account of the daily receipts and expenditure and forward it to the presence. When two lakhs of dams are collected, he shall remit them by the hands of trusty agents. He shall carefully instruct the patwers of each village to enter in detail in the memorandum which he gives to the husbandman, the amount he receives from the same; any balances he shall enter under each name in a book and forward it attested by the signatures of the headmen; and these, at the next harvest, he shall recover without distress. He shall carefully inspect the suyurghales tenures, sending copies of them to the registry office to be compared. He should ascertain the correctness of the chaknamah," and resume the share of a deceased grantee or one who is an

[&]quot;Zer-i-hids in the text should be trumslated as hije present Majesty's coin. Jerrett took it to mean 'any special kind of coin', but this interpretation is wrong. It is not necessary to read Khalls for Khas (from a various) so suggested by Jarrett (so "fine gold"). J. S.

"An assignment of land revenue for charitable purposes: also a great of land without stipulation of any condition or service. Wilson, 455.

"This is a great of alienated lands specifying the hearshay limits thereof. Class, according to Elliot, is a patch of rest-free land detached from a village, Wheen. 37.

Witness, 97.

absentee or actually in service of the state. He should take care that land cultivated by the farmer himself and not by the tenant, as well as resumed lands, should not be suffered to fall waste; the property of the absentee or of him that dies without an heir he should duly keep under ward and report the circumstances. He should see that no capitation-tax be imposed nor interfere with the remission of dues

granted by former governments. He shall not make the occasions of journeying, feasting or mourning an opportunity for exactions, and refrain from accepting presents. Whenever a muqaddam or patwari shall bring money or, advancing to the dais, shall present a dam in obeisance, he shall not accept it. In the same way he shall renounce balkati, which is the practice of taking a small fee from each village when the harvest is ready for reaping. He shall also waive all perquisites on handicrafts, market-booths, police, travelling passports, garden produce, temporary sheds, enclosure, fishing rights, port-dues. butter, oil of sesame, blanketing, leather, wool, and the like malpractices of the avaricious who fear not God. He shall provide for the periodic appointment of one among those best acquainted with the district, to reside at the royal court and furnish it with the minutest particulars. month he shall submit a statement of the condition of the people, of the jāgirdārs, the neighbouring residents, the submission of the rebellious, the market prices, the current rents of tenements, the state of the destitute poor, of artificers and all other contingencies. Should there be no kotwal, the Collector must take the duties of that office upon himself.

A'IN VI.

The Bitikchia

Must be conscientious, a good writer, and a skilful accountant. He is indispensable to the collector. It is his duty to take from the kanungow the average decennial state

A word of Turkish origin, signifying a writer or scribe. Enc. Isl. i.

[&]quot;An officer in each district acquainted with its customs and land-teneres and whose appointment is usually hereditary. He receives report from the polithris of new cases of alluvion and diluvion, sales, leases, gifts of land &c. which entail a change in the register of mutations. He is a revenue officer and subordinate to the tahoildar. Carnegy, Kachk. Technical. Wilson, 300.

of the village revenues in money and kind, and having made himself acquainted with the customs and regulations of the district, satisfy the Collector in this regard, and lend his utmost assistance and attention. He shall record all engagements made with the agriculturists, define the village boundaries, and estimate the amount of arable and waste land. He shall note the names of the munsif, the superintendent (sābit), the land-surveyor and thānadār, also that of the cultivator and headman, and record below, the kind of produce cultivated. He should also set down the village, the pergunnah and the harvest, and subtracting the deficiency take the value of the assets, or after the manner of the people of the country, inscribe the name, the kind of produce,

and the deficiency below the date of cultivation.

When the survey of the village is complete, he shall determine the assessment of each cultivator and specify the revenue of the whole village. The Collector shall take the revenue on this basis, and forward a copy of the survey, called in Hindi khasra to the royal court. When drawing out the rolls, if the former documents are not available, he should take down in writing from the patwari the cultivation of each husbandman by name and thus effect his purpose, and transmit the roll together with the balances and cellections punctually, and he shall enter the name of the tahsildar below each village, in the day-ledger. He shall record the name of each husbandman who brings his rent aud grant him a receipt signed by the treasurer. Copies of the rolls of the patwari and mugaddam by means of which they have made the collections, together with the sarkhat, that is the memorandum given to the husbandman, he shall receive from the patwari, and inspecting them, shall carefully scrutinize them. If any falsification appears, he shall fine them and report to the Collector daily and the collection and balances of each village and facilitate the performance of his duty. Whenever any cultivator desires a reference to his account, he shall settle it without delay and at the close of each harvest he shall record the collections and balances of each village and compare them with the patwari's. and enter each day in the ledger the receipts and disbursements under each name and heading, and authenticate it

[&]quot;Monsif—An officer employed to superintend the uncomment of the lands of a village in concert with the villagers. [Wilson, 356]. For the position of the numeri in Sher Shah's revenue system, see 'Abbit, Sarwini, near the end. [J. S.]

by the signature of the Collector and treasurer. At the end of the month, he shall enclose it in a bag under the seal of the Collector and forward it to the presence. He shall also despatch daily the price-current of mohurs and rupees and other articles under the seals of the principal men, and at the end of each harvest, he shall take the receipts and disbursements of the treasurer, and forward it authenticated by his signature. The abstract and settlement of the assessment, at the close of each year, he shall transmit under the signature of the Collector. He shall enter the effects and cattle plundered in any village, in the day-ledger, and report the circumstances. At the year's end, when the time of the revenue-collections has closed, he shall record the balances due from the village and deliver the record to the Collector and forward a copy to the royal court. When removed from office, he shall make over to the Collector for the time being his account under the heads of balances. advances &c., and after satisfying him in this regard, take the detail thereof and repair to the Court.

AIN VII.

The Treasurer (Khazānadār)

Called in the language of the day Fotadar.71 The treasury should be located near the residence of the governor and the situation should be such where it is not liable to injury. He should receive from the cultivator any kind of mohurs, rupees or copper that he may bring, and not demand any particular coin. He shall require no rebate on the august coinage of the realm but take merely the equivalent of the deficiency in coin-weight. Coinage of former reigns he shall accept as bullion. He shall keep the treasure in a strong room with the knowledge of the shiqdar22 and the registrar, and count it every evening and

The term fold is applied in Arabic, to cloths used as waist wrappers brought from Sind, and the word itself is supposed to be derived from that country and not to be of Arabic origin. The office was no doubt originally named from this distinguishing portion of apparel; whence the common name Podder applied to a banker, cash-keeper, or an officer in public establishments for weighing money or bullion. See Wilson's Gloss., 100 and 422.

Shigder, an officer appointed to collect the revenue from a certain division of land under the Moghal government; it was sometimes applied to the chief financial officer of a province or to the viceroy in his financial capacity.—Wilson's Glossary, 400. For this officer in Sher Shah's system, see 'Abblis Sarwani, near the end.

cause a memorandum thereof to be signed by the Collector and compare the day-ledger with the registrar's account and authenticate it by his signature. On the door of the treasury as sealed by the Collector, he should place a lock of his own, and open it only with the cognisance of the Collector and registrar. He shall not receive any monies from the cultivator save with the knowledge of the Collector and registrar, and he shall grant a receipt for the same. He shall cause the patwari's signature to be affixed to the ledger known in Hindustan as bahi, so that discrepancy may be avoided. He shall consent to no disbursements without the voucher of the diwan," and shall enter into no usurious transactions. If any expenditure should be necessary that admits of no delay, he may act under the authority of the registrar and shiqdar and represent the case to government. The aforementioned duties, from those of the commander of the troops up to this point, are primarily under the direct cognisance of the sovereign authority and as no one individual can perform them, a deputy is appointed for each function and thus the necessary links in administration are strengthened.

Currency of the means of Subsistence.

Since the benefit and vigour of human action are referrible to bodily sustenance, so in proportion to its purity is the spirit strengthened; the body, were it otherwise, would grow corpulent and the spirit weak: the thoughts too under such a regimen, incline to refinement and actions The seekers of felicity, sober in conduct, are before all things particularly careful in the matter of food and do not pollute their hands with every meat. To the simple in heart who fear God, labour is difficult and their means of living straitened. They have not that luminous insight which penetrating to the essence of things, dwells in repose, but through fear of the displeasure of God, are sunk in exhaustion of soul from the pangs of hunger. As for instance in the case of the man who possessed a few cows, his legitimate property, and subsisted on their milk. By the accident of fortune, it chanced that they were

[&]quot;Diván. This term was especially applied to the head financial minister whether of the state or of a province, being charged in the latter with the assection of the revenue, its remittance to the imperial treasury and invested with extensive judicial powers in all civil and financial causes. Wilson's Glassery, 144-146. For a full description, see Sarker's Maghel Administration, Ch. 3, § 1-8.

carried off, and he passed some days fasting. An active fellow after diligent pursuit brought them back, but he would not accept them and replied, "I know not whence those dumb animals have had food during these past few days." In a short space this simple soul died. Many tales are told of such dull-witted creatures who have thus passed away. There are also avaricious worldlings who do not recognize the difference between other people's property and their own, and gratify themselves at the expense of their spiritual and temporal good. The ignorant and distraught in mind, making their own necessities an occasion of spoliation and seizure, prepare for themselves eternal

punishment.

Simple, innocent-minded folk consider that there are no unappropriated waste lands and were they obtainable. it would be difficult to furnish the implements of cultivation, and if these could be had, the means of providing food which would enable them to labour, are not manifest. They can discover no mine to excavate, and if one were pointed out to them which had no owner, it would be extremely onerous to obtain a living therefrom. They are averse too, from the profession of arms, lest dear life be the exchange for base lucre. They withdraw themselves also from commerce for this reason that many ask a high price for their goods, conceal their deficiencies and praise them for qualities which are not in them, while they close their eyes to the evident excellencies of what they purchase and disparage it for faults it does not possess, preferring their own benefit to another's loss. And they disapprove also of those who are content to hold lawful the sequestration of the goods of rival sectaries, and they affirm that if the fautor of such pretension be discerning and wise, it will seem an occasion for additional anxiety rather than a sanction to retain the property of another; for how can the illicit seizure of what is another's be commendable on the score of a difference of faith? On the contrary, it is a suggestion of the evil one, a phantasy of the dreams of the avaricious and unfit for the ears of the good. At the present time His Majesty has placed a lamp upon the highway before all men, that they may distinguish the road from the pitfalls, and sink not into the slough of perdition, nor pass their dear lives in unprofitableness.

Since there is infinite diversity in the natures of men and distractions, internal and external, daily increase, and heavy-footed greed travels post haste, and light-headed rage breaks its rein, where friendship in this demon-haunted waste of dishonour is rare, and justice lost to view, there is, in sooth, no remedy for such a world of confusion but in autocracy, and this panacea in administration is attainable only in the majesty of just monarchs. If a house or a quarter cannot be administered without the sanctions of hope and fear of a sagacious ruler, how can the tumult of this world-nest of hornets be silenced save by the authority of a vicegerent of Almighty power? How, in such a case can the property, lives, honour, and religion of the people be protected, notwithstanding that some recluses have imagined that this can be supernaturally accomplished, but a well-ordered administration has never been effected without the aid of sovereign monarchs. That fiery wilderness of talismanic power, too, is haunted by spells and sorcerers, and storms of confusion from this sea of undiscernment have arisen and arise, and many souls, through simplicity and shortsightedness, in the turbulent billows of inexperience have been and are still ever engulfed, while those who by the light of wisdom and through the grace of acceptance have bridled their desires and garnered provisions for the long journey to come, have, in the cross-roads of distraction, become the reproach of high and low, for their folly, irreligion and unbelief. In that assembly of ignorance should a philosopher of experience enter, he must needs take up the fashion of fools and so escape from the contumely of the base.

It is evident that in all cultivated areas, the possessors of property are numerous, and they hold their lands by ancestral descent, but through malevolence and despite, their titles become obscured by the dust of uncertainty and the hand of firmness is no longer stretched above them. If the cultivator hold in awe the power of the Adorner of the universe and the Elixir of the living, and the merchant turn back from evil designing and reflect in his heart on the favour of the lord of the world, the depository of divine grace, his possessions would assuredly be approved of wisdom. Thus the virtue of property lies in the pledge of intention, and a just ruler, like a saltbed, makes clean the unclean, and the evil good. But without honest coadjustors, abundant accessories of state and a full treasury even he could effect nothing and the condition of subserviency and obedience would lack the bloom of

discipline. Now the man of robust frame should, in the first place, choose the profession of arms and reflect on the assistance which he is capable of rendering, so as to regard his life as devoted to the task of preserving human society from dissolution. The means of sustenance are likewise as abundant to the labourer as forage for his cattle. But if a man is unequal to this, he should endeavour, in some way, to enter into the number of state servants. Thus the currency of the means of subsistence rests on a twofold basis, viz., the justice of sovereign monarchs and regard to the welfare of well-disposed dependents. The base materialist understands not the language of reason and never transcends the limits of bodily sense. This unfertile soil needs the water of the sword, not the limpid spring of demonstration. In the presence of the majesty of the prince, the proud and perverse of disposition sink into obscurity while the prosperity of the good who seek after justice is ever continuous.

Of a truth, whatever be the recompense of the guardianship over the four" priceless elements of the constitution, it is both meet and expedient and according to the Almighty will. To the watchmen over the house, the lord thereof appoints the guerdon, and to the watchmen of the universe, its shepherds. If the whole of a man's possessions were spent for the protection of his honour, it would be but fitting if in gratitude he further pledged his whole credit, how much the more when it is a question of the guardianship of the four great elements of State polity? But just monarchs exact not more than is necessary to effect their purpose and stain not their hands with avarice; and hence it is that this principle varies, as has been stated. according to diversities of age and country. From this suggestive digression, it will be evident that whatever circumspect rulers exact from their subjects after due deliberation and to subserve the interests of justice and grant to their submissive dependents, has a perfect propriety and is universally in vogue. It is also clear that the maintenance of the soldier should be ampler and more choice. Next follow the cultivators and then other artisans.

⁷⁴ In Vol. I. Abul Pazl's preface, they are named as (1) the warriors, (2) the artificers and merchants, (3) the learned, and (4) the husbandmen and labourers,—who are respectively likened to the four elements, fire, siz, water and earth. [J. 8.]

Ancient Greek" treatises affirm that professions are circumscribed to three classes, the Noble, the Base, and the Intermediate. The former refers to the mind and is, also, of not more than three kinds: the first concerns the pure intellect, as sagacity and capability of administration; the second, acquired knowledge, as composition or eloquence. the third personal courage, as military duty. The Base also is of three kinds: the first is opposed to the common weal of mankind, such as the hoarding of grain; the second is the contrary of any one virtue, as buffoonery; the third is such as the disposition is naturally averse from, as the trade of a barber, a tanner or a sweeper. The Intermediate comprises various callings and trades; some that are of necessity, such as agriculture; others which could be dispensed with, as dyeing; others again simple, as carpentry and ironmongery; and some compound, as the manufacturing of scales or knives.

From this exposition the distinguished character of the military profession is evident. In short, the noblest source of maintenance is to be found in a profession which is associated with just dealing, self-restraint and bravery and apart from evil doing and sensuality. The good regard three things as necessary in a profession—avoidance of tyranny, refraining from what is dishonourable, abstinence from all that is mean; by what is dishonourable, is meant buffoonery and the like low pursuits; by what is mean, is understood an inclination to base callings.

When an appropriate means of maintenance is secured, it is a requisite condition of economy to husband a portion of one's means, provided that the household is not thereby straitened. The mendicant should not be turned away disappointed nor subjected to the reproof of covetousness and greed. The proper control of an estate is conditional on the expenditure being less than the income; it is permitted to indulge a little in commercial speculation and engage in remunerative undertakings, reserving a part in coin and valuables, a part in goods and wares, and somewhat invested in the speculations of others, and yet a por-

[&]quot;The reference is, no doubt, to Aristotle's Politics z. (A) the true sames of which has been lost by filtration through some Arabic version or paraphrase. [H. S. J.]

The reader will find most of these ideas in a rather different form in Aristotle's Politics, Walford's translation in Bolm's Chasical Library (1988), Mr. IV. Ch. IV (pp. 130 sqc.) Mr. III. Ch. V (p. 91). [J. S.]

tion in lands and immoveable estates, and a share may be entrusted to borrowers of credit, and expenditure regulated with circumspection, justice and modesty. Let such a one be frank in his commercial dealings and give no place in his heart to self-reproach. He should keep in view of his purpose, the will of God, not the hope of gratitude, the increase of reputation or the expectation of reward. He should also give freely to the needy whose destitution is unexposed. There is also a twofold manner of munificence which if exercised in just measure, is meritorious. Firstly, what is given in pure generosity or largesse such as a present and the like. This should be done quickly and secretly and without setting store on its amplitude or abundance, nor yet so as to cripple one's resources or exhaust them.

Secondly what is called for by occasional exigencies, either in procuring comforts or removing grievances, such as what is given to oppressors or to the profligate in order that person, property and honour may escape their injury. But in this he should use moderation. In procuring the conveniences of life, however, it is better that the bounty should be liberal.

People of the world in the matter of living are to be resolved into three classes. One class are fallen into such heedlessness that spiritual needs do not enter their comprehension, much less are practically considered. Another through their luminous fortune are so immersed in the consideration of essential truths that they give no thought to their means of sustenance. But those who seek the felicity to come, the circumspect in conduct, neglect not a just appreciation of life but make external conditions the instrument of interior well being in the hope of admission among those absorbed in divine love, and so attaining to the third degree of felicity, whence after traversing the arid waste of deliverance, they may repose in the second."

The dues of sovereignty have thus been set forth. The circulation of the means of sustenance, thus, is seen to rest on the justice of prudent monarchs and the integrity of conscientious dependents. And because the conditions of

That is, according to the theology of the mystics, the third stage in the progressive spiritual life is the attraction of the soul to God Allah; the second is immersion in the Divine love fl-Allah; the supreme stage is the unitive Ma' Allah reserved for his chosen saints.

the royal state and prerogative vary in different countries, and soils are diverse in character, some producing abundantly with little labour, and others the reverse, and as inequalities exist also, through the remoteness or vicinity of water and cultivated tracts, the administration of each state must take these circumstances into consideration and fix its demands accordingly. Throughout the whole extent of Hindustan where at all times so many enlightened monarchs have reigned, one-sixth of the produce was exacted; in the Turkish empire, Iran and Turan a fifth, a sixth, and a tenth respectively. In ancient times a capitation tax was imposed called, khirāj. Kubād disapproved of this practice, and resolved that the revenue should be fixed upon arable land accurately surveyed. But his death occurred before he could accomplish his design. Noshirwan (his son) carried it to completion and made the jarib of ten square reeds." This was sixty royal yards square. One fourth of this was taken as a quality and valued at three dirhams," and the third part was fixed as the contribution due to the state. Qafiz is a measure, called also saa' weighing eight ratl, and, some say, more. The dirham is equal in weight to one misgal. When the Caliphate fell to Omar, at the suggestion of the learned, he adopted the plan of Noshirwan but through the vicissitudes of temporal conditions, he introduced some alterations which may be gathered from ancient volumes. In Turan and Iran from ages past, they have exacted a tenth, but the exactions have increased to more than a half which does not appear exorbitant to a despotic government. In Egypt they take for a

> Faddan of the best soil, 3 Ibrahimis middling. ., worst.

[&]quot;In the original, the word qubesh is written erroneously for quebah which is corrected in the subsequent page with the following note. "According to the glossaries, 6 barleycorns make an asba". (finger breadth): 4 asba", a qubesh: 8 qubesh, a serba" (cubit): 10 cubits, a quebah: 10 quebah, an ashl: a jerib is 1 square ashl, i.e., 10 square quebah or 100 square cubits. According to the quadamah, 4 asba" is equal to a quebah, and 10 quebah a cubit, and 60 cubits an ashl. According to this, a jerib would be 60 square cubits."

"Quest.—A space of ground containing from about 124 to 144 cubits equare. It is also a dry measure. Enc. Isl. ii. 622.

"Dirham in Ency. of Islam, i. 878; and Ain-i-Ahberi, Vol. I. Ain II.

"Ret! is variously reted at 12 to 16 oz. At Bombay it is said to be equal to 36 Surat rupees. In the Red Sea littural the Bottolo, as it is corruptly called, varies from 10 to 24 oz. avoirdupois. Wilson's Gloss., 441.

The faddanson is a measure of land of 100 square reeds each of which is equal to one baa'. An Ibrahimi is current for 40 kabirs and 14 kabirs is equal to a rupee of Akbar Shah. In some parts of the Turkish empire, they exac from the husbandman 30 Akchehs for every yoke of oxen. The Akcheh is a silver coin equal to 81 Ibrahimis. And from crown lands the demand is 42 Akcheh, and from each soldier 21, besides which the governor of the Subah taker 15 more. In some parts for each plough 20, and from each soldier 7 Akcheh, while the Governor takes six. In others, the Sanjaqbegi81 receives 27 and the Subash (kotwal) twelve. Other systems are also given which obtain in that empire.

Note on Islamic land-tax.

The very obscure and complicated subject of the land system of early Islam can be best studied in the Encylobædia of Islam by piecing together information scattere under the following words: -Kharadj (ii. 902), Muqasam (Suppl. 154), 'Ushr (iv. 1050-1052), Dar-al-Sulh (i. 919), and Fai' (ii. 38). Abu Yusuf Ibn Yagub's Kitāb-ul-Khirā (Fr. tr. by. E. Fagan) is not very helpful. The applica-tion of the system to India in Aurangzib's reign is discussed in detail in Jadunath Sarkar's Mughal Administration, 3rd ed., ch. XI.

The term sulhiy, for the meaning of which Abul Faz refers us to "ancient documents," will be understood from the following passages of the Ency. Islam (i. 919, under Dar ul Sulh): "With the Christian population of Najran Muhammad himself entered on treaty relationships, guaranteeing their safety and laying on them a certain tribute. See on the whole story, Baladhuri, Futuh-al-Buldān. The constitutional situation on the matter is thus

reckoned as the quantity which a yoke of oxen will plough in one day and commonly defined as consisting of 333% quasables, the latter being 24 quadab, and the quablah being the measure of a man's fist with the thumb erect, or about 6% inches. Lane's Arab. Low. Rucy. Islam, ii. 38.

**Sanjaq is a word in Turkish, signifying a flag or standard: it also means a minor province of which several form one Hyalat or Government. It is in this latter sense that the word should probably be taken, signifying the provincial governor. An Akcheh is 1/2 of a pars and consequently the with of a plastre or the 1/2 of a penny; it is frequently mentioned under the mane of asper, a corruption of the Greek equivalent for the proper Turkish word. [Ency. Islam, iv. 148. Aqcha, in thid., i. 229]. [Ency. Islam, iv. 148. Aqcha, in toid., i. 229].

formally laid down by Mawardi: All territories ... under Muslim control . . . fall into three divisions : (i) those taken by force of arms; (ii) those taken without fighting after the flight of their previous owners; (iii) those taken by treaty (Sulh)... In the last (class) if the title to the soil remains with the original owners, . . . the terms of the treaty are that the owners retain their lands and pay a Kharāj from their produce; that this kharāj is regarded as a jizya which falls away when they embrace Islam; that their lands are absolutely their own to sell or pledge; and that their country is neither Dar-ul-Islam nor Dar-ul-Harb but Dar-ul-Sulh. When these lands pass to a Muslim, Kharāj can no longer be collected . . . Mawardi includes among the Bilad al Islam this Dar-ul-Sulh." Also: ibid... ii, 38 under Fai':-"Verses lix. 6, 3 and 10 of the Quran were revealed when Muhammad had resolved not to divide the fields and orchards left by the Ban u'l Nādir, who had been driven out of the country, as booty of war among those who had taken part in the siege, but to give them to the Muhājirs exclusively. He justified this action by arguing that these were really obtained not by fighting, but in a peaceful fashion, by surrender."

"At a later period 'Umar I thought that this principle should be applied to the newly conquered territories also. He ordered that only movable property captured should be divided among the Arab conquerors, but not the land.... As a rule only the native population was to till the ground and pay... tribute to the Muslim treasury. This payment (kharāj) was to be bound up with the possession of land for all time... The only exception was those districts, whose inhabitants had voluntarily surrendered on the approach of the Arab army on condition that they were allowed to retain possession of their lands. In such districts (the so called Dār-al-Sulh) the land did not belong to the fāi."

[I. Sarkar.]

The Muhammadans account conquered lands of 8 kinds: U'shri, Khirāji and Sulhiy. The first two are subdivided into five kinds and the last into two. U'shri, 1st kind; the district of Tehāmah which comprises Mecca, Tāif, Yemen, O'mān, Bahrayn. 2nd kind; land of which

The text has a word following "Bahraya" which may possibly be read as a proper name. Bither Rabah or Rayah, but Abu'l Fazi quotes evidently from the Fatiwa of Qizi Khan (A.H. 882, Hāj. Khal.) where the definition

the owner has voluntarily embraced that faith. Ord, Lands which have been conquered and apportioned. 4th, Land on which an adherent of that faith has built a mosque or planted a vine or laid out a garden or fertilized it with rain water; otherwise other conditions apply. 4th, Waste land which has been brought into cultivation by permission of the owner. Khirāji 1st kind; Persia proper and Kirman. 2nd, Land which a tributary subject has laid out as grounds round about his house. 3rd, Land which a Muslim has reclaimed and irrigates from a source constructed from the public revenues. 4th, Land which has been acquired by convention. 5th, Land cultivated by means of water that pays revenue. Sulhiy, Lands of the Bani Najran and Bani Taghlib; the details of these may be learnt from ancient documents. Likewise, in some treatises, land is regarded under three heads. 1st, Land cultivated by Muslims which they deem U'shr. and Land of which the proprietors have accepted that faith. According to some, this is U'shri, and others say that it is U'shri or Khirāji, according to the determination of the Imam. 3rd, Land acquired by conquest, which some make U'shri and others khirāii. and others again affirm that its classification rests with the 4th, Land which those outside the faith retain on convention. This they call khirāji. Tribute paid by khirāji lands is of two kinds. 1. Muqāsamah (divided), is the 5th or 6th produce of the soil. 2. Wazifah which is settled according to the capability and convenience of the tributaries. Some call the whole produce of the revenue khirāj, and as the share of the producing body is in excess of their expenditure, the Zakāta is taken from the amount under certain stipulations and this they call a tithe, but on

of the limits of U'shel are laid down exactly as in the text with the omission of Rabeh. The Patäwa i A'lamgiri follows Qui Khān. From the variants of this doubtful reading given in the notes, it is clear that there is some corruption and perhaps the variant of M.S. Dal is correct.

The text has Tha'lab, a misprint. The details of the submission of these two tribes may be gathered from Caussin De Perc. Essat sur l'histoire des Arabes. Ency. Islam, iii. 825 (under Nadjirān), Sup. 254 (under Ugail), Sup. 223 (under Taghlib).

This word signifies a tenth and is the tithe assessed on lands under Muslim rule. U'shel are therefore those lands subject to the tithe.

Wasifak signifies a stipend or any thing stipulated or agreed upon; hence, revenue collected at a stipulated or fixed rate for a certain quantity of land. Wilson's Gloss., 557.

Zakst, the poor rate, the portion therefrom given as the due of God by the possessor that he may purify it thereby, the root of the word, asher,

the possessor that he may purify it thereby, the root of the word, ashe, denoting purity. The proportion varies, but is generally a fortieth or 2½ p.c. provided that the property is of a certain amount and has been in possession eleven months. See Eucy. Isl. iv. 1202-1204.

each of these points there is much difference of opinion. The Caliph Omar, during his time, taxed those who were not of his faith at the rate of 48 dirhams for persons of condition, 24 for those of the middle class, and 12 for the lowest class. This was called the Jazivah (capitation tax).

In every kingdom government taxes the property of the subject over and above the land revenue and this they call Tamghah." In Iran and Turan they collect the land tax from some, from others the lihat and from others again the Sāir Jihāt, while other cesses under the name of Wajuhāt and Farua'āt are exacted. In short, what is imposed on cultivated lands by way of quit-rent is termed Māl. Imports on manufactures of respectable kinds are called lihat, and the remainder Sair lihat. Extra collections over and above the land tax if taken by revenue officers are Wajuhāt; otherwise they are termed Furua'āt.

In every country such demands are troublesome and vexatious to the people. His Majesty in his wise statesmanship and benevolence of rule carefully examined the subject and abolished all arbitrary taxation, disapproving that these oppressions should become established by custom. He first defined the gaz, the tanab, and the highah and laid down their bases of measurement: after which he classed the lands according to their relative values in production and fixed the revenue accordingly.

[&]quot;The Turkish word langhs means a royal seal or stamp: sometimes written altanghs from the Turkish \$1. red The word also signifies a royal grant under the seal of some of the former native princes and recognised by the British Government as conferring a title to rent-free land in perpetuity, hereditary and transferable. Although, perhaps, originally bearing a red or purple stamp, the colour of the imperial seal or signature became in Indian practice indifferent. Wilson's Gloss., 19. Ency. Isl ii. 171.

In its original purport, the word signifies moving, walking, or the remainder: from the latter it came to denote the vensiting or all other sources of revenue in addition to the land tax from a variety of imposts, as contons, transit dues, houses, fees, market tax &c., in which seuse it is current throughout India: the several imposts under this name were sholished by the British Government, except customs, duties on spirituous liquors and other uninor items. The privilege of imposing local taxes under the mame of SSIV, was also takes away from private individuals, but it still applies to various items of the income from landed property not comprised in the produce of cultivation, as rent from fisheries, timber, fruit-trees, bess'-wax &c.; it also designates certain admitted masorial rights or prescriptive fees and cases levied from residents in a village, or from cultivators by the programor, which have long been established and are upon the record: the farmer of these additions are usually taken into account, the latter not, in finleg the assessment. It is also a tax on personal property. In Marathi it she alguides the place where the customs are levied. Wilson's Gloss., 454.

A'IN VIII.

The Ilahi Gaz

Is a measure of length and a standard gauge. Hig and low refer to it, and it is the desire of the righteous and the unrighteous. Throughout Hindustan there were three such measures current, viz., long, middling and short. Each was divided into 24 equal parts and each part called Tassuj. 88 A Tassuj of the 1st kind was equal to 8 ordinary barley-corns placed together breadthways, and of the other two respectively, to 7 and 6 barley-corns. The long gaz was used for the measurement of cultivated lands, roads, distances, forts, reservoirs and mud walls. The middling was employed to measure buildings of stone and wood, bamboo-built houses, places of worship, wells and gardens, and the short gaz for cloth, arms, beds, seats of state, sedan chairs, palanquins, chairs, car'ts and the like.

In some other countries, although they reckon the gas as consisting of 24 Tassuj, they make

1 Tassuj 1 Habbah	equal	
1 Rotles	9.9	2 Barley-corns.
1 Barley-corn 1 Mustard seed	,,	D Mustard seeds
1 Fals	,,	12 Fals.
1 Fatila	9.9	6 Fatila.
1 Nagir	**	6 Nagir.
1 Qitmir	,,	8 Qitmir.
1 Zarrah	**	12 Zarrah.
1 Habā	,,	8 Habā.
	**	2 Wahmah
ome make 4 Tassu	j equa	l to 1 Ding

Some make 4 Tassuj equal to 1 Dang. 6 Dang 1 Gaz.

Others reckon the gaz as 24 fingers, each finger equal to the breadth of 6 barley-corns, and each barley-corn equal in thickness to 6 hairs from the mane of a cob. In some ancient books they make the gaz equal to two spans and twice round the joint (girih) of the thumb, and they divided it into 16 girih and each girih was subdivided into 4 parts

Tassuf is an arabicized word from the Pera, lass, a weight of 4 barleycorns, the 24th part of a weight measure or day. Ency. Islam, iv. 682 (and

which they called 4 pahr, so that a pahr was the sixty-fourth part of a gaz.

In other ancient records the gaz is reckoned of seven kinds. 1st, The Gaz i Sauda (Gaz of traffic) consisting of 24 digits and two-thirds of a digit. Harun ur Rashid of the House of 'Abbas took this measure from the hand of an Abvssinian slave who was one of his attendants: the Nilometer of Egypt is on this measure, and houses and cloths are also measured by it. 2nd, Zirāa' i qasbah, (Reed-yard) called also A'amah; and Daur, of 24 digits: this was introduced by Ibn Abi Laila. 3rd, The Yusufiyah. used by the provincial governors of Baghdad for the measurement of houses: it consisted of 25 digits. 4th. The short Hāshimiyah, of 28 digits and a third. Bilāl¹⁰ the son of Abi Bardah introduced it: according to some it was Abu Musa Ash'ari his grandfather. 5th, The long Hāshimiyah of 29 digits and two-thirds which Mansur the A'bbaside favoured. It is also called the Maliq and Ziyādiyah. Ziyādei was the so-called son of Abu Sufiyān who used it to measure the lands in Arabian I'rag. 6th, The Omariyah of 31 digits. During his Caliphate, Omar carefully considered the long, short and middling gaz. He took the three kinds together and to one-third of the aggregate he added the height of the closed fist and the thumb erect. He closed both ends of the measure with tin and sent it to Hudaifahee and Othmanes-b-Hunaif which they used for the measurement of the villages in Arabian Iraq. 7th, The Mamuniyah of 70 digits less a third. Mamun brought it into use, and it was employed for measuring rivers, plains and road distances

[&]quot;h The cubit of the Nilometer is supposed to be the same as that of the Jews, which is exactly two feet English: if so the 24 digits will be precisely inches. A finger's breadth may be safely taken as three quarters of an inch. Useful Tables, pp. 87, 88. For Zird' see Ency. Isl. i. 959 innder Dhird').

"Muhammad-b-Abdus Rahman, surnamed The Abi Layla, was a distinguished jurisconsult and one of the Tablis. He was Qadhi of Kufa where he was born A H. 74, and died in A.H. 148. D'Herb.

[&]quot; Bildi. The grandson of Abu Musa al Ashari, Qadhi of Basrah, of which randfather had been Governor. See a brief notice of him in Ihn Khail

Vol. 11, p. 2.

"I Ziyad, the governor of Iraq (Enc. Isl. iv. 1232).

"I Hudalfah, one of the most eminent of the Companions of Muhammad.
Ornar appointed him to the government of Madain, where he died after the assassination of Othman and 40 days after the accession of 'Ali. Ihm Hajar. Blog. Dict.

Olhman.-He was governor of Basrah under the Caliph 'Ali. Tha Khali, p. 391, Vol. IV.

Some in former times reckoned the cloth-measur (gaz) to be seven times the fist, and the fist was equal four fingers closed; according to others, one finger less four fingers closed; according to some, was the same seven fists: others made it seven fists together with one finger (thumb?) erect added to the seventh fist. Others again added another finger to that fist; while some made it seven fists with one finger adjoined to each fist.

Sultan Sikander Lodi in Hindustän introduced another gaz of the breadth of 41 Iskandaris and a half. This was a copper coin mixed with silver. Humayun added a half and it was thus completed to 42. Its length was 32 digits. But some authors anterior to his time make mention of a similar measure. Sher Khan and Salim Khan [Sur], under whom Hindustan was released from the custom of dividing the grain and its apportionment, in measuring land used this gaz. Till the thirty first-year of the Divine Era, although the Akbar Shāhi gaz of 46 fingers was used as a cloth-measure, the Iskandari gaz was used for cultivated lands and buildings. His Majesty in his wisdom, seeing that the variety of measures was a source of inconvenience to his subjects, and regarding it as subservient only to the dishonest, abolished them all and brought a medium gaz of 41 digits into general use. He named it the Ilahi gaz and it is employed by the public for all purposes.

A'IN IX.

The Tanab."

His Majesty fixed for the jarib the former reckoning in yards and chose the measurement of sixty square, but adopted the *Ilāhi gaz*. The *I anāb* (tent rope) was in Hindustān a measure of hempen rope twisted which became

The Tanāb, Jarib and Bigha seem to have been indiscriminately used as nearly interchangeable terms. The Jarib in its original use, according to Wilson (Glossary), was a measure of capacity equal to 60 qafiz or 364 msdd, about 768 pounds. It then became applied to a land measure, or as much land as could be sown with a farib of seed-coru, and then appears to have been loosely used for a bigha. In course of time it occurs as a measure of land of various extent, and as the chain or rope for measuring. In the N. W. P. the measurements were made by a chain, and the farib is to 5

shorter or longer according to the dryness or moisture of the atmosphere. It would be left in the dew and thus fraudfully moistened. Oftentimes it would be employed in the early morning when it had got damp and had shrunk, and by the end of the day it had become dry and had lengthened. In the former case, the husbandmen suffered loss, in the latter the royal revenues were diminished. In the 19th year of the Divine era, the jarib was made of bamboos joined by iron rings. Thus it is subject to no variation, and the relief to the public was felt everywhere while the hand of dishonest greed was shortened.

A'IN X.

The Bigha

Is a name applied to the jarib. It is a quantity of land 60 gaz long by 60 broad. Should there be any diminution in length or breadth or excess in either, it is brought into square measure and made to consist of 3600 square gaz. They divide the bigha into 20 parts, each of which is called biswah, and this is divided into 20 parts each of which is termed biswansah. In measuring they reduce no further. No revenue is required from 9 biswansah, but ten they account as one biswah. Some, however, subdivide the biswänsah into 20 parts, each of which they called taswan-

chains of 11 yards each, or to 60 gas or 20 gathas or knots. A square of one farib is a bigha. Before the new system of survey, it was usual to measure lands paying revenue with a farib of 18 knots only, two being coiled round the measurer, but free lands were measured with the emire rope of 20 knots. In Sindh a farib is a measure of a 150 square feet. In Telegu, it is applied In Sindh a jarib is a measure of a 150 square feet. In Telegu, it is applied to garden land or its produce. The standard bighs of the revenue surveyors of the N. W. P. is to 3,025 sq. yds. or % of an acre. In Bengal the bighs contained only 1,600 sq. yds. or a little less than ½ of an acre. In Benares at the time of the settlement, it was determined at 3,136 sq. yds. In other perganals it was equal to 2,025 to 3,600 or 3,925 sq. yds. A hackha bighs is no some places a third, in others only a fourth of a full bighs. Akbar's bighs of 3,600 Hahi gas was considered to a 3,025 sq. yds. of the bighs of Hindustan. In Cuttack the bighs is now considered to be an English acre. The Marstha bighs is called 20 pands or 400 sq. kathis or rods of (each) 5 cubits and 5 hand-breadths. The Guzerat bighs contains only 284% sq. yds. Mr. Illiot specifies six variations found in the Upper Provinces. See Wilson's Gloss, under Bighs and Jarib. Ency. Islam, iii. 530-530 (under al-Minim) and i. 1018 (under Djarib). Elliot Memoirs, ii. 180 (jarib).

"The text has an error of 60 for 600. 3000 sq. gaz=2,600 sq. yards=8-528 or somewhat more than half an acre. U. T., p. 88

sah, which they again divide into 20 parts, calling each tapwānsah. This again they partition into 20 portions, and name them severally answānsah. A bigha as measured by the tanāb of hemp, was two biswah and 12 biswānsah smaller in extent than the bigha measured by the tanāb of bamboo. This makes a difference of 10 bigha in a hundred. Although the tanāb of hemp was of 60 gaz, yet in the twisting it shrank to 56. The Ilāhi gaz was longer than the Iskandari by one biswah, 16 biswānsah, 13 taswānsah, 8 tapwānsah, and 4 answānsah. The difference between the two reduced the bigha by 14 biswah, 20 biswānsah, 13 taswānsah, 8 tapwānsah, and 4 answānsah. In one hundred bighas the variation in the two measures amounted to 22 bighas, 3 biswah and 7 biswānsah.

A'IN XI.

Land and its classification, and the proportionate dues of Sovereignty.

When His Majesty had determined the gaz, the tanāb, and the bigha, in his profound sagacity he classified the lands and fixed a different revenue to be paid by each.

Polaj is land which is annually cultivated for each crop in succession and is never allowed to lie fallow.

Parauti is land left out of cultivation for a time that it may recover its strength.

Chachar is land that has lain fallow for three or four years.

Banjar is land uncultivated for five years and more.

Of the two first kinds of land, there are three classes, good, middling and bad. They add together the produce of each sort, and a third of this represents the medium produce, one-third part of which is exacted as the royal dues. The revenue levied by Sher Khān, which at the present day is represented in all provinces as the lowest rate of assessment, generally obtained, and for the convenience of the cultivators and the soldiery, the value was taken in ready money.

Produce of Polaj Land. Spring Harvest, called in Hindi Asadhi.

		best sort of Polaj.	_	middling Bort.	Produce of a bighs of the	Worst sort.	Aggregate produce of three bighas of different		the precette the mediu	produce of a bighe of polaj.	third of the med nce. being the	Parked
	Md.	8r.	Md.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Må.	Br.	Md.	Sr.	Md.	St.
Wheat Nakkud—(Vetches) Adas—Pulse (Cicer lins) in	18 18		12 10	30	8 7	36 30	36 81	86 0	12 10	50) 15)	:	12 0 18
Hindi. Masur Barley Linseed	8 18 6	10 0 20	6 12 5	90 90 10	4	25 15 80	19 26 15	15 86 20	12	100	241	124
Sefflower—(carthamus tinc- torius) Arzan—Millet (Penicum	8	30	6	30	5	10	20	80	6	86 <u>1</u>	2	12
miliaceum (in Hindi China) Mustard	10 10	30 20	8	30 30	5	5 8	24	5	8	1	2	끍
Peas Penagreck (Methé) Kur rice	14 24	0	10 11 16	90	8 9 14	95 86 10	32 34 56	5 35 10	10	23 25 80		10

The revenue from musk melons, ajwāin (Ligusticum ajowan), onions and other greens not counted as produce, was ordered to be paid in ready money at the rates hereinafter mentioned.

I have copied the form of the 4 following tables from Gladwin. Abult Faxl makes the calculation for the 4th and 5th columns for wheat only. For vetches and pulse he emits the 4th column and omits the 4th and 5th of all the remainder. The fractions below a quarter of a seer are discarded in calculating the proportion fixed for revenue: the thirds are not always mathematically exact, and fractions are sometimes raised to a unit or altogether omitted.

Polaj Land.
The Autumn Harvest, called in Hindi SAWANI.

	Produce of a bigha of the	of Polaf.	Produce of a bigha of the	middling sort.	Produce of a bigha of the)	Aggregate produce of three bishes of different		One third of the preced-	uce of a b	B B	portion fixed for the revenue.
	Md.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Mđ.	8 r.	Md.	Ør.
Molasses ¹⁷ Cotton Shall Mushkin—Dark co-loured, small in grain and white, fragrant, that	13 10	0	10 7	90 20	7 5	20	31 22	20	10 7	18 <u>1</u> 20	2	15
ripens quickly and plea- sant to taste	24	0	18	0	14	10	56	10	18	80	•	10
Common rice, not of the above quality	17	0	12	20		15	26	85	12	201	4	13
Maath in Hindi Mung		-	7	90		10	28	10	,	80		
(Phaseolus mungo) Mush SishH. Uridh (a kind of vetch) Moth (lentils), coarser than	10	20	7	20	5	10	28	10	7	80	2	10)
the white mung and better than the dark	6.	20	5	10	3	30	16	20		Gà.	1	20
Jowär (Andropogon Sor- ghum. Roxb.) Shamākh—H. Sanwān (Pa-	18	0	10	20	7	20	31	0	10	13)		16
nicum frumentaceum. Roxb.) Kodron ^{os} (like Sanwān) but its outer husk dark-	10	20	8	20	5	8	24	5	8	19	2	27
ish red Sesame Kanguni (Panicum itali-	17	0	12 6	20	4	15	36 18	86 0	12	POL O	4	126
cum)	6	20	8	10	8	80	15	20	8	7	1	20
Turiya, like mustard seed, but inclined to red Arzen (Panicum miliaceum)	•	20	5	10		80	15	20		7	1	>
generally a spring crop Lahdarah grows in ear,	16	0	18	20	10	26	40	5	18	14	4	19
the grain like Ronguni Mandwah (Cynosurus co- rocanus) the ear like Sānwan, the seed like mustard seed, but some	10	90	7	90	5	10	26	10	7	80	*	23)
red, some white	11	20	9	0	6	20	27	0	9	•	8	0

[&]quot;The 4th and 5th columns have been omitted by Abul Fazi.
"A variant gives Kodon and Koderam probably the same as Kodo—a small grain (Paspalum frumentaceum). Wilson's Glossery, 292.

The Autumn Harvest, called in Hindi SAWANI.—Contd.

	Produce of a bigha of the	best sort of Polaj.	Produce of a bigha of the	middling sort,	Produce of a bigha of the	worst sort.	Aggregate produce of	sorte	One third of the preced- ing, being the medium	- T	T	portion fixed for the revenue.
	Md.	Sr.	Mđ.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Mđ.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.
Lobiya (Dolichos sinensis), resembles a bean, some- what small Kudiri, like Sānwan but	10	20	7	20	5	10	28	10	7	30		20 }
Kult, (Dolichos uniflorus) like a lentil somewhat darker, its juice good for camels: it softens	6	20	5	10	3	30	15	20	5	7		**
easy to cut Barti, like Sanwān but	10	20	7	20	5	10	23	10	17	30	2	20}
whiter (a species of Pani- cum)	6	20	5	10	3	30	15	20	5	7	1	29

As a consideration for watching the crops a quarter of a seer (per maund) is allowed in some places and in others more, as will be shown.

The revenue from indigo, poppy, pān, turmeric, water chestnut[®] (trapa bispinosa), hemp, kachālu (arum colocasia) pumpkin, hinna (Lawsonia inermis) cucumbers, bādrang (a species of cucumber), the egg-plant (solanum melongena), radishes, carrots, karelā (momordica charantia) kakura (Momordica Muricata), tendas, 100 and musk-melons,

100 Also called 44ndu: resinous fruit of the tree Diospyros glutinosa,

[&]quot;This is the Singarah or Singharah. In the month of November, the nut ripens and such of the fruit as remains ungathered, falls off and sinks to the bottom of the pond. When the water dries up in May or June, these nuts or bulbs are found to have thrown out a number of shoots. They are then carefully collected and placed in a small hole in the deepest portion of the tank and covered with water. In the rains when the ponds begin to fill, the bulbs are taken up, each shoot is broken off, enveloped in a ball of clay to sink it and thrown into the water at different distances. They at once take root and grow rapidly until in a short time the surface of the water is covered with leaves. The fruit forms in October. The produce of a standard bight is about 25/2 mans which at the selling price of 10 sers for the rupee, represent a total value of Rs. 10. It is much more extensively consumed by the Hindus than the Mahomedans. Carnegie's Rachhari Tachmicalities.

not counted as produce, was ordered to be paid in ready money at the rates hereafter mentioned.

Parauti land when cultivated, pays the same revenue

as bolai.

His Majesty in his wisdom thus regulated the revenues in the abovementioned favourable manner. He reduced the duty on manufactures from ten to five per cent, and two per cent. was divided between the patwari and the ganungo. The former is a writer employed on the part of the cultivator. He keeps an account of receipts and disbursements, and no village is without one. The latter is the refuge of the husbandman. There is one in every district. At the present time the share of the qanungo (one per cent.) is remitted and the three classes of them are paid by the State according to their rank. The salary of the first is fifty rupees: of the second, thirty; of the third, twenty; and they have an assignment for personal support equivalent thereto. It was the rule that the commissaries of the shiqdar, karkun,101 and Amin should receive daily 58 dams as a perquisite, provided that in spring they did not measure less than 200, nor in autumn less than 250 bighas. His Majesty whose heart is capacious as the ocean, abolished this custom and allowed only one dam for each bigha.

Many imposts, equal in amount to the income of Hindustan were remitted by His Majesty as a thank-offering to the Almighty. Among these were the following:

The capitation tax, jizya. The port duties, mir-bahari.

Taxile per head on gathering at places of worship, kar.

A tax on each head of oxen, gāo-shumāri.

A tax on each tree, sar-i-darakhti.

Presents, peshkash.

Distraints, qurq.

A tax on the various classes of artificers, peshawar.

Dārogha's fees, dāroghānah. Tahsildar's fees, tahsildari.

Treasurer's fees, fotahdāri.

impost, fee or cess. These imposts are called wajuhāt in the text, and abwabs in the later Mughal days. For a full account of the abwabs, see Sarkar's Mughal Adm., 3rd ed., ch. v. § 8 and 9.

¹⁶¹ Kārhun, the registrar of the collections under a Zamindar. The Amin was an officer employed either in the revenue department to take charge of an estate and collect the revenues on account of government, or to investigate and report their amount: or in the judicial department, as a judge and arbitrator in vivil causes. Wilson's Gloss., 261.

102 The word is kar in the text, and is probably from the Sansk. The word is kar in the text, and is probably from the Sansk.

Complimentary offerings on receiving a lease and the like, salāmi,

Lodging charges, wajih kirāya. Money bags, kharitah Testing and exchanging money, sarrafi. Market duties. hāsil-i-bāzār.

Sale of cattle (nakhās); also on hemp, blankets, oil, raw hides, weighing (Kayyāli), scaling; likewise butcher's dues, tanning, playing at dice, 103 passports for goods, turbans, 104 hearth-money [dudi, har ke ātish āfruzad chize bar dehad, i.s., fee for illumination?] fees on the purchase and sale of a house, oh salt made from nitrous earth, balkati on permission to reap the harvest, felt, manufacture of lime, spirituous liquors, brokerage, catching fish, the product of the tree Al (Morinda citrifolia); in fine all those imposts which the natives of Hindustan include under the term Sair Iihāt, 106 were remitted.

AIN XII.

Chachar land.

When either from excessive rain or through an inundation, the land falls out of cultivation, the husbandmen are, at first, in considerable distress. In the first year, therefore, but two fifths of the produce is taken: in the second three-fifths; in the third, iw four-fifths and in the fifth, the ordinary revenue. According to differences of situation, the revenue is paid either in money or in kind. In the third year the charges of 5 per cent, and one dam for each bighains are added.

¹⁰⁰ Two words follow which are quarked in the text as doubtful, there is doubtless an omission.

¹⁰⁴ The word is pag, contraction of pages, a turban. It was a kind of poll tax levied on every turban.

18 From which a dye is extracted.

¹⁸⁴ See p. 63.

¹⁹⁷ There is probably an error in the text as the fourth year is omitted. Gladwin has "the third and fourth years fourth-fifths each"

¹⁶⁶ I take the we between dah we nim to be an error, as by retaining it the percentage would rise to 15 or at least to 10½. Five per cent, was levied on manufactures; it may therefore have been an extra charge on land though I do not see its reason or its justice. Gladwin translates as I have done.

AIN XIII.

Banjar land.

When through excessive inundations production has seriously diminished, the revenue is collected in the following proportions:

Spring Harvest.
Proportion of revenue from one Bigha of Banjar land
for five years.

				lat 3	year	2nd	year	3rd	year	4th	year	5th	year
				Md.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.	Mđ.	Sr.	Md.	Sr.		
	•••		I.	0	20	1	0	2	0	8			bolaj
	•••	•••	R.	0	- 5	0	25	0	85	1	10	'	,,
khud	***		I.	0	10	0	30	1	10	2	10		99
	•••	•••	R.	0	5	0	80	1	10	2	10		99
	•••	٠	I.	0	20	1	0	2	0	8	0	1	10
***	***		R.	0	5	0	85	1	20	2	20		99
r lens)	Adas		I.	0	10	0	30	1	10	1	80		99
	***		R.	0	5	0	80	1	10	1	80		10
icum 1	miliaecum)		1				ľ					•
	Arzan		I.	0	10	0	25	0	35	1	0	ĺ	**
	***		R.	0	5	0	25	0	85	1	0	ĺ	**
			ī.	0	10	0	20	0	30	1	10		99
***			R.	0	. 5	0	5	0	80	1	10		99
	khud r lens)	khud r lens) Adas dcum miliaecum Arzan	r lens) Adas icum miliaecum) Arzan	No. No.	Md. 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Md, 8r. 0 20 20 10 10 10 10 10	Md, Sr. Md, 0 20 1 0 20 1 0 5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Md. Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Sr	Md. Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Sr.	Md. Sr. Md.	Md, Sr. Md, Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Md. Md. Sr.	Md, Sr. Md, Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Sr. Md. Sr.	I. 0 20 1 0 2 0 8 0 as R. 0 5 0 25 0 35 1 10 khud I. 0 10 0 30 1 10 2 10 R. 0 5 0 80 1 10 2 10 I. 0 20 1 0 2 0 8 0 r lens) Adas I. 0 10 0 30 1 10 1 80 icum miliaecum) Arzan I. 0 10 0 25 0 35 1 0 icum miliaecum) Arzan I. 0 10 0 25 0 35 1 0 R. 0 5 0 25 0 85 1 0 R. 0 5 0 25 0 85 1 0 I. 0 10 0 20 0 30 1 10

Note. I stands for inundated land, and R for that which has suffered from rain.

Autumn Harvest.

Proportion of revenue from one Bigha of Banjar land for five years.

					1-4	VAAT	Qnd		Sed	7447	4+1-	year	St h	V04
							1							,
-4				_	Md.		Md.	Sr.	Md.		Md.	Sr.		
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Do.	***	***	•••	R.	0	5	0	20	1	0	1	20		11
]owar	•••	• • •	***	I.	0	20	1	0	2	0	8	0		**
Do.			***	R.	0	5	0	20	1	0	2	0		99
Moth	•••		•••	R.	0	5	0	30	0	30	1	10		99
Lahdarak	***	•••		R.	0	5	Ŏ	20	l i	10	2	0	i	
Kodron	•••	•••		ī.	l o	20		0	2	Ö	3	Ö	1	99
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Do.	•••	••	***	Ŕ.	ő	- 5	i	80	1	10	2	10		**
Kudirs	•	***	••	I.	0	10	lo	25	ò	35	1.7	10	ļ	**
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Kanguni,	(Pers.	kāi)	•••	I.	0	10		25	ŏ	36		10		94
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	• • •	***	•••	R.	1 1	_			1 .	10			1	16
Turiya	***	4-4	•••	I.	10	20		0	1 .			20	1	99
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	rers. Si	hamäkh)	***	Ī.	0	10		25		35	1	10	1	**
Do.	*** *	***	••	R.	0		0	25	0	86		10		
Arian	•••	•••	•••	I.	0	10		80		0		10		99
Do.	•••	•••		R.	0			80		0	1	10	Ì	98
geenme		•••	***	R.	0	5	0	30	0	80	1	10	1	90

In the 4th year the charges of 5 per cent and one dām for each bigha were collected and this is still in force.

In Banjar land for the 1st year, one or two sers are taken from each bigha; in the 2nd year, 5 sers; in the 3rd year, a sixth of the produce; in the 4th year, a fourth share together with one dām: in other years a third suffices. This varies somewhat during inundations. In all cases the husbandman may pay in money or kind as is most convenient. Banjar land at the foot of the hills and land subject to inundations in the districts of Sanbhal and Bahrāich, do not remain as banjar, for so much new soil is brought down with the overflow that it is richer and more productive than polaj. His Majesty, however, in his large munificence places it in the same class. It is in the option of the cultivator to pay in ready money or by kankut or bhaoli.

AIN XIV.

The Nineteen Years' Rates.100

Intelligent people have from time to time set themselves to record the prices current of the Empire, and after careful inquiry the valuation of grain was accepted on this basis.

The revenue rates for a bigha of polaj land were fixed as has been stated. From the 6th year of the Divine Era which runs with the Novilunar year 968 (A. D., 1560-1) and concluding with the 24th year of this reign, the statistics were collected and have been tabulated for reference after the most diligent investigation. The figures are entered under the heading of each year.

Nineteen years correspond with a cycle of the moon during which period the seasons are supposed to andergo a complete revolution. Gladwin, p. 282, Vol. I.

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Spring Harvest of the Subah of the Multan. Ninteen years' rates.

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Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Multan. Nineteen years' rates.

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three Sovereigns of Gajarāt of the name of Muzaffar: the 1st reigned A.H. 799 (A.D. 1396); he 3rd in 969 (A.D. 1561). The last named abdicated in favour of Akbar in 960 (A.D. 1572), His second reign was brief and the kingdom became a province of the Empire. Malwah was united to Gujarat under Bahadur a king of the latter dynasty A.H. 937, (A.D. 1530). I take these details from Mr. Oliver's note on the the coins of the Muhammadan kings of Gujarat. In the list of Charle coins there are two of copper of Muzastar Shah II, of 169 and 160 grains respectively, and three of silver of Muhammad the second during is remarkable as having been struck Akbar's general and re-ascended the throne. III, of 73 and 1.5 grains. The latter, No. XXXI, of the Catalogue, is remarkable as havin accession of this monarch to power. See also History of Gujaiat. Bayley, Index, Muzaffar the 2nd in A.H. 917 (A.D. 1511): the 3rd in 969 (A.D. 1561). but in 991, he collected a force, defeated

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AIN 15.

The Ten Years' Settlement.

From the beginning of this immortal reign, persons of intelligence and void of rapacity, together with zealous men of experience, have been annually engaged in noting the current prices and reporting them to His Majesty, and taking the gross produce and estimating its value, they determined the rates of collection, but this mode was attended with considerable inconvenience. When Khwajah Abdul Majid Asaf Khan was raised to the dignity of Prime Minister, the total revenue was taken at an estimation, and the assignments were increased as the caprice of the moment suggested. And because at that time the extent of the empire was small, and there was a constant increase of dignities among the servants of the State, the variations were contingent on the extent of corruption and self-interest. When this great office devolved on Muzaffar Khan and Rajah Todar Mull, in the 15th year of the reign, a redistribution of the imperial assessment was made through the qanungos, and estimating the produce of the lands, they made a fresh settlement. Ten qanungos were appointed who collected the accounts from the provincial ganuagos and lodged them in the imperial exchequer. Although this settlement was somewhat less than the preceding one, nevertheless there had been formerly a wide discrepancy between the estimate and the receipts.

When through the prudent management of the Sovereign the empire was enlarged in extent, it became difficult to ascertain each year the prices current and much inconvenience was caused by the delay. On the one hand the husbandman complained of extensive exactions, and on the other the holder of assigned lands was aggrieved on account of the revenue balances. His Majesty devised a remedy for these evils and in the discernment of his world-adorning mind fixed a settlement for ten years: the people were thus made contented and their gratitude was abundantly manifested. From the beginning of the 15th year of the Divine era to the 24th, an aggregate of the rates of collection was formed and a tenth of the total was fixed as the annual assessment; but from the 20th to the 24th year the collections were accurately determined and the five former ones accepted on the authority of persons of probity.

The best crops were taken into account in each year and the year of the most abundant harvest accepted, as the table shows.

(A Note on Dastur-ul-'aml: Sarkar, &c.)

For a full description and discussion of the official manuals called Dastur-ul-'aml, see J. Sarkar's Mughal Administration 3rd. ed., ch. XIV. § 2.

Sir Henry Elliot writes, in his Supplemental Glossary, revised ed. by J. Beames, entitled Memoirs of the History &c. of N.W.P. (1869), :- "Dastur-ul-amt, a body of instructions, and tables for the use of revenue officers under the Native Government. . . . No two copies can ever be found which correspond with each other, and in most respects they widely differ. Those which profess to be copied from the Dastur-ul-'aml of Akbar, are found to contain on close examination sundry interpolations of subsequent periods.

"Besides the Dastur-ul-'aml, another book, called the 'Aml Dastur, was kept by the Qanungoes, in which were recorded all orders which were issued in supersession of

Dastur-ul-'aml.'' (ii. 156-157.)

"A Sarkar is a subdivision of a subah. Each subah is divided into a certain number of sarkars, and each sarkar into parganahs or mahals (which are used as equivalent expressions), and the parganahs again are aggregated into Dasturs or districts. .

"Dastur besides signifying a rule, is also a minister, a munshi. Parganah means tax-paying land; the Burhan-i-Qati' gives the meaning Zamine ke az an mal wa kharaj

"The words used before Akbar's time to represent tracts of country larger than a parganah were shiqq, Khita, 'arsa diyar, vilayat, and iqta', but the latter (term) was generally applied when the land was assigned for the support of the nobility or their contingents." (See Ikta' in Encyclopaedia of Islam, ii. 461, for a fuller treatment. J.S.)

"I have endeavoured to restore the sarkars, dasturs. and parganahs (in the N. W. Provinces of Allahabad and Agra) as they stood in the time of the Emperor Akbar. The copies of the Ain-i-Akbari vary so much, and such ignorance is frequently exhibited by the transcribers, that to verify the names of parganahs has been a work of great labour. . . . ,

"But it is in separating the sarkārs into dasturs that the ignorance of the copyists has been chiefly exhibited, for all the parganahs are frequently mixed together, as if there were no meaning at all attached to dastur." (ii. 201-203.)

The word dastur in the sense of a subdivision of land for revenue purposes, went out of use in the official histories of the Mughal empire after Akbar's time. It may have lingered on in the N.W. Provinces up to the Mutiny, but only in the village records, as it does not occur in any history or revenue-manual of the Central Government of the later Mughals known to me. (Jadunath Sarkar.)

The Subah of Allahabad comprises nine sarkārs (districts) and possesses fifteen separate revenue codes. (dasturul-'aml.)

1. The Sarkar of Allahabad includes fifteen mahals

and has three revenue codes.

The suburban district of Allahabad comprises three mahals, viz.. the suburbs of Allahabad, Kantit, and a tract on the extreme limits of the subah of Agra, and possesses one revenue code.

Jalālābād [i e, Arail] has three mahals and a revenue

code.

Bhadoi, seven mahals, viz., Bhadoi, Sikandarpur, Sorāon, Singror, Mah, Kewāi, Hādiābās [=Jhusi]—and a revenue code.

- 2. The Sarkār of Benāres has eight mahals and a revenue code. The detail is as follows—the suburban district of Benares, the township of Benares, Pandrah. Kaswār, Harhwā, Byālisi.
- 3. The Sarkar of Jaunpur has 41 mahals and two codes.

The suburban district of Jaunpur, 39 mahals, one code, viz.:—

Aldimao, Angli, Bhileri, Bhadāon, Talhani, Jaunpur, Suburban Jaunpur, Chandipur Badhar, Chāndah, Chiriyā Kot, Chakesar, Kharid, Khāspur Tāndah, Khānpur, Deogaon, Rāri, Sanjholi, Sinkandarpur, Sagdi, Sarharpur, Shādi-ābād, Zafarābād, Karyāt Mittu, Karyāt Dostpur, Karyāt-Mendia, Karyāt Swetah, Gheswah, Ghosi, Kodiya, Gopālpur, Karākat, Mandiāho, Muhammad-ābād, Majhorā, Mau, Nizāmābād, Naigun, Nathupur.

- 4. The Sarkār of Chanādah [=Chunār], 14 mahals and one revenue code, viz., the suburban district of Chanadah, Aherwārah, Bholi, Badhol, Tāndah, Dhos, Rāghupur¹¹⁰—the villages on the western bank of the river, Majhwārah, Mahāech, Mahwāri, Mahoi, Silpur, Naran.
- 5. The Sarkār of Ghāzipur, 18 mahals, one code, ws., the suburban district of Ghāzipur, Baliā, Pachotar, Balhābās. Bhariābād, Barāich, Chausā Dehma, Sayyidpur Namdi, Zahurābād, Karyāt Pali, Kopā Chhit, Gadhā, Karandah, Lakhnesar, Madan Benāras, Muhammadābād, Parhābāri.
- 6. The Sarkār of Karrah, 12 mahals, one code, viz., the township of Karrah, its suburban district, Aichhi, Atharban, Ayāsā, Rāri, Karāri, Kotla, Kaunra commonly called Karson, Fatehpur Hanswah, Hatgāon, Hanswah.
- 7. The Sarkār of Korah, 8 mahals, 3 codes, viz., thus detailed. The suburban district of Korah has one code and 2 mahals, viz., itself and Ghātampur; Kotiā, 3 mahals, Kotiā, Goner, Keranpur Kinār." and one code; Jajmau, 8 mahals, viz., Jājmau, Muhsinpur, Majhāon, and one code.
- 8. The Sarkār of Kālinjar, 10 mahals, one code, viz., Kālinjar with its suburbs, Ugāsi, Ajigarh, Sihonda, Simoni, Shādipur, Rasan, Khandeh, Mahobā, Maudhā.
- 9. The Sarkār of Mānikpur, 14 mahals, 2 codes. The suburbs of Mānikpur have 10 mahals and one code, viz., Mānikpur together with its suburban district, Arwal Bhalol, Salon, Jalālpur Balkhar, Karyāt Karārah, Karyāt Paegāh, Khatot, Nāsirābād.

Rāc Bareli, etc., 4 mahals, one code, viz., Rāc Bareli, Talhandi, Jācs, Dalmau.

The other names have nearly all variants in the MSS., no doubt due as much to dialectic variations in pronunciation as to errors of copylsts. Tieflenthaler adds to the above, the fortress of Tschinarghar (Chanār) built of stone, on an eminence on the western bank of the Ganges.

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Years
Allahabad-Ten Years
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Saffower	:	:	81-18	_	:	70-3				657				8			
Poppy	•	:	150-13	100	:	115-20	115-20	156-13		_	156-13	127-15	153-13	1280	24.23	156-18	-
otheros	:	:	27.0		:	80-13								277			
··· unieco	:	:	9		:	\$			\$					8			
	:	:	7		:	\$								31-214			
	:	:	2		:	6-21								283			
CES (Maskang)	:	:	24-16	27	:	200								282			
arrots	:	:	27.78	85	:	22								31-21			
sporter	*	:	22.52	2	:	86-13								82-18			
Z	:	:	222	75	:	2,2								82-18	109-14	3	
Person muskmelons	:	:	1446	156-13	:	i E						-	-	119.16	-	-	_
Indian ditto	:	:	3	7.2		14-14					,			113	•	1	•
Camin seed	:	:	:	61-12	:	83-16						82-18			82.18		
Coriender seed	:	- :		:	:	106.2				_]		_
- TiGE	,		i	56-24	:	26-24			46.24	,	52.14	50.20		18.94	20.20	44.2	•
:	:	:	25	78-10	:	80-18		86-15	80-15			86-15	83-21	88-21	86.2	2	

Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Allahabad.

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Sarkite of Minik- pur.	D. J.	8 8 7 8 8 4 2 8			12							\$ 18	\$:
Sarkler of Kalinjar.	D. J.	25.15 5.15 5.15 5.65 5.65	:	# T-16	24.16	1636	8 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	87-30	22.28	27.7	16-18	45-15	9	:
.samis[D. J.	2 2 2 2 3 2 3 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	206-18	2 8	18	25	- 2	87-7	200	20-15	:	9101	41.0	:
Pergenah of Kotia.	D. 3.	25.00 71.00 4.00 4.00 4.00 4.00 4.00 4.00 4.00	4	9	2	9	3 %	82-16	21012	2	;	9	45.12	:
Parganah of Kora- rah.	D. J.	25.55 5.25 5.25 5.25 5.25	205-18	9:10	24-15	989	2 2	87-78	267-20	22	18-18	5 13	3	;
Parganah of Karrah	D ::	\$ 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	:	2 2	200	168.6	2 2 2	12-17	210.5	1	:	: 5	42-12	:
Chësiper.	D. J.	23.05 27.15 4.15	:	3	86.21	23	2 2 2	80-15	2	Ş	16-16	3 3	3	115.28
Sarkër of Chank- dah.	D. J.	2 2 2 5 2 2 2 5 2 2 2 5	:	Į,	22.22	162.3	2 2	80-15	-	9	13-15	1	3	3
Pargaman of Mon- gran.	D. J.	25-20 125-6 71-14 43-12			12.5							_	3	:
Sab-District of Jeanpar.	D. J.	125 4 45 5 4	:	3	2 2 2	162.3	24.24 24.24	83-16	268.20	9	13-16	152	19.6	36.2
Sarkår of Benåres.	D. J.	28. 2.1.5. 5.4.5.	:	Į	100	162.5		83-15	2	3	13.18	10-2	46.6	22
Jinadoi.	D. J.	Sara Soza	:	97-16 10-16	2 3	3	22.2	27-8	24+21	96.20	:	43.15	48.2	:
Jaikilibia.	D. J.		:	:	::		-	: :	:	: :		: :	::	
Sab-District of Alla- babad.	D. J.	\$:£ \$:	8	12	<u>3</u>		ş	200	17	:	:00	42-12	:
			which:	:	• :	:	:	: :	:		;	; ;	: :	:
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		<u> </u>	catracted								Pile	Sec.		
		Sugarcane sured rice	ade Cit	;	: :	:	: :	:	•	HWEL)	kind o	in a large	:	;
		agarcane (pe omanon Saga bark coloured ominon rice	red dy	101	: =	180		ocherbs	. S. S. en B.	owirt. (I			7	rmeric
		# 0 d 5	=	3	ATE	Pul	Hemm	Ž		lou či	KAT	Z	2	Ë

The Subah of Oudh comprises five sarkārs and possesses twelve codes.

1. The Sarkār of Oudh, 21 mahals, 3 codes. The suburban district has 19 mahals and one code. Two parganahs are comprised in Khairābād. They are as follows:

Oudh with its suburban district; Anbodha, Anhonah, Pachhamrāth, Bilehri, Basodhi, Thānah Bhadāon, Bakthā, Daryābād, Rudauli, Selak, Sultānpur, Sātanpur, Supahah, Sarwāpāli, Satrakah, Gawārchah, Manglasi Naipur.

Ibrahimābad and Kishni are each a parganah with one code.

2. The Sarkār of Bharāitch has 11 mahals, one code. The suburban district of Bharāitch, &c. 8 mahals, one code. Bharāitch with its suburbs 6 mahals, Bahrah, Husampur, Wankdun, Rajhāt, Sanjhauli, Fakhrpur, Fort Nawāgarh.

Firuzābād, &c., two parganahs, one code, viz., Firuzābad, Sultānpur.

Kharosna, one mahal, one code.

- 3. The Sarkār of Khairābad, 2 mahals, 3 codes. Khairābād, &c., 12 parganahs, one code, viz., suburbs of Khairābād, Basārā, Baswah, Basrah, Chhitāpur, Khairigarh, Sadrpur, Kheri, Kharkhela, and Laharpur, two mahals; Machharhattah, and Hargarāon, two mahals. Pāli, &c. has 8 mahals, one code, viz., Pāli, Barurānjnah, Bāwan, Sāndi, Sirah, Gopamau, Khankatmau, Nimkhā; Bharwārah, &c. two mahals, included in Oudh, viz. Bharwārah and Pilā,—and one code.
- 4. The Sarkār of Gorakhpur, 24 parganahs, one code. The suburban district of Gorakhpur with the town, 2 mahals, Atraulā, Anholā; Bināekpur &c. 4 mahals, Bāhmnipārah, Bhāwāpārā, Tilpur, Chilupara, Dharyapara, Dhewapārā and Kotlah [Kuhānā] 2 mahals, Rihli; Ramgarh and Gauri 2 mahals, Rasulpur and Ghaus 2 mahals; Kathlā, Khilāpārā [=Rihlāpara] Maholi, Mundwah, Mandlah; Maghar and Ratanpur, 2 mahals; Maharanthoi.
- 5. The Sarkār of Lucknow has 55 mahals, 2 codes. The suburban district of Lucknow, &c., 47 parganahs, one code. Abethi, Isauli, Asiyun, Asohā, Unchah Gāon, Balkar Bijlour? [Bijnor], Bāri, Bharimau Pangwan, Betholi, Panhan, Parsandhān, Pātan, Bārāshākor, Jhaloter, Dewi, Deorakh, Dadrah, Ranbirpur, Rāmkot, Sandilah, Saipur, Sarosi, Sahāli, Sidhor, Sidhupur, Sandi, Saron, Fatehpur,

Fort of Ambhati, Kursi, Kakori, Khanjrah, Ghātampur, Karanda, Konbhi Lucknow with its suburbs, Lashker Malihābād, Mohān, Morāon, Madiāon, Mahonah, Manawi, Makrāed, Hadha, Inhār.

Onām &c., 8 parganahs, one code, viz., Onām, Bilgrāon, Bangarmau, Hardoi, Sātanpur, Fatehpur Chaurāsi, Kachhāndu, Malāwah.

Spring Harvest of the Subah of Oudh.

	Parganah of the suburban district of Oudh, &c.	Tbrahimabād, &c.	Kishni, &c.	Bharaitch, &c.	Firuzabād, &c.	Kharansah, &c.	
	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. 1	D. J.	D, J.	
Wheat Indian Vetches (Khar-dai)	54-20 34-17	62-15 39-3 40-6	58-4 39-3	54-20 33-14	55-23 32-11	\$5-20 33-14	Note.—The dif- ference in the two classes of
Barley	39-3	45-21	42-12		35-20	38-0	mustard seed is in the sim
Adas	23-12	35-20	23-12	22-9 71-14	21-6 69-8	22-10 71-14	and colour of
Safflower	71-14	72-0	83 21		127-11		the grain.
Poppy	127-15 69-0	115-20 76-1	156-13 66-5	S6-12	54-20	56-12	
Potherbs	29-0	36-90		27-24	26-21	27-24	
Linseed Mustard seed (Saishaf)	30-5	38-0	27-24	29-2	29-2	29-2	
	20-3	24-15		15-3	7-22	23-4	
Arzon Peas	29-2	38-0	29-2	25-8	24-15	25-15	
Carrots	30-5	36-21	36-21	28-7	29-2	29-2	
Onions	78-0	80-18		78-7	78-7	78-7	1
Penugreek	55-22	54-20	58-4	68-4	78-20		i
Persian Muskmeions	115-20		150-1	110-20	115-20	115-30	
Indian do.	4-18			15 16	15-16	15-16	
Cumin seed	79-15	61-12					
Coriander seed		150-2			• • • •	•••	1
Kur rice		46-24	46-24	45-21	44-18	45-21	1
Afwäin		97-5	79-10	83-21	83-21	82-21	i

Oudh.
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	Parganah of the subur- ban district of Oudin, &c	Ibrahima bād, &c.	Kishni, &c.	dotistandi .org	Firnzabād, Gc.	Kharonsa, &c.	Subarban district of Khairābād.	Pāli, &c.	dsrawisald, .o.s.	Suburban district of Gorskhpur.	Lискпом, &с.	Onim, &c.
	Ď.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D.	D. 3
=		22.	92	240.9	206-15	260	220-15	231-15	240-9.	240-9	281-15	12 E
Countrion sugarcane			9		100		13	121-12	81.5	123.0	127-15	131-6
Common rice		16-24	42-12	9	3 7	9	4 6-14	42.2	48-17	5 5	8-17	
:		2-12	3	8	32-15	31.6	32-15	2-12	38-16	4	7.2	12
Cotton	_	22.23	91-18	80-15	====	86-15	86-16	82-23	22-21	8	8	8
Moth		4-2	25.25	24-15	21.23	24-16	22-23	22.23	25-18	24-15	24-15	S
: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :		9	15-10	16-16	15-16	15-16	:	;	:	:		•
Z market	p :	7	25.28	9	77.23	9	:		:	•:	:	:
Arabin		24-18	17-22	N	2-12		:	:	;	:	:	:
o Shour	21-22	2	2	9	959	9	:	:	:	:	:	:
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Determine		7.4	27-24	2	200	2 3	:	:	:	:	:	:
Continue		?: }	87-6	27-72	2	77.0	:	:	:	:	:	:
	14-15	7	25	7	I	2 2	:	:	:	:	:	:
Shopking.	116		72-67		9		:	:	:	:	:	:
Lobins			9	9-017	9-011	110-0	:	:		:	:	:
Jowdri, (millet)	86.20	9	8 58	9	33-14	3	11-12	26-15	**	. 9	: 2	: 8
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н		12-18	:	13-6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
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400			94.18	2	70	1 8		3 8	***	:	: 3	: 5
	-			18	2 4	1 2	96				1	-
Mendansk		7	3	25.15	24-15	26-18	24-15	8	4	12	2	3
Besaine seed		9-16	42-16	# 18	45-1	4-18	45-21	6-17	1-1	#	3	7
Shemeth		3	77	3	12.6	12-6	12-6	13-10	11-51	3	25	15.10
Mang	_	19.2	18.3	41-2	2.5	1-0	43-15	- 0-17	12-16	- I-19	513	4.4
	· C. the		: 4: 4			A Company	baie fee	a familiar				

So the text, but it is probably a mispeint of terbuja for kharbuja.

- 1. The Sarkār of Agra—the royal residence. 44 parganahs, 4 codes. The suburban district of Agra, &c., 6 mahals, one code, viz., Agra and its suburbs, Chanwār, Jalesar, the city of Agra, Dholpur, Mahāwan, Bsānah &c., 83 mahals, one code; the suburbs of Beānah, 2 mahals, Oudshi, Od, Ol, Bhasāwar Todahbhim, Bināwar, Chausath, Khānwā, Rajhohar, Fatehpur known as Sikri, Seonkar Seonkri, Mathura, Maholi, Mangotlah, Bhaskar, Wazirpur, Helak, Hindon, Rāpari, Bāri, Bajwārah. Etāwah &c. 3 mahals, one code, viz., Etāwah, Rāpri, 112 Hatkānt. Mandāwar &c. 2 mahals, one code, viz., Mandāwar, Kakhonmar.
- 2. Sarkār of Alwar. 43 paragraphs, 3 codes. The parganahs of Alwar &c. 33 mahals, one code, viz., the suburbs of Alwar, Dharā, Dadekar, Bahādurpur, Panāin, Khelohar, Jalālpur, Bihrozpur, Rāth, Bālhattah, Bahrkol, Hājipur, Budahthal, Anthulah Hābru, Parāt, Balhār, Barodah Fathkhan, Barodahmeo, Basānah, Hasanpur, Badohar, Hasanpur Gori, Deoli Sājāri, Sakhan, Kiyārah, Ghat Seon, Kohrana, Monkonā, Mandāwarah, Naugāon Nāhargarh, Harsori and Harpur, 2 mahals, Harsānā. Bachherah, &c. 5 mahals, one code, viz., Bachherah, Khohariranā, Bhiwān, Ismailpur, Amran, Mubārakpur, &c., 5 mahals, one code, viz., Mubārakpur, Harsoni, Mandāwar, Khirtahali, Mojpur.
- 3, 4. Sarkārs of Tijārah and Erāj, 4 codes. The Sarkār of Eraj, 16 mahals, viz., Eraj, Parhār, Bhānder, Bijpur, Pāndur, Chhatrah. Riyābānah, Shāhzādahpur, Khatolah &c., Kajhodah, Kcdār, Kunj, Khekas, Kānti, Khāerah, Maholi. The Sarkār of Tijārah, 18 mahals, 1 code, viz., Tijārah, Indor, Ujaina, Umarā Umari, Por, Begwān, Basohrā, Chamrāwat, Khānpur, Sākras, Santkadāri, Firuzpur, Fatehpur Mongarta, Kotlah, Karherā, Naginān. Thānah of Kahwār, one code. Basru, one code.
- 5. Sarkār of Kanauj, 5 codes. The suburban district of Kanauj, &c. 11 mahals, one code. The suburbs of Kanauj Bārā, Bithur, Bilhur, Bilgrāon, Deohā, Sikandarpur, Seoli, Seonrakh, Malkusah, Nānamau. Saketh &c. 6 mahals, one code. Sāketh, Karāoli, Barnah, Sahār, Patiāli, Sahāur. Bhagaon, &c. 10 mahals, one code. Bhogāon, Sonj, Sakrāon, Sakatpur. Saror, Chhabarmau,

nor in the account of the province of Agrs. Neither is it in Tieffenthaler.

- Shamshābād, Pati 'Alipur, Kanpal, Bhojpur. Sinkandarpur, one code. Phapund, one code.
- 6. Sarkār of Sahār. Sahār, &c. 6 madals, one code, viz., Sahār, Pahāri, Bhadoli, Kāmah, Koh Majahid, Hodal. Nonhera, one code.
- 7, 8, 9. Sarkār of Gwalior, &c., one code. Sarkār of Gwalior, 13 mahals, one code. Sarkār of Narorpanj, 5 mahals, one code. Sarkār of Beanwan, 28 mahals, one code.
- 10. Sarkār of Kalpi, 16 parganahs, one code. Ulai, Bilāspur, Badhneth Derāpur, Deokali, Rāth, Rāipur, Suganpur, Shāhpur, suburbs of Kālpi, Kenār, Khandot, Khandela, city of Kālpi, Muhammadābād, Hamirpur.
- 11. Sarkār of Kol, 4 codes. Thānah Farida, &c. 10 mahals, one code, viz., Thānah Farida, Pahāsu, Danbhāi, Malikpur, Shikārpur, Nuh, Chandos, Khurjah, Ahār, Tapal. Suburban district of Kol, &c., 4 mahals, one code, viz., Kol, Jalāli, Sikandar rāo, Gangeri. Mārharah, &c., 5 mahals, one code, viz., Mārharah, Balrām, Soron, Pachlānah and Sidhpur, 2 mahals. Akbarābād, 2 mahals, one code, viz., Akbarābād. Atrauli.
- 12. Sarkār of Nārnol, 4 codes. Suburban district of Nārnol, &c., 8 mahals, viz., suburbs of Nārnol and city, Bārh, Kot Potli, Bābāi, Khandela, Sankhāna, Kānori, villages at the foot of the hill. Barodah rana, &c. 2 mahals, viz., Barodah ranā Lāpoti. Chāl Kalānah, &c. 2 mahals, Chālkalānah, Khodānā. Kanodah, &c. 3 mahals, Kanodah, Narharah, Jhojeon.

Spring Harvest of the royal residence of Agra.

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				district		district				.1			Kahwa					
				eadtudaë ergA	Btgwalt.	Suburban darāgali.	Mendāwar.	Alwar,	Васинетар.	nqalerāduM	Eraj.	Tijātsh.	lo danadT	Везги.	Sehār.	.itāda9	Nonhers.	
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Wheat	:	:	:	67-2	9	67.2	67.2	67.2	64-21	63-10	63-17	64-21	67-2	67-2	67-8	64-21	8	
To Day	/etches	:	:	67.9		:	:	:	:		_	:	:	:	:	:	:	
Indian	ą	;		44-18	88.38	42-12	90	9	36-23	35-20		23.50		8 23	86-23	20	9	
Barley	:	:	:	9		44-17	44-18	44-18	42-12					42.12	42-12	45-15	#17	
Adas	:	:	:	282		29-17	28-21	28.21	26-21					26-21	26-21	28-21	8621	
Beffores		:	:	127-11		127-[1]	23.0	1230	127-0		-			127-11	11-72	127-11	2	
Poppy.	:	:	:	127-11		177-11	1230	127.0	127-11	_				127 11	11-22	9	2	282
Potherbe	, ·	:	:	27		61-12	6	8	2.6-7	_				P (9 (2)		9	
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Arzen	;	:		24-10		200	21-6	21.0	277	_				3			P.	
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Carrots	:	:	:	16.30		3	1	2	81.18		-		_	81-18 18-18	A	3	8	
Culous	:	:	:	***		36		8	84.94	-	_		_			76.78		
P.CHERTO	energy true long		:	11.20	-		11.20	11.20	1001	100-16	00.16		96-16		90-16	100	111.25	
Total Park	Aitto					7		16-16	1414	15-16	_	<u> </u>	16.16	15-16	15-16	14.14	15.16	
	1			16.18		70	76.78	84.24	81-18	84.24			84-24			81-16	75 78	
				KE.23				81-11	53-17	51-11	3	80.18	61-11	55.17	55.17	2	61.11	_
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Agra.
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Common rice Passidate) D. 1 D								,										
ane (peandah)				Suburban dis- trict of Agra.		-Avait to toir!	hlandlwar.	Alwar.	Bachlierah.	. Tugšetādald	.tarH	.dorkįiT		Beern.	Sahar.	Fahāri.	Nonhera.	KanaM.
and (passwids) 2296 2294				•								_	1		1			
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Marche M		rcane	:	147-11	1	148-17			25.6		72.5	_			_		I	131-23
Color Colo	Dark coloured		٠	84-20	8	22		_	78.7		67-2		-		•		71-14	325
406 34+17 38-0 35-0 <th< th=""><th></th><th>:</th><th>:</th><th>6.9</th><th>#12</th><th>7</th><th>62-18</th><th>8.17</th><th>63-18</th><th></th><th>į</th><th>_</th><th>_</th><th>_</th><th>_</th><th>-</th><th>68.17</th><th>75 87</th></th<>		:	:	6.9	#12	7	62-18	8.17	63-18		į	_	_	_	_	-	68.17	75 87
1,000 24-17 38-0 38-20	•	:	:	:	:	:							:				:	
7.5 89-15 89-11 89-11 89-11 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-17 89-18 89	Mask	:	•	9	34.17	28	_					-	_	-		_	35.20	21.7
29.2 24-15 22-9 22-9 24-15 16-10	Cotton	:	:	22	89-15	20.11				_			_	_			_	98.73
20-3 14-13 17-22 16-19 1	Moth	:		29-2	24.15	:						_	-	-		_		22.23
1985 1985	3	:	:	20-3	14.13	17.23	=					-	-	_		_	_	15-19
29-2 22-9 22-9 22-9 22-9 22-15-15 24-15 24-15 24-15 22-15 22-15 23-12 23-12 23-13 23-15 15	Turthe	•	•	40-12	34 17	90	_					_		_			_	417
186-13 159-22 158-19 161-0 1	Armen	:	:	262	873	:						-		_		_		26-21
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Supplement to the Spring Harvest of the Subah of Agra.

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27-24	9	27.57	9	27-22	2	82.5	202	200	1-62	33-14	29.2
5 S		200	9	25-21	27-24	27-14	27-24	28.2	Z	25-18	27-24
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Subah of Ajmere, 7 Sarkars, 9 codes.

- 1. Sarkār of Ajmere, 2 codes. Süburban district of Ajmere, &c. 24 Parganahs, 1 code. City and suburbs of Ajmere, 2 mahals, Arāine, Parhat, Bahnāi, 113 Bharānah, Bawāl, Bāhal, Bāndhan Sandheri, Bharonda, Tusina, 114 Jobnair, 115 Deogāon, Roshanpur, Sānbhar, Sarwār, Sathelā, Sulaimānābād, Kekri, Kherwah, Māhrot, Masaudābad, Narāina, Harsor, Anber, &c., 4 Parganahs, 1 code, viz., Anber, Bhakoi, Jhāg, Muzābād.
- 2. Sarkār of Jodhpur, 21 Parganahs, 1 code. Suburbs and city of Jodhpur, Asop, Endrāoti, Bhodhi, Palpārah, Belārā, Pāli, &c., 3 mahals, Bāhilah, Podhh, Bhadrājaun, Jetāran, Dotārā, Sujhat, Sātalmer, Sewāna, Kherwa, Kheonsar, Kundoj, Mahewah.
- 3. Sarkār of Chitor, 28 Parganahs, 1 code. Suburbs and city of Chitor, 2 mahals, Islāmpur commonly Rāmpur, Udaipur, &c., 3 mahals, Aparmāl, 116 Artod, Islāmpur commonly Mohan, Bodhnur, Phuliā, Banhera, Pur, Bihin Surur, Bāgor, Begun, Pati Hājipur, Jeran, Sānwarkhāti, Sāndri, Samel with the cultivated land, Kosiānah, Māndalgarh, Māndal, Madāriya Nimach &c., 3 mahals.
- 4. Sarkar of Ranthambor, 4 codes, Ranthambor &c., 36 Parganalis, 1 code. Subarban district of Ranthambor, Alhanpur, Etāda, Aton, Islāmpur, Iwān Bosamer, Barodah, Bhadlāon. Baklānt, Palātiāh, Bhosor, Belonah, Bālakhatri, Bhoripahāri, Bārān, Talād, Jetpur, Jhāin, Khaljipur, Dhari, Sanhusāri, Kotā, Khandār, Khatoli, Kadaud, Lakhri, Londah, Lahaud, Māngror, Momedānah &c., 16 mahals. Chātsu &c., 16 Parganalis, 1 code. viz., Chātsu, Barwārah, Uniyārā, Pātan, Banhatā, Sarsup, Boli, Bejri, Kharni, Nawāhi, Jhalāwah, Khankharah, Sui Supar, Malārnah, Karor, Bondi, Delhwārah, &c., 7 Parganalis, 1 code, viz., Delhwārah, Rewāndhnah, Nagar, Antrorah, Delānah, Amkhorah, Loharwārah, Todā. &c., 3 Parganalis, 1 code, viz., Todā, Tonk, Tori.
- 5. Sarkār of Nāgor, 30 Parganahs, 1 code. Suburban district of Nāgor, Amar Sarnain, Indānah, Bhadānah,

¹¹³ Bahacoi, Tieff.

¹¹⁴ Bossina, Ibid. 114 Zounbora, Ibid. 114 Aparpāl, Ibid.

Baldubalām, 117 Batodhā, Baroda, Bārah gāin, Chāel, Charodah, Jākhrah, Khārijkhatu, Dendwānah, Donpur, Rewāsā, Ron, Rasulpur, Rahot, Sādelah, Fathpur Jhanjmun; Kāsli, Khāelah Kojurah, Kolewah, Kumhāri, Keran, Lādon, Merath, Manohar nagar, Nokhā.

6 & 7. Sarkārs of Sarohi and Bikāner. The codes of these two Sarkārs are not laid down.

Spring Harvest of the Subah of Ajmere.

	Suburban district of Ajmere, &c.	Parganah of Amber, &c.	Parganah of Jodhpar, &c.	Parganah of Chitor, &c.	Parganah of Rantambhor &c.	Parganah of Chätsa, &c.	Parganah of Delhwärah, &c.	Parganah of Todah, &c.	Parganalı of Magor, &c.
	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.
Wheat	49-5	31-8	100-16	55-23	55-23	53-18	67-2	48.94	100-16
Indian Vetches	33-14	20-3	55-23	31-8	31-8	38-0	42-12	27-24	55-23
Berley	33-14	20-3	67-2	83-14	33-14	38-0	49-5	32-11	67-2
Ades	22-3	18-11	•••	22.9	22-0	24-15	20-3	***	***
Bafflower	62-15	26-9	67-2	\$5-23	55-22	58-9	59-4	36-29	67-2
Рерру	95-15	60-0	115-20	89-24	84-24	115-20	116-8	77-4	118-90
Potherbs	55-23	35-90	62-15	55-23	55-23	48-8	55-22	36-94	66-18
Lineced	51-8	20-3	31-8	26-21	26-21	26-21	29-2	***	31-6
Mustard seed	44-18	26-21	55-23	26-21	24-15	***	27-24	16-11	55-21
trans	20-0	13-11	55-23	13-11	13-11	17-22	17-22	1418	86-21
Pees	26.9	20-3	***	22-2	20-9	•••	•••	•••	***
Carrota	26-21	15-16		22-9	22-21	•••	27-24	18-11	•••
Onlons	67-2	44-18	67-2	59-21	59-21	80-13	89-18	53-17	60-2
Penngreck		***	55-0		67.			56-28	•••
Persian Musk-Melons	100-16	67-2		-83-11	89-11	•••	39-11	80-8	•••
indian ditto	11-5	6-18	•••	18-11	13-11	18-11	13-11	18-11	8-94
Cumin	70-7	58-17	77-8	67-2	67-2	80-18	80-13	53-17	***
Kur rice	81-11	33-0		52-14	52-24	40.8	88-14	***	***
Afwiin	70-7	58-17	78-7	67-2	67.	80-18	80-13	36-17	867

²²⁴ In the text Bakdu, but the above is the name in the account of this Subak which occurs later on.

Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Ajmere.

		Suburben district	of Ajmere, &c.		Amber, &c.	Parganah of	Joanpar, ac.	Parganah of Chitor, &c.		Parganah of Rantambhor &c.		Chatsu, &c.		Delhwärsh, &c.	Parganah of	Todah, &c.	Perganah of	Nague, de.
		D.	J.	D.	J.	D.	J.	D. J	. 1	Э. J.	D.	J.	D.	J.	D.	J.	D.	J.
Sugarcane										-		-				-		-
(paundah)	•••	ا						239 6		19-6		••		••			 	
Common sugar	cane	115				1154		115-8		15-8			113				115	20
Dark coloured	rice		23			85-2	_	67-2		8-2		-20		-22		-18		••
Common rice	•••		-20			44-5		53-17		10-17		-2		24	81			-18
Cotton	•••		-14			81-7		38-14		3-14	-	3		-24		-18	31	
Moth	***		-15 -15			67-1		76-1		M6-1 M6-1	78		40	-17	54	-0 -21	67	
Gal	•••		-15			36-3 38-2		26-1 13-18		3-15		-16		-16		-16	20	
Turiye		36		24-		4	1	33-14			. 1		1					_
Arzan			22			55-2		17-25				.22	22			-24		
Indigo		134		85-		134-4		111-20		44	:134	_	134	-		-11	134	_
Hinna		67		44-		67-9		55-2:		5-23		-2		-15		21	67	
Hemp		82	-19			87-7		78-8		8-7	84	-15	76	-13	76	-13	83	17
Potherbs		85	-22	35-	20	62-1	5	55-22	Ų I	5-23	81	15		-13	24	H	62	-15
Kachren		13-3		8.		18-1		11-5		5-5	13	-11		-11		-24		-11
Singhärah		115-2		116:		115-2		115-20		5-20		-20		20	118		115	
Lobiya		31-2		20-		22.9		31-8		11-6		-11	25			114	23	
jowari	•••	24-1		11-1		31-8		29-2		9-12		23	42		30		31	
Lahdarah	•••	20-3		12-		17-2	9	22-9		2-9	_	-18	31		19	_		22
Kedarama	•••	29-3		11-1		***	-1	22.0		3.0		-14		-14		24	••	
Mandwek	•••	22-1		20-1			١	23-3		20 214		-81		-21 -17		24	- 11	-14
Sesame seed Shamākk	***	15-6		81		33-4		33-14 11-5		1-5	11	-16	11					
Snamarn Mung	***	24-1		15-1		25.1	۱.	40-6		0-6		-3		-12		-10	98	21
Kuri		21-		6-11			•	8-24		8-24	1		ii			3		
Kelt		***			- 1	***	ŀ	***		13-14	1	••	4	••	22		ĺ	• •
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The rates of the Sarhars of Bikaner and Sarohi are not given.

The Subah of Delhi, 8 Sarkars, 28 codes.

1. The Sarkar of Delhi, 48 Parganahs, 7 codes. The old suburban district, the new ditto Pālam, Jhārsah, Masaudābād, Tilpat, Luni, Shakarpur, Bāghpat, Kāsnah. Dāsnah. Sulaimānābād. Kharkhudah, Sonipat, Talbegampur, Talālpur.

Pānipat, &c., 2 Parganahs, 1 code, viz. Pānipat, Karnāl, Safedun, Kutānah; Chhaproli, Tāndah Bhagwān, Gonor, Ihanjhānah Kāndhlah Gangerkhera.

Baran, &c. 8 Parganahs 1 code. Baran, Siyanah, Jewar, Dankor, Adh, Pothh, Senthhah, Sihandarabad,

Merath, &c., 7 Parganahs 1 code. Merath, Häpur, Barnāwah, Jalālābād, Sarwārah, Garh Muktesar, Hatnāwar. 118

Jhajhar, &c., 4 Parganahs, 1 code. Jhajhar, Dādri-Tāha Māndothi, Beri Dobaldhan.

Rohtak, 1 Parganah, 1 code.

Palol 1 Parganah, 1 code.

- 2. Sarkār of Badāon, 16 Parganahs, 1 code. Ajāon, Aonla, Badāon and suburbs, Barcli Barsar, Pond, Telhi, Sahsāwn, Sonāsi Mandehah Saniyā, Kānt, Kot Sālhahan, Golah.
- 3. Sarkār of Hisār Firozah. 18 mahals, 4 codes. Suburbs of Hisār Firozah, &c., 7 parganahs, 1 code. Suburbs and city of Hānsi, Barwalah, Barwā. Toshām and Agrohah, 2 mahals, Fatehābād. Gohānah, &c., 4 parganahs, 1 code. Gohānah, Ahroni, Bhattu and 16 villages. Sirsā, 1 parganah. 1 code. Muhim. &c., 6 parganahs, 1 code. Muhim. Rohtak, Jind, Khāndah, Tahānah, Athkerah.
- 4. Sarkār of Rewāri, 11 mahals, 4 codes. Rewāri, &c., 8 parganahs, 1 code. Rewāri, Bāwal, Kot Kāsim Ali, Pātaudi, Bhoharah, Ghelot, Ratāi Jatāi, Nimrānah. Tāoru, 1 parganah, 1 code. Suhnah, 1 parganah, 1 code. Kohanah, 1 parganah, 1 code.
- 5. Sarkār of Sahāranpur, 36 mahals, 4 codes. Deoband, &c. 26 mahals, 1 code. Deoband, Sahāranpur, Bhatkhanjāwar, Manglor Nānoth Rümpur, Sarot, Purchhapār, Jorāsi, Sikri Bhukarhari, Sarsāwah, Charthāwal Rurki, Baghra, Thānah Bhewan, Muzuffarābād, Raepurtātār, Ambeth Nakor and Toghlaqpur, 2 mahals, Bhogpur Bhattah, Thānah Bhim, Sanbalhera, Khodi and Gangwah, 2 mahals Lakhnauti Kerunah, &c., 2 parganahs 1 code. Kerānah Bedoli.

Sardhanah, &c., 7 parganahs, 1 code. Surdhanah, Bhonah, Suranpalri, Badhānah, Joli, Khatoli and Baghra, 2 mahals. Indri. 1 mahal, 1 code.

6. Sarkar of Sirhind. 2 mahals, 4 codes. Suburbs of Sirhind, &c. 13 parganahs. Suburbs of Sirhind. Rupar,

¹⁴ Hastinapur, Hiliot & Tieff.

Pāel, Benor, Jahat, Dhotah, Dorālah, Deorānah, Kuhrām, Masenkan, villages of Rās Samu, Ambālah and Kaithal. Thānesar, &c. · 8 parganahs. Thānesar, Sadhurah Shāhābād Khizrābād, Mustafa-ābād, Bhodar, Sultanpur, Pundri. Thārah, &c., 2 parganahs. Thārah, Ludhiānah, Samānah, &c., 9 parganahs. Samānah, Sunnām Mansurpur Mālner, Hāpuri, Pundri, Fatehpur and Bhatindah, Machhipur.

8. Sarkār of Sambal, (Sambhal) 47 mahals, 3 codes. City of Sambal, &c., 23 parganahs. City of Sambal, suburbe of Sambal, Sarsi, Naroli, Manjholah, Jadwār, Gonor, Neodhanah, Deorah, Dabhārsi, Dhakah, Rajabpur, Amrahak, Ujhāri, Kachh, Āazampur, Islimpur Dargu, Islāmpur Bharu, Afghānpur, Chopālah, Kundarki, Bachharaon, Gundor. Chāndpur, &c. 16 parganahs. Chāndpur, Sherkot, Bijnaur, Mandāwar, Keratpur, Jalālābād, Sahanspur, Nihtor, Naginah, Akbarābād, Islimābad, Seohāra and Jhala, 2 mahals. Lakhnor, &c., 11 parganahs. Lakhnor, Shāhi, Kābar and Kānkhari 2 mahals. Hatamnah, Rājpur, Dodelah, Leswah, Sarsāwah, Basārā Parohi [= Barohi].

Sarkār of Kumāon. (The names of its parganahs are not entered in the MSS.)

Spring Harvest of the Súbah of Delhi.

Tāoru.	D. J.	2 2	:	00 10 01 06	1 50 1 80 1 80	71-14	127-11	20-7	12	2-10 0-06	នុ	25-18	81-16	81-16	10016	1414	58-17	81-16
Bewärl.	U.	50.10	::	24.11	7	71-14	122-11	8		00-10 00-00	8	26-21	81-16	81-16	190-16	11-16	21-11	i
.mida M	Ö.	1		401.07	7117	8	127.16	22-0		3 6	28.21	25.2	81-16	:	1	13.14	18.24	98
Sirsā.	i a	786	: 6	49.193	24.18	67.5	119-16	51-12	24-15	2 0	3	29.5	98	:	298	13-11	46.24	5
Соћалаћ, &с.	D. J.	7/6	_	_		_	119-16	-			_		_	_	3	13-11	45-21	88.0
Suburban district of to Histr.	D. J.	62-15	67-2	40.2	24-15	67-2	119-16	20	25-13	2-15 2-15 2-15	8	23.5	0-98	850	96-10	15-16	16-24	0-98
Sarkär of Badaou.		99	30.5	45-20	15.23	70-11	1280	175	3 6	17-9		28-21	3	:	13-12	11-18	98	98
Rohtak.	D. J.	188	28.16	35.12	돍	68-20	119.16	900	20.90	203	26-21	29-2	3			13-11		
.lolaq	D. J.	64-21	33-14	12.12	8	72.14	127-11	3.5	31.90	22.2	31-20	53-17	81-16		91-001	15-16	20-17	81-18
Jhajhar, &c.	D. J.	61-12	33-14	41-9	24-15	71-14	1000	38-17	31-20	20-3	28-21	2411	17-7		91-16	15.16	8	24-22
Вакап, Де.	. J. J.	S#4					84.0											
Метаіћ, &с.	J.	584	: 95	-			_			-	_							
Paulyal, Sec.	D. J.	38	36.23	90	24-15	+1-1/	58.93	3.7	20.2	20-3	28.21	24-15	787	62.15	3	9141	2	
Old suburban dis- trict.	Ď. J.	63.0	36.3	42.12	24-15	1-		3.5	20.5	22.0	200	21.23	81-16		R	91-11	53-17	200
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		Wheat Cabal Veto	Indian di	Ado	Sefformer	Poppy	Potherbs	Lineced	Minetard sk	Armen			Parent Parent	Percian V.		For Since	Ather	Want w

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			Old auburban dis- trict,	Panipet, &c.	Mersth, &c.	.วที เหตาผนี	Jhajhar, &c.	Palol.	Rohtsk.	Sarker of Badaon.	Subarban district to History	Gohānah, &c.	.seri8	Muhim,	Reward.	Thorn.	D
Sugarcane	(poundah)	Ī :		1.5 1.5 1.5	D. J.	D. J.	H	D. J.	D. J.	D. J. 216.9	214.20 196.4	D. J. 214.26	D. J. 214-20	D. J.	20. 1	D. J.	EL.H1
Common sugarcane Dark coloured rice	red rice	::	78.7	920	43.18		73.8				62.15	68-18	2 2	5 2 2 8	76.1	77-7	AUI
Mash	:	:		8-18	\$4.17 24.17		3 3 8				98	86.28	88.0	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	88 20	88	, ju
Moth	: :	:		2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 3 2 3 2		2 % = = = =				24-13	28-12	28.13	21.42	200	8 3	129
Call Arzdn	: :	. :		15.9	16 19		15-16				200	28.12	200	83	7	8	HAI
Indigo	:	:		121.0	121-0		121.0				2	76.0	200	92	3	25	KVE
Hemp		: .		89.18	83.21		64.24				7:12	#0-18 #1-14	71-14	73.50	71-17	72-17	45T
Kachneh	: ;	: :		11.0	12.7		13 11				18-11	18-11 220-11	12-14	18 11 220-11	1811	18-11	
Pan Singharah	: :	:		200 15	111 20		220-11				111.20	111.20	111.20	111-20	02-111	20.5	
Lobing	• .	;		11.88	26.21		28.22 28.22				88:	38.0	9 -	36.0	35-20	85-20 19-8	
}		:	11.5	9	12.20		18-11	11-5			1811	18-11	18-11	18-11	:	18-11	
et		: :	26.50 26.50	26.21	872		26.21	26.21			2 57 20 58 30 58	29.2	38-14			8-12·	
Koderan: Mandrah	: :	: :	36.7	31.20	222		27.24	27.10			26.21 44-18	26-21 45-21	25-17 41-24	280 46.24		14-18 4-18	11:
Shomer and	: ::	: :	42-12	9 - 9	12.8		11-19	62.5	11-19		9 3 3	7:	1.5		18-11	18-11	o
Nink	:	i	98.0	420	43-11			į									

Supplement to the Spring Harvest of the Subah of Delhi.

Lakhmor, &c.	D	5	} :	38-20	86.23	24-18	2001	58	24-16	28-7	17-9	. 9		91-70	10.19	11.10	20 C B	24.24(?)
Chandpur, &c.	i	9					27.12	_	_		_		_	_			_	42-12 (?)
Suburban district of Sambhal.	n a		59-22							_	_	_	-		_	-		
Зашапаh, &c.	D. J.	51-11	:	38-14	25	78.5	126.9	57-5	26-21	26-21	77-27	3 5	10.08	12.5	111.20	15.18	42.12	86.0
ிந்தாசந், கேட	D. J.	51-11	:	88	28	5 5 5	128-9	58-5	25-18	9 8	2 5	3 -	82.18	61-11	111.20	14.14	8.17	84-24
Тһапезат, &с.	D. J.	59-6		27 E	27-12	386	126.0	59-7	25.18	25 17	2 8	22.2	81.58	408	118-12	14-14	48-17	84-24
Subarban district of String.	D. J.	51-11	: 4	200	24.11	176.0	1269	25.	7.00	17-07	8	28	82-18	:	112-23	14-14	41.9	98
.indri.	D. J.	51-11	. 8	27.72	38.1	78.0	126.9	58.7		12-17	20.9	26-21	87-7	51-11	115-20	14-9	617	16-16
Kerānah, &c.	D. J.	58.0		8 4	23:18	71-14	125.3	55-21	\$ To	20.02	28-21	24-16	81-16	60-17	100-16	11.16	53.17	26-15
Sardhanah, &c.	D. J.	58-4	94.12	3	20.0	84-24	145.9	2000	200	19.0	30.5	23-12	84 24	180	145.9	17.22	53-17	77-76
Deoband, &c.	р. ј.	65-23	14	35.8	25.2	84.24	1507	17.40	200	20.0	32.11	28-21	82-19		145.0	98	808	7
Kohānah.	Ü,	67-2	38.14	44.18	24-15	71-14	98	35	38.14	21.6	31.20	20.5		56-23	111.20	11-16	51-11	
Suhnah.	D. J.	3421	38.0	12	24.15	76-17	:	99.11	77.75		31-20	:	:	:		91-11	:	:
		:	: :	:	:	:	:	: ;		:	:	÷	:		clons	:	:	:
		t Vetahan	do.	:	:	:	:	: :	seed	:	:	:	:	H.	Januar Inclous		:	:
		Wheat	Indian	Barley	Adas	Sattower	Portherha	Linseed	Mustard	Arzen	Pees	100	CHIOTIS	Penugree	Thelian	Z are	A trulle	

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	Suhnah.	.danādoM	Deoband,	Sardhanah,	,น่อกลัวว.ภี	.irbnI	Suburban trict of t	Трапсват,	% ,darādī	Sāmanah,	Suburhan S trict of S Lad	Chāndpur,	Lakhnor,
	O G	D. J.	0.00	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J	.D. J.
Sugarcane (poundam) Jointhon Sugarcane	134-16	134-16	123.0	1230	1230	118-13	121-22	120-19	118-13	11812	129-17	130-20	120-29
	584	38-17	42.12	6.81	44-48	42.12	42-12	42-18	44-14	49-15	42-12	41-9	42-12
Mash	36.23	35.20	32-11	34-17	33.14	32-15	33-14	330	\$2-12	81.8	34.12	35.19	31-20
Cotton	- 36 - 36 	= :	200	288	91-17	107-8	202 80 08	205	28.20	105-2	102-214	2.5	* 00 C
	15.18	16.19	15.16	16.19	16.9	13.11	14-14	141	13-11	14:14	15-16	15-16	3
frage	2	8	20 B	22.9	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3	21-3	21-6	8-72	19-14
ndigo	163.0	0-191	157-13	161-0	161 6	161-0	U 191	161.0	0-191	161-0	163-6	156-13	161-14
Hima	78-20	88-7	77.4	71-14	1.98	70-11	69-20	70-11	70-11	70-11	73-20	72-17	72-17
Hemp		11-68	82.18	83-21	82-18	82-12	82-12	82-12	82.12	82-12	11-98	38	200
otherbe	77-7	71-14	71-14	78-7	Z 2 2	71-14	71-14	70-11	71-14	71-14	78.6	787	
Kachrak	18.11	13-11	128	12.8	12.8	11.5	11-19	11.5	11-19	11-19	11-5	11-16	12:20
	23.11	223-15	245-24	223-15	283-15	223-15	223-15	223.15	223-15	223-15	223-15	223-16	:
Singharah				111.20	111-20	8711	111-20	111-20	111-20	111-20	111-20	02-111	: 5
Cobine	88.14	27-24	30.5	25-21					:	:	28-23	7.00	01./2
forestr	28.23	35.20	28-21	35-14	74.50	33-14	71-25	34-17	23-14	20-14	77.98	201.00	3
	13-11		9	27	200	12.23	22.5	12.21	77.71	97	. 1	11.142	. 6
propert radish .	13-11	110	200	9 5 6	22.25	7	AI-11	9	AI-11	27-77	21 70	24.16	900
Candorals		17.07	200	2 2	75.57	200	100	24-10	24.50	27.70	20.00	06.90	12
Codorom	28-14	200	17.90	8 8		1	20.00	17.07	7.07	074	1000	10.70	95.16
Mendanak	01-72	77.77	21-12	201	244	40.6	21.5	21-12	40.6	45.6	44.18	48.2	80
Segame seed		18-12	11.5	12.20	12	1.5	11-5	2 1	3 4	11-6	11.18	11.00	11-19
Vana		028	98	\$4.16	99	\$	90	90	3	2	2	2	26-22
The same of the sa	-		27-24							111.20	:	-	

The Subah of Lahore contains 8 populated areas 100

(Tieff. pagi et oppida).

1. The area of Lāhore &c. has 20 mahals, 1 code. Area of Lāhore, &c. 4 mahals; metropolitan area, Bāri Doāb; Barhiāsat; lands of Panj Bari Shāhpur: lands of Kālapand, Rachnāu Doāb.

Panjāb, 16 mahals: Tappah Bheluwāl of the Bari Doāb, Tappah Bharli, Tappah Phulwāri, Punjgarāmi, Sandhwāl, Sūhu Mali, Sidhpur, Mankatwālah, Ghāzipur, Chandanwarak, Amrāki Bhatah, Parsaror, Rachnau, Sidh-

pur Panchnagar, Garbandwāl.

2. Sarkār of Jālandhar, 30 hahals. 1 code. Jālandhar, Sultānpur, Shaikhpur, Melsi, Lohi Dheri, Nakodar, Talon, Muhammadpur, Miani Nuriya Kharkharaon, Rahimabad, Jalalabad, Hādiābād, Bajwārah, Harhānah, and Akbarabad, 2 mahals, Balot, Bhonkā, Hājipur, Pati Dhināt, Dardak Sāhimalot, Andwarah, Dadiāl, Kard Jālar? Sarkar (?) Deswahah, Chaurāsi, Naunankal, Nobi.

3. Sarkār of Batālah, &c. 14 mahals, 1 code. Battālah Kanuwāhan, Kalānor, Jamāri, Hanwād and Baba, 2 mahals, Thandot, Dābhāwālah, Khokhowāl, Paniyal, Bhalot, Katwahā and Bethān, 2 mahals, Salimābād separate from

Battālah.

4. Pati Haibatpur, &c., 6 mahals, 1 code. Haibatpur, Hoshiār Karnālah, Firozpur, Qasur, Muhammadot, Deosah.?

5. Sarkār of Parsaror, &c., 7 mahals, 1 code. Parsaror, Maukri, Mahror, Pati Zafarwāl, Pati Bārmak, Haminagar.

6. Sarkār of Rohtās, &c., 9 mahals 1 code. Rohtās, Kari, Kariāli, Bahni, Andarhal, Losdah, Sardahi, Malotrai Kedāri, Nandanpur.

7. Sarkār of Siālkot, &c., 11 mahals, 1 code. Siālkot, Mānkot. Wan Sodrah, Narot. Renhā, Jimah Chatah, Marāt,

Mankoknor Sialkot?

110 The term sawād is usually applied to the towns and villages of Arabian Irāq [i.e., the sown or cultivated area, as distinct from the desert], as those in Khurasān are called rustāk, and in Arabia Felix makhālif.

This name does not occur in the account of Lahore later on. The variants are Barhidt, Barhat, Barsahat, Barsahasat. It is scarcely necessary to note that the words Bāri and Rachna in connection with Doab are formed by the crasis of Beas and Rāvi, in the former case, and Rāvi and Chenāb in the latter

the latter.

184 Tappah denotes a small tract or division of country smaller than a parganal, but comprising one or more villages. In some parts of the North-West, it denotes a tract in which there is one principal town or a large village with lands and villages acknowledging the supremacy of one amongst them and forming a sort of corporate body, although not otherwise identical. Witson's Giloss.

8. Sarkār of Hazārah, &c., 16 mahals, 1 code. Hazārah, Chandanwat of the Chenāu Doāb Bherah, Khokharwāl Khushāb, Kal Bhelak, Khār Darwāzah, Tāral, Shor, Shamshābād, separate from Bherah Shorpur separate from Chandanwat, Shakarpur separate from Shor.

Spring Harvest of the Subah of Lahore.

	Lahore, &c.	Battālah, &c.	Parsaror, &c.	Pati Haibat- par, &c.	Jālandhar, &c.	Rohtās, &c.	Sialkot, &c.	Hazārsh, &c.
	рJ.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.
Wheat Cabul Vetches Indian do. Barley Adas Safflower Poppy Potheris Linseed Mustard seed Arzan Peas Carrots Onions Penugreek Persian Water Melons Indian Cummin Afullis	50-15 84-21 85-20 46-0 26-21 79-10 129-17 71 T4 31 8 51-8 24-15 85-21 50-8	49-5 35-14 35-20 24-15 79-10 129-17 67-2 27-24 29-2 19-0 26-21 83-21 46-24	53-17 85-20 88-0 24-15 78-10 129-17 67-2 27-24 31-8 19-0 27-4 24-15; 86-18 61-12	58-17 53-14 38-0 24-15 79-2 129-17 67-2 31-8 31-8 21-6 26-21 24-15 83-21 40-6 115-20	53-17	44-18 60-10 31-8 31-8 22-9 67-2 115-20 55-20 22-9 26-21 15-16 26-21 19-0 71-13 60-10 89-15 11-18 81-4	38-17 70-15 85-20 38-0 29-21 78-7 129-18 67-0 29-22 81-8 20-3 81-8 24-15 88-21 67-2 111-20 15-16 84-24 84-84	65-23

Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Lahore.

	Lahore, &c.	Battālah, &c.	Parsator, &".	Pati Hailint- pur, &c.	Jalandhar.	Rohtüs, &c.	Sialkot. &c.	Hazdraft, &c.
Sugarcane (paundah) Common Sugarcane Common rice Kall Māsh Cotton	145-9 64-21	186-10 60-9 40-6 31-8 83-4	240 -12	ŧ .	58-4 46-121 32-15	183-121 123-0 50-8 38-14	D. J. 67-0 41-9 81-8 86-20 77-5	D. J. 240-12 170-16 66-0 49-6 29-2 36-77 91-18

¹⁹⁹ In the account of Lahor, Bhalak.

Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Lahore.—continued.

			Lahore, &c.	Bettālah, &c.	Parsaror, &c.	Peti Haibat- pur, &c.	Jalandhar, &c.	Rohtās, &c.	Sialkot, &c.	Hardrah, &c.
			D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.
Moth	***	•••	20.9	22-9	23-23		22-9	20-8	28-12	28-12
Gal	***	•••	17-22				15-16	18-12	16-15	19-0
Turiya	>	***	•••	33-14			***	31-8	38-0	111
Arzan	***		20.9	17-0	17-22		15-22	14-14	17-22	29-2
Indigo	***	***	156 23		156-13			134-4	134-18	158-19
Hinna	***		700	70-0	74-23		74-23	67-6	74-28	77-24
Hemp	•••	***	93-23	93-23				80-12	93-23	93-23
Potherbs	***		80-12			80-12		60-9	70-17	80-12
Kachrah	***		12-8	12-8	12-8	12-8	12-8	10-6	12-8	18-11
Pan	***		128-15	123-15		123-15		•••	***	128-18
Singhārah	***		115 20	115-20	***	115-20		***	***	115-20
jowari	***	***	40-6	35-20	38-0	38-0	35-20	31-8	38-0	39-0
Lahdarah	900		31-8	29.2	30-5	29-2	26-21	24-15	23-2	31-8
Kodaram	***	***	33-14	35-20	34-17	31-8	83-14	31-8	35-20	35-24
Mandwah		***	33-14	31-8	31-8	32-15	26-21	26-21	21-20	32-14
esame	***	•••	46 24	42-12	' 42-12 }		40-6	33-14	48-12	46-24
hamāk h			13-15	12-20	12-8	12-8	12-9	10-2	12-8	13-14
lung	***		40-12		•••	•••	40-6	26 -21	44-18	44-18
Cori	***	•••	13-15	12-8	12-8	12-8	15-5	10-2	12-8	12-8
furmeric	***		133-0	133-0	138-0	134-4	133-0	115-20	184-4	133-90

Subah of Mālwah.

- Sarkar of Ujjain, 10 mahals. City of Ujjain with suburban district, Dipālpur, Ratlām, Nawlāi, Badhnāwar, Kanel, Anhal, Khāchrod, Sānwer, Pānbihār,
 - 2. Sarkar of Hindiah, 22 mahals.
 - "Kotri, 3.
 - 4. ,, Sārangpur, 23 do.
 - ,, Bijagarh, 32 Gāoron. 11 5.
- 7. Sarkārs of Raisin and Chanderi, 1 code. Sarkār of Raisin, Asapori, &c. 6 mahals. Bhilsah, Bhori Bhojpur, Bālābhat, Thānah Mir Khān, Jājoi, Jhatānawi, Jalodah, Khiljipur, Dhāmoni, Dekhwārah, Deorod, Dhāniah Raisin with suburban district, Sewāni Sarsiah, Shāhpur, Khim-lāsah, Khera, Kesorah, Khāmgarh, Kargarh, Korai Laharpur, Mähsamand. Sarkar of Mando, 12 mahals. City of Mando, Amjharah, Mahesar, Dikthan, Dharmagaon. Sankor, Panman, Dhar, Barodah, Hasilpur, Sanasi, Kotrah, Manawarah Nalchah and Nawali, 2 mahals.

Subah of Multan.

Sarkār of Dipālpur. Dipālpur, &c., 14 mahals; one Dastur; Dipālpur, Lakhi bālā Bhoj, Lakhi Kalnārki, Lakhi Yusfāni, 128 Lakhi. Khokharāin, Kabulah, Lakhi Rahimābād, Lakhi Chahni, Lakhi Qiyāmpur, Lakhi Jangli, Lakhi Aālampur Jalālābād, Tappah Sadkarah, 2 mahals. Tappah Sadkarah, Shahzādah Baloj, Karal, Khānpur, Rasulpur, Shahzādah Hajrau, Mundi.

Spring Harvest of the Subah of Multān.¹²⁴

Spring Harvest of the Subah of Malwah.

	Multin, &c. 26 mehals.	Dipalpur, &c. 14 mahais.	Sadkarah, &c. 11 mahala.	Ujjain, &c.	Raisen, &c.	Mando, &c.
	D. J.	D. J.	D. J.	M.128 D. J.	D. J.	D. J.
Wheat	58-17	44-18	51-11	***	29-20 40-12	•••
Cabul Vetches	40.5	30-5	30-20	***	46-24	•••
Barley	49-5	24-15	47-14	***	30-5	
Adas	44-5		70-8	81 2 13	69-20	
Safflower	78-20	78-20 128-15	129-0	32 2 13 42 5 20	127-15	•••
Poppy	115-20	70-15	67-2	82 2 13	60-9	•••
Pot-herbs	1	29.2	31-8		31-8	
Linseed	44-18	29-2	31-2	3 2 13	***	***
Mustard seed	29-2	20-17	20-8	0, 2, 10	16-12	111
Arzon		23-12	25-17		31-8	***
Peas	***	22-9	36-1	1	27-14	***
	71-14	74-7	72-18		***	***
Onions Fenugreek	69-20	89-8	44-18		•••	804
Persian musk melons		116-0	115-20	81 1 3	115-20	***
Indian do	22-9	15-16	15-16		15-0	***
Cumin	73-20	74-8	77-11		46-2	***
Kur rice					85-0	***
Ajwäin		•••		•••	86-2	***
			l i			

¹⁰⁰ M. stands for Mussfori, see Vol. I, p. 23.

3

In this and the table of the Spring harvest of Labore I consider mang a misprint for mashang which occurs in this order in all the previous tables. Mung, the Phaseolus mungo, is recorded only in the Autumn harvest.

Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Multan.

Autumn Harvest of the Subah of Mālwah.

	Multink c. 22 mehals. Dipkipur &c. 14 mahala	Sadkarah &c. 11 mahala.	Ujjain, &c.	Raisen, &c.	de de
	D. J. D. J	. D. J.	м, р, ј.	D. J.	M. D. J.
Sugarcane (paundah) Common Sugarcane Dark coloured rice Common rice Kalt Māsh Cottoh Moth Gāl Arzan Indigo Hinna Hemp Pot-herba Jowari Labdarah Kodaram Mandwah Sesame Shamākh Mung	240-11 134-4 270-8 49-5 49-5 49-6 93-23 87-5 88-0 28-21 17-22 31-20 28-21 145-9 150-18 76-0 76-0 85-0 91-17 73-20 111-0 98-0 38-0 42-12 30-18 41-9 43-18 12-8 30-18 41-9 43-18 12-8 30-18	143-3 64-21 49-5 4 31-3 1 35-20 89-11 28-12 19-0 22-9 9 159-22 76-0 7 93-23 82-18 33-14 38-0 12-8 12-8 33-14 31-4	74 1 21 44 5 8 24 1 2 23 1 2 44 5 20	239-6 48-15 70-15 55-3 46-6 87-8 26-21 8-8 4-24 115-20 44-18 15-16 31-8 40-12	6 1 0

Note.—I cannot understand nor explain the notation in Muzaffaris and am not sure if I have interpreted it correctly.

EDITOR'S NOTE

On the correction of place-names and dynastic lists in Jarrett's translation, vol. II.

In tracing the Hindu personal names and the numerous less important place-names, the variant readings given in the printed Persian text of the 'Ain-i-Akbari are of no help to us, unless we know the correct names from other sources, such as (in the case of topography) large-scale maps and the records in the modern revenue and judge's courts of those 'areas. Similarly, Tieffenthaler's Geography of Hindustan (Fr. trans. by Bernoulli, 1786) is of no real use to us: he merely translated from Persian mss of the 'Ain, and where his names differ from those in our printed text of the 'Ain, he can be correct only in the rare instances of his having had a more correct and legible ms. of the book before him and his having transcribed these names in Roman letters without a mistake. Most of the mistakes in the proper names are due to the ignorance or carelessness of the Muslim clerks of Abul Fazl and the later copyists of his book. Students of Persian mss know that the usual sources of mistake in mss are the confusion, in writing, of the letters R, D, and W, (and sometimes also HU for DU) and the wrong placing (or omission) of dots (nuqta) by which B, T, N, Y, P and H are confounded together.

The only dependable means of correcting the place-names in the 'Ain-i-Akbarı is to use the Survey of India maps (quarter-inch or even one inch to the mile sheets), and this I have done. But absolute certainly on this point can be gained only by carefully verifying these names from the old revenue and civil court records of each particular subdivision included in the 'Ain. I wish that local inquirers would do this work and send the result to the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal (Calcutta) for incorporation in a future edition of this translation.

Unlike his brother Faizi who was a Sanskrit scholar, Abul Fazl did not know that difficult language. So, the author of Akbar's Imperial Gazetteer had to engage a number of Brahman pandits and Kayasth scribes, and they read out and summarised in Urdu the legendary Hindu history from the Sanskrit epics and Purānas and quasi-historical works like the Rajatarangini and the guide-books

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to famous Hindu shrines (i.e., māhātmyas and khandas.) These summaries were put down in Persian by Abul Fazl's clerks. Pickings from these Persian notes went to the making of ancient Hindu history as given by Abul Fazl in the final shape of the 'Ain-i-Akbari.

When Col. Jarrett made his translation of the second volume of the 'Ain-i-Akbari in the Eighteen-eighties, his only sources for ancient Hindu history were Wilson's Vishnu Purana and Prinsep's Useful Tables, and for early Muslim history, Firishtah, Riyāz-us-Salātin and similar uncritical early works. During the sixty years and more that have passed since then, the study of Indian history has made such a great advance that it would be an injustice to the modern reader—and also to Jarrett's memory,—to reprint his notes from obsolete authors. I have therefore felt it necessary to sweep away his heaps of dead leaves (as I have called them in my introduction to the revised edition of the third volume of the 'Ain), and to give extracts only from modern authorities, such as the Dacca University History of Bengal (vol. I. Hindu period, vol. II. Muslim Rule), R. D. Banerji's History of Orissa in 2 volumes (1930-1931, replacing the ante-diluvian Hunter's Orissa of 1872, which Jarrett cited,), the Cambridge History of India, Elliot and Dowson, &c.

In fact, Abul Fazl's Hindu history is of no real value, as it was entirely drawn from traditions and myths, long before the age of critical historiography based upon inscriptions, coins and records. Hence, I have not wasted paper by trying to refute every error in this portion of the 'Ain, but I have given exact references to modern sources, where the reader will find the necessary correct information on the subject.

The pandits employed by Abul Fazl have made a hotchpotch of the old history of Hindustan by mixing together
legendary and historical kings, inserting real royal names
of one dynasty or province into the dynastic list of another,
and thus inextricably mingling truth and fancy together,
e.g., Anangahbima was a real king of Orissa (three of the
dynasty bearing that name) shortly before the Muslim
invasion, but Abul Fazl makes him the son of the prehistoric Bhagadatta, the comrade of Duryodhan of the
Mahābhārat and a king of Bengal! So also, Bhoja, who
reigned elsewhere than in Bengal and was a Kshatriya, is

made in the 'Ain a Kāyastha and the founder of the second line of Bengal kings.

As for Raja Naujah, Abul Fazl is confused, making him the last king of the Sena dynasty in one place, and the father of Lakshman Sena in another. I cannot conceive how Nārāyan can be misspelt in Persian writing as Naujah. I suggest the emendation Budh-sen (a real king at the end of the Senas) for Naujah in the list, and Raja of Nudia for Raja-i-Naujah at the first mention.

Correct list of the Pala kings of Bengal-

Gopāla I., accession	•••	$c. 750$ A.D.
Dharma-pāla	• • •	770
Deva-pāla	•••	810
Vigraĥa-pāla I or Sura	a-pāla I	850
Nārāyana-pāla	•	854
Rājya-pāla		908
Gopāla II		940
Vigraha-pāla II	,	960
Mahi-pāla I	• • •	988
Naya-pāla	•••	1038
Vigraĥa-pāla III		1055
Mahi-pāla II		1070
Sura-pāla II		1075
Rāma-pāla	•••	1077
Kumāta-pāla		1120
Gopāla III	• • •	1125
Madana-päla	***	1140
Govinda-pāla	•••	1155
(D.U. Bengal, i. 170		,
(D.O. Dengar, I. III	J-111)	

Correct list of the Sena kings of Bengal-

Vira-sena (progenitor, not Raja)

Sāmanta-sena

Hemanta-sena, 1st Raja, in Rārh acc. c. 1080.

Vijaya-sena, conquered all Bengal except Gaur, (r. 1125-58)

Vallāla-sena, r.c. 1158-1179

Lakshman-sena, r.c. 1179-1206. His sons Vishwarupa-sena and Keshav-sena ruled in East Bengal till c. 1230. Surva-sena and Purushottama-sena were probably the sons of Vishwa-rupa, and were in power till c. 1245. Among the thiefs with names ending in Sena, in Eastern India in the 13th century, are Buddha-sena (of Pithi) and his son Jaya-ena, and Madhu-sena (date prob. 1289); but they were nere local barons or zamindārs and not ruling sovereigns. D.U. Bengal, i. 205-228.)

Correct list of the Pre-Mughal Muslim rulers of Bengal leaving out the viceroys and rebel sultans from Qutbuddin libak to Md. Tughluq Shah, 1202-1339.)—

Ala-ud-din Ali (Mubārak) accession 1339 A.D.

Early Ilyās Shāhi dynasty

Shams-ud-din Ilyās (Bhangāra), r.	1348-'57
(U	1357-c. '91
	1391-1409
Ghiyās-ud-din A'zam Shāh c.	1391-1409
Saifuddin Hamza Sh	1409-10
Shihābuddin Bāyezid Sh. (title	
Shams-ud-din)	1411-13
'Alauddin Firuz Sh	1414
111 mm	
Hindu dynasty	
Ganesh (var. Kans)	1414-1418
	1418-31
Shams-ud-din Ahmad	1431-42
Chamb-ad-din 11mmad	
Later Ilyās Shāhi dynasty.	
Nāsir-ud-din Mahmud I	1442-59
	1459-74
	1471-81
Yalal and Alm Thath Ot.	1481-87
Jaiai-uq-qin Fath Sh	1#01-01
Abyssinian dynasty,	
Bārbak Shah 6 months,	1487
	1487-90
	1490-91
01. 111 37 6	1491-93
Shams-ud-din Muzahar	1491-90
(Arab) Husain Shāhi dynasty.	
A'la-ud-din Husain Shah,	1493-1510
	1519-32
Allo and dim Winner	
	1532-33
Ghiyās-ud-din Mahmud,	1533-38

Sur dynasty.

Sher Shah	•••	1539-45
Islām Shāh	•••	1545-53
Shams-ud-din Md. S	Sh	1553-55
Ghiyās-ud-din Bahād	lur (Khizr Kh.)	1556-60
Ghiyās-ud-din II	•••	1561-63
His son	7 months,	1568
Ghiyās-ud-din III	one year	1564

Karrāni dynasty (Afghan).

Tāj Kh. Karrāni	• • •	r.	1564-65
Sulaiman Karrāni	•••	•••	1565-72
Bāyezid Karrāni	•••	• • •	1572
Dāud Karrāni	•••	•••	1573-76
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(See D.U. Bengal, vol. II)

Note on the sarkars of Bengal in Akbar's time.

In view of the frequent changes in the administrative geography of Bengal under British rule and the radical change resulting from the partition of Bengal in August 1947, it is impossible to indicate briefly the extent of any of the sarkārs of the 'Ain in terms of the districts of the two parts of Bengal as they are today. Among the striking points of difference are that under Mughal rule (a) southern and western Midnapur belonged to Orissa and not to Bengal, (b) the district of Purnia and the eastern portion of Bhagalpur were attached to Rengal and not to Bihar, and (c) Sikhar-bhum (old name of Pachet), Dhaval-bhum, and Singbhum formed parts of the Sarkār of Mandaran belonging to Bengal.

The following table of approximate equivalents between Akbar's sarkārs and the Bengal districts in the last stage of British rule may be of some help to the modern reader.

Sarkars	Pistricts
Udambar	Rajmahal subdivision, N.W. Mur- shidabad, and N. Birbhum.
Janna tābād	Malda (mainly)
F\ .1 -1 - 1	Faridpur, South Bakarganj and the islands at the mouth of the Ganges.
M ahmudābād	North Nadia, North Jessore, and West Faridpur.
Khilāfatābād	South Jessore and West Bakarganj.

Sarkars		Districts
Baklā	•••	North and East Bakarganj and SW. Dacca.
Tājpur	•••	East Purnia and West Dinajpur.
Ghorāghāt	•••	S. Rangpur, SE. Dinajpur, and N. Bogra.
Pinjära	•••	Dinajpur and parts of Rangpur and Rajshahi.
Bārbakābād	•••	mainly Rajshahi, S.W. Bogra and S.E. Malda.
Bāzuhā	•••	partly Rajshahi, Bogra, Pabna and Dacca.
Sonārgāon	•••	West Tippera and Noakhali.
Sharifatābād	•••	mostly Burdwan.
Sulaimanābād	•••	North Hugli, and adjacent parts of Nadia and E. Burdwan.
Sātgāon	•••	24 Parganas, W. Nadia (?) and Howrah.
Mandāran	•••	Bankura, Vishnupur, S.E. Burdwan and W. Hugli.

Bāsuhā—This word is the Persian plural of bāzu meaning 'an arm', i.e., the direction of a locality with reference to a central point such as the capital town. In early times the provinces of a kingdom were indicated as its different directions (e.g., Tarf, subah from sub, whence the titles of provincial governors Tarf-dār, subah-dār, &c.) As will be noticed in the lists of the 'Ain, in Orissa locality-names are compounded with the word dik meaning direction of the compass, and in Bengal and elsewhere with the word dast, meaning the right arm or the left arm, of the speaker. In Akbar's time the portion of Bengal known as Bāzuhā had not yet been consolidated into a compact area, but lay sprawling over many neighbouring districts and having no clear-marked boundaries. Rāst and chap mean the right and left hands respectively.

I. SARKAR.

ACCOUNT OF THE TWELVE SUBAHS.

In the fortieth year of the Divine Era [1594] His Majesty's dominions consisted of one hundred and five Sarkārs (divisions of a Subah) subdivided into two thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven townships (gasba). When the ten years' settlement of the revenue was made (which amounted to an annual rental of three Arbs, sixty-two krors, ninety-seven lakhs, fifty-five thousand two hundred and forty-six dams [Rs. 9,07,43,881] and twelve lakhs of betel leaves). His Majesty apportioned the Empire into twelve divisions, to each of which he gave the name of Subah and distinguished them by the appellation of the tract of country or its capital city. These were Allahabad, Agra, Oudh, Ajmer, Ahmadābād, Behār, Bengal, Delhi, Kābul, Lahor, Multan, Malwah: and when Berar, Khandesh and Ahmadnagar were conquered, their number was fixed at fifteen. A brief description of each is here set down, and an account of their rulers together with the periods in which they flourished, duly recorded.

BENGAL SUBAH.

Since the conceptions of sovereign rule embrace the universe, I propose to begin with Bengal which is at one extremity of Hindustan and to proceed to Zabulistant and I hope that Turan and Iran and other countries may be added to the count. The country lying to the east will be first described, followed by the north, the south, and the west.

This Subah is situated in the second clime.3 Its length

1 Käbul and the adjacent territory as far as Ghazna and even beyond come

under this appellation which is derived by Yākut, Majmu'a-ui-Buidan) from Zābul, grandfather of Rustam.

Iqlim, literally a slope or inclination, was used in the mathematical geography of the Greeks with reference to the inclination of various parts of the earth's surface to the plane of the equator. Before the globular figure of the earth was known, it was supposed that there was a general slope of its surface from S. to N. and this was called klima. But as the science of its surface from S. to N. and this was called Ritma. But as the science of mathematical geography advanced, the word was applied to belts of the earth's surface, divided by lines parallel to the equator, those lines being determined by the different lengths, at different places, of the shadow cast by a gnomon of the same altitude, at noon of the same day. This division into climates was applied only to the N. hemisphere as the geographers had no practical knowledge of the earth S. of the equator. There were 19 climates as given by Ptolemy (Geogr. i, 23). The term was afterwards applied to the average temperature of each of these regions and hence our modern use of the word, (Smith's Dict. of Antia. 2nd ed.. art. Climates: also Ency. of Islam. ii. 460). (Smith's Dict. of Antiq, 2nd ed., art. Chimates; also Ency. of Islam, ii. 460).

from Chittagong to Garhi3 is four hundred kos. Its breadth from the northern range of mountains to the southern frontier of the Sarkar of Mandaran, is two hundred kos, and when the country of Orissa was added to this Subah, the additional length was forty-three kos and the breadth twenty-three. It is bounded on the east by the sea, on the north and south by mountains and on the west by the Subah of Behār. The tract of country on the east called Bhāti, is reckoned a part of this province. It is ruled by Isa Afghan and the Khutbah is read and the coin struck in the name of his present Majesty. In this country the mango trees grow to the height of a man or not so high and produce abundant fruit. Adjoining it, is an extensive tract of country inhabited by the Tipperah tribes. The name of the ruler is Bijay Mānik. Whosoever obtains the chieftainship, bears the title of Manik after his name, and the nobles that of Nārāin. He has a force of two hundred thousand footmen and a thousand elephants. Horses are scarce. To the north is a country called Kuch. Its chief commands a thousand horse and a hundred thousand foot. Kāmrub, commonly called also Kāonrup and Kāmtā, is subject to him. The inhabitants are as a race good looking and addicted to the practice of magic. Strange stories are told regarding them. It is said that they build houses, of which the pillars, walls and roofs are made of men. Some of these they compel by the power of sorcery, and criminals deserving of death are also thus made use of. Whoever voluntarily surrenders

The Arabs adopted this system but restricted the number to seven. They considered three-fourths of the globe to be submerged and one-fourth above water. Of this latter ½ was habitable and the remainder waste or desert. The habitable portion was 33 150,000 square miles in extent, each mile being 4000 cubits, each cubit 24 digits. It was situated between the Equator and the N. pole and was divided into 7 climates.

This is Teliagarhi, a pass in the Santhāl Parganahs, Bihar, lying between the Rājmahāl hills on the S. and the Ganges on the N. Formerly of strategic importance as commanding the military approaches to Bengal proper. The ruins of a large fort still exist, through which the E. I. Railway passes. It seems never to have been completed and was constructed in the last century by the Teli zamindār who was forcibly converted by the Mulanumadans. Hence the name of the fort and the parganah in which it is situated. Imp. Gazetteer. Gazetteer.

The kos is for convenience generally taken at two English miles. The basis of all linear systems is the same, viz., the cubit or human forearm. Proceeding upwards four hālhs or cubits = a danda or staff: and 2000 dandas a kos, which by this calculation should be 4000 yards English or nearly 2½ miles. Useful Tables, p. 87. Also Elliot's Memoir of Races, N. W. P. II, 194.

*The name given by the Muhammadan historians to the coast-strip of the Sunderbens from Hijili to the Meghna Lat. 20° 30' to 22° 30' N., long. 85° to 91° 14' E. The name means "low lands overflowed by the tide" and is still applied to the Sundarban tracts of Khulna and Bākarganj Districts. I. G. For Isa Kh., D.U. Bengal, ii. 194-212.

himself for this purpose, escapes retribution for a year. Various conveniences are reserved for him. In due time, men armed with swords cut them down, and from their movements or immobility or other aspects, they have cognizance of scarcity or plenty or duration of years [of the reign] or the longevity of the ruler or defeat of enemies. They also cut open a pregnant woman who has gone her full term of months and taking out the child, divine somewhat as to the future. There grows a wonderful tree whose branches when cut, exude a sweet liquid which quenches the drought of those athirst. They have also a mango tree⁵ that has no trunk; it trails like a climbing vine, over a tree and produces fruit. There is likewise a flower which after it has been gathered for two months, does not wither nor lose its colour or smell. Of this they make necklaces.

Bordering on this country are the dominions of the Rājah of Ashām (Assam) whose great pomp and state are subjects of general report. When he dies, his principal attendants of both sexes voluntarily bury themselves alive in his grave. Neighbouring this is Lower Tibet and to its left is Khata.' This is also called Mahāchin which the vulgar pronounce Māchin. From Khān Bāligh⁵ its capital, to the ocean, a forty days' journey, they have cut a canal both sides of which are embanked with stone and mortar. Alexander of Greece advanced to that country by this route.9 Another road is also mentioned which can be traversed in four days and four nights.

The Willoughbeia edulis. It is known to natives of Bengal, Assam and the Chittagong Hill tracts, as the Loti Kim (Loti, for Sanskrit lata, a creeper) but botanically is far removed from the true mango. The fruit is said to be pleasant to taste. The leaf of the dried specimen is very similar to the ordinary mango leaf: the fruit is about 2½ inches long and 2½ broad (Dr. King.)
The Tulsi, (Ocymu a Sanctum).

China for nearly 1000 years, writes Yule (Marco Polo, 2nd ed. Introd., p. 11) has been known to Asia under the name of Khitai, Khata or Cathay and is still called Khitai by the Russians. [Ency. Islam. ii. 737 under Kara

^{*}De Guignes (Hist. des Huns. gives this name to Pekin, called also Tatou the grand court or Khan Baligh, the court of the Khan. Several towns have received this name which as it signifies the royal residence is transferhave received this name which as it signifies the royal residence is transferable to any that the monarch may honour with his presence. It is the Cambalu of Western geographers and historians and placed by them in Northern China or Grand Tartary, while the Orientals locate it in China Proper. (Ency. Islam, it. 898).

In B.C. 329 Alexander crossed the Oxus in pursuit of Bessua and after putting him to death, he passed the Jaxartes (Sir Daria) and defeated several cythian tribes north of that fiver. This was the northernmost point that he reached. A. Fazl is merely relating the Muslim legend of Alexander, for which see Ency. Islam, ii. 533 under al-Islandar. [J. S.]

To the south-east of Bengal is a considerable tract called Arakan which possesses the port of Chittagong. Elephants abound, but horses are scarce and of small size.¹⁰ Camels are high priced: cows and buffaloes there are none. but there is an animal which has somewhat of the characteristics of both, piebald and particoloured, whose milk the people drink. Their religion is said to be different to that of the Hindus and Muhammadans. Sisters may marry their own twin brothers, and they refrain only from marriages between a son and his mother. The ascetics, who are their repositories of learning, they style Wali whose teaching they implicitly follow. It is the custom when the chief holds a court, for the wives of the military to be present, the men themselves not attending to make their obeisance. The complexion of the people is dark and the men have little or no beard.

Near to this tribe is Pegu which is also called Chin. In some ancient accounts it is set down as the capital city of Chin. There is a large military force of elephants and infantry, and white elephants are to be found. On one side of it is Arakan. There are mines of rubies, diamonds, gold, silver, copper, naphtha and sulphur, and over these mines there is continual contention between this country and the Maghs as well as the tribes of Tipperah.

The original name of Bengal was Bang. Its former rulers raised mounds measuring ten yards in height and twenty in breadth throughout the province which were called Al. From this suffix, the name Bengal took its rise and currency. The summer heats are temperate and the cold season very short. The rains begin when the sun is midway in Taurus, (May) and continue for somewhat more than six months, the plains being under water and the mounds alone visible. For a long time past, at the end of the rains, the air had been felt to be pestilential and seriously affected

fields and the like.

[&]quot;The domestic animals of the Arakan Hill Tracts according to the Imp. Gas. are the gayal, buffalo, ox, goat, pig, dog. "The Gayal (Bos Prontalis) has interbred with the common Indian cattle; these hybrids are brought down by the Bhutiahs to the annual fair in the Darrung District: though they thrive in Shillong they soon die if kept in the plains. The Gayal is plentiful along the spurs of the Bhutan hills, amongst the Dufflas, Lushais, and along the hilly tract well into Chittagong." Sport in British Burmah by Lieut-Col. Pollock. An alternative reading gives, "horses are scarce, and asses and camels are high-priced," which Gladwin has adopted.

Sansk. all a mound of earth or ridge for crossing ditches, dividing fields and the like.

animal life, but under the auspices of his present Majesty, this calamity has ceased.

Its rivers are countless and the first of them in this province is the Ganges: its source cannot be traced. The Hindu sages say that it flows down from the hair of Mahadeva's head. Rising in the mountains towards the north, it passes through the province of Delhi, and imperial Agra, and Allahabad and Behar into the province of Bengal, and near Quzihattah in the Sarkar of Barbakabad, it divides into two streams. One of these, flowing east-wards, falls into the sea at the port of Chittagong. At the parting of the waters, it takes the name of Padmāwati and pursues a southern course. It is divided into three streams; one, the Sarsuti [Saraswati]; the second the Jamna (Jamuna) and the third the Ganges, called collectively in the Hindi language Tribeni,2 and held in high veneration. The third stream after spreading into a thousand channels, joins the sea at Sātgāon [Hugli]. The Sarsuti and the Jamna unite with it. In praise of this stream the Hindu sages have written volumes. From its source to its mouth it is considered sacred, but some spots have a peculiar sanctity. Its water is carried as an offering of price to far distant places. Believing it to be a wave of the primeval river, they hold its worship to be an adoration of the supreme being, but this is no part of the ancient tradition. Its sweetness, lightness and wholesomeness attest its essential virtues. Added to this, it may be kept in a vessel for years without undergoing change.

Another river is the Brahmaputra. It flows from Khatā³ (China) to Kuch and thence through the Sarkār of Bāzuhā and fertilising the country, falls into the sea.

And again there is the sea which is here a gulf of the great ocean, extending on one side as far as Basrah and on the other to the Egyptian Qulzum⁴ and thence it washes

Sansk, tribent three braids of hair. Wilford says (Asiatic Research, Vol. XIV, p. 396) that the waters of these three rivers do not mix. The waters of the Junna are blue, those of the Sarasvati white and the Ganges is of a muddy yellowish colour.

a Its rise is supposed to be from the S. E. base of the sacred Kailás hill, on the opposite side of the water-parting in which the Sutlej and the Indus also take their rise. Its course, con-fluents and history may be read in the

I. G

4 This is the ancient Klysma, the site of the modern Suez, in the neighbourhood of which the Tel Quizum still retains the name which has been given to the Red Sea. Ency. Islam, ii, 1114.

both Persia and Ethiopia where are Dahlak and Suākin, and is called (the Gulf of) Omān and the Persian Sea.

The principal cultivation is rice of which there are numerous kinds. If a single grain of each kind were collected, they would fill a large vase. It is sown and reaped three times a year on the same piece of land with little injury to the crop. As fast as the water rises, the stalks grow, so that the ear is never immersed, inasmuch as those experienced in such matters have taken the measure of a single night's growth at sixty cubits.5 The people are submissive and pay their rents duly. The demands of each year are paid by instalments in eight months, they themselves bringing mohars and rupees to the appointed place for the receipt of revenue, as the division of grain between the government and the husbandman is not here customary. The harvests are always abundant, measurement is not insisted upon, and the revenue demands are determined byestimate of the crop. His Majesty in his goodness has confirmed this custom. Their staple food is rice and fish; wheat, barley and the like not being esteemed wholesome. Men and women for the most part go naked wearing only a cloth (lungi) about the loins. The chief public transactions fall to the lot of the women. Their houses are made of bamboos, some of which are so constructed that the cost of a single one will be five thousand rupees or more and they last a long time. Travelling is by boat, especially in the rains, and they make them of different kinds for purposes of war, carriage or swift sailing. For attacking a fort they are so constructed that when run ashore, their prow overtops the fort and facilitates its capture. For land travel they employ the Sukhāsan. This is a crescent-shaped litter covered with camlet or scarlet cloth and the like, the two sides of which have fastenings of various metals, and a pole supporting it is attached by means of iron hooks. It is conveniently adapted for sitting in, lying at full length or sleeping during travel. As a protection against sun and rain they provide a commodious covering which is removable at pleasure. Some enjoy the luxury of riding on elephants but they rarely take to horseback. The mats made here often resemble woven silk.

Gladwin has six for sixty. The long stemmed rice, according to the I.G. is extensively cultivated in the swamps. The seed is sown when the marshes are dry or nearly so, and when the rains set in the plant shoots up with the rise of the water and can be grown in water to a depth of from 18 to 20 feet, but even this is not in one night.

Tria inde genera eunuchorum veniunt, quo Sandalos, Bādāmos et Kāfuros nuncupant. Priores, partibus genitalibus radicaliter exsectis, Atlises etiam nominant. Bādāmis pars solum penis relinquitur. Kāfuros adhuc teneræ ætatis, testes vel compressi conficiuntur vel exsecantur: tamen notatum est, castrationem, quæ pervicaciam cæteris omnibus animalibus tollit, hominibus solis excitare.

Salt is in great demand and is brought from long distances. Diamonds, emeralds, pearls, cornelians and agates are imported. Flowers and fruit are in plenty. The betel-nut is of a kind that stains of a red colour the lips of those who chew it.

Jannatābād is an ancient city: for a time, it was the capital of Bengal and was widely known as Lakhnauti and for a while as Gaur. His Majesty the late Emperor Humāyun distinguished it by this title of Jannatābād. It has a fine fort and to the eastward of it is a lake called Chhatiāpatiā in which are many islands. Were the dam that confines it to break; the city would be under water. About a kos to the north of the fort, is a large building and a reservoir, monuments of great antiquity. From time immemorial, its water has been considered to be of a poisonous character. The place was called Piyāsbāri (abode of thirst), and criminals condemned to death, were there confined who in a short time perished from the effects of this brackish water. At present in the blessed reign of His Majesty, this practice has been discontinued.

Mahmudābād.—The marshes around the fort have added to its impregnability. The ruler of this district, at the time of its conquest by Sher Khān, let some of his elephants loose in its forests from which time they have abounded. Long pepper grows in this tract.

The Sarkār of Khalifatābād is well wooded and holds wild elephants. The Sarkār of Baklā extends along the sea shore. The fort is surrounded by woods. On the first day of the new moon the sea steadily rises until the fourteenth, and from the fifteenth till the end of the month as gradually falls. In the 29th year of the Divine Era, a terrible inundation occurred at three o'clock in the afternoon, which swept

[&]quot;I have imitated the example of Gladwin in veiling the following passage under the mask of a learned language and with a slight alteration have borrowed his words. (Jarrett.)

over the whole Sarkar. The Rajah held an entertainment at the time. He at once embarked on board a boat, while his son Parmanand Rae with some others climbed to the top of a temple and a merchant took refuge in a high loft. For four hours and a half the sea raged amid thunder and a hurricane of wind. Houses and boats were engulfed but no damage occurred to the temple or the loft. Nearly two hundred thousand living creatures perished in this flood.

In the Sarkar of Ghoraghat, silk is produced and a kind of sackcloth [jute]. Numbers of eunuchs are here and hill ponies in plenty are procurable. There are many kinds of indigenous fruits, especially one called Latkan.' It is the size of a walnut with the taste of a pomegranate and contains three seeds.

The Sarkar of Barbakabad produces a fine cloth called Gangājal (Ganges water), and a great abundance of oranges.

In the Sarkar of Bazuha are extensive forests which furnish long and thick timbers of which masts are made. There are also iron mines.

The Sarkār of Sonārgāon⁸ produces a species of muslin very fine and in great quantity. In the township of Egāra Sindur is a large reservoir which gives a peculiar whiteness to the cloths that are washed in it.

In the Sarkar of Sylhet there are nine ranges of hills. It furnishes many eunuchs.

There is a fruit called Suntarahio in colour like an orange

an insignificant village called Painam in the Dacca District. I.G.

an insignificant village called Painam in the Dacca District. I.G.

In the south of the district, says the Gazetteer, eight low ranges of hills run out into the plain, being spurs of the Tipperah mountains. The highest is about 1000 feet above sea level. There is also a small detached group, the Ita hills, in the centre of the district.

Commonly Sangtarah. The name is supposed to be a corruption of Cintra, but its mention by Baber in his Memoirs seems subversive of this derivation, for though the fruit is said to have been an eastern importation into Portugal, it is improbable that the foreign name could have been current in India at so early a date. Humayun praises it highly saying that no one cares for any other fruit who has this. He states that it is found only at Sonargaon in Bengal and in the greatest perfection only at one place. A note to the Memoirs (p. 329) says that the description of the fruit by Baber suits more the Citrus decumana than any other, and its Bengali name Batari nimbu, the Batavia lime, denotes its being an exotic.

Dr. King of the Royal Botanical Gardens, Calcutta, considers this to be a species of Elacarpus. The fruits of all the species are a good deal alike, varying in size from an olive to a walnut, having an external flushy pulp more or less palatable (in some species of fair flavour) and containing a stone. The later is usually found to be divided into 3 cells, one of which contains a mature seed, the seeds in the other two being abortive. The taste of the pulp of the E. serratus and E. lancœofolius (both natives of Rangpur) is a good deal like that of the pomegranate.

* This was the ancient Malammadan capital of Bastern Bengal but is now

but large and very sweet. The China root² is produced in plenty. In ancient times it had not been discovered until some scientific travellers from European Turkey introduced it to universal notice. Aloes-wood is abundant in these mountains. At the end of the rains they fell the trees to the ground, and after a certain time they give them various names according to their greenness or maturity.

The Bhangrāj3 is a bird of a black colour, with red eves and a long tail. Two of the feathers extend to a length of a gaz. They are snared and tamed. It catches the note of any animal that it hears, and eats flesh. The Shergani is of the same kind but its beak and legs are red; in imitating sounds, it matches the other and pursues sparrows and the like and eats them.

Chātgāon (Chittagong) is a large city situated by the sea and belted by woods. It is considered an excellent port and is the resort of Christian and other merchants.

In the Sarkar of Sharifahad is a beautiful species of cattle, white in colour, and of a fine build: like camels they are laden kneeling down and carry fifteen man weight. It is

noted for the Barbary goat and for fighting cocks.

In the Sarkār of Sātgāon, there are two ports at a distance of half a kos from each other; the one is Satgaon, the other Hugli: the latter the chief; both are in the possession of the Europeans. Fine pomegranates grow here.

The root of a species of smilax of a pale reddish colour with no smell and very little taste. The smilax glabra or lanceaphia, not distinguishable, according to Roxburg, by the eye from the drug known as China root. It is a native of Sylhet and the adjacent Garrow country.

Bhringa-rāj, Edolius paradiseus or large racket-tailed Drongo. Plumage uniformly black with a steel-blue gloss. Length to end of ordinary tail 14 inches; wing 6½; tail to middle 6½; outer tail feather 12 to 13 inches more; the shaft having the terminal end for about 3½ inches barbed externally, but towards the tip only on, the inner side, and turning inwards so that the under-side becomes uppermost. It will eat raw meat, lizards, and almost any kind of food offered to it. It imitates all sous of sounds, as of dogs, cats, poultry. The Bhring-rāj, (king of the bees) is found in the dense forests of India from the Himalays to the Bastern Ghats as far S. as N.L.15°. Jerdon. Shergani Cissa Sinensis, Brisson. Cissa Venstoria, Blyth—the green jay. It is found in the South Eastern Himalays and in the hill ranges of Assam, Sylhet, Arakan and Tenasserim. These birds wander about from tree to tree and pick grasshoppers, mantides and other insects, are frequently tamed and caged and are amusing and imitative. They sing lustily a loud screeching strain and are highly carnivorous. The shrike-like habit, in confinement, of placing a bit of food between the bars of their cage is in no species more exemplified than in this—Jerdon. II, 312.

The traditional mercantile capital of Bengal from the Puranic age to the time of the foundation of the town of Hugli by the Portuguese. Its decay commenced in the latter part of the loth century owing to the silting up of the channel of the Saraswati. In 1632, Hugli being made a royal port, all the public offices were withdrawn from Satgáon which soon sunk into rain. Stat. Acct. of Bengal ,III, 307—310.

In the Sarkar of Mandaran is a place called Harpah in which there is a diamond mine producing chiefly very small stones.

Orissa.

This was formerly a separate State. The climate is extremely healthy. His Majesty apportioned it into five Sarkārs, viz., Jalesar, Bhadrak, Katak (Cuttack), Kaling Dandpāt and Raja Mahandrah. These five are now included in the province of Bengal. It contains one hundred and twenty-nine masonry forts. Its ruler is entitled Gajpati. The rainy season extends over eight months; there are three cold months and one month only that is hot. The staple cultivation is rice and the food of the inhabitants consists of rice, fish, the egg-plant and vegetables. When the rice is cooked, they steep it in cold water and eat it on the second day. The men are effeminate, anointing their bodies with sandal oil and wearing golden ornaments. The women cover only the lower part of the body and many make themselves coverings of the leaves of trees.². The walls of their huts are of reeds and their temples are of stone and of great height. Elephants abound. The inhabitants of Bengal do not understand the language of this country. A woman may have more than one husband. They write on palm leaves with an iron pen, holding it with the clenched fist, and pen and ink are rarely employed. The litters called Sukhāsan are much in use: cloths are manufactured and the province furnishes eunuchs: fruits and flowers are in great plenty, especially the gul-i-nasrin which is very delicate and sweetscented: its outer petals are white, the inner yellow. The keorah's grows in great abundance and there are various kinds of betel-leaf. Money transactions are in kauris which is a small white shell generally divided down the middle; it is found on the sea shore. Four kauris make a ganda, five gandas, a budi, four budis, a pan, sixteen or according to

¹ Lord or rider of the elephant. The suit of cards used by Akbar (Vol. I. p. 316) under the name of Gajpati, symbolised the power and reputation of Orissa in the possession of these animals.

² For the leaf-wearing tribes of Orissa, the Juangs or Patwas, see Hunter's Orissa, ii. 116. Banerji, Orissa, i. 19 et.

³ The Brahmanical archives of the temple of Jagannāth consist of bundles of palm leaves, nearly only and provides along them.

of palm leaves, neatly cut and written over with a sharp iron pen without

ink. I. G.
In Hindi, Seoti the Rosa glandulifera. Roxb. Pandanus odoratissimus, Roxb.

some twenty pan, a khāwan [kāhan] and ten khāwan, a

rupee.

Katak (CUTTACK.) The city has a stone fort situated at the bifurcation of the two rivers, the Mahānadi, held in high veneration by the Hindus, and the Katjuri.6 It is the residence of the governor and contains some fine buildings. For five or six kos round the fort during the rains, the country is under water. Rajah Mukund Deo' built a palace here nine stories in height; the first story was taken up for the elephants and the stables: the second was occupied by the artillery and the guards and quarters for attendants: the third by the patrol and gatekeepers: the fourth by the workshops: the fifth, by the kitchen: the sixth contained the public reception rooms: the seventh, the private apartments; the eighth, the women's apartments, and the ninth, the sleeping chamber of the governor. To the south is a very ancient temple. Overlooking this, in the city of Purushottama (Puri) on the sea shore stands the shrine of Jagannath. Near to it are the images of Krishna and of his brother and sister," made of sandal-wood. It is said that over four thousand years ago Rajah Indradaman (Indradyumna) ruler of the Nilgiri hill sent a learned Brahman to select a suitable spot for the building of a city. wandered much in search of his object and found a fitting site which he preferred to all other places. On a sudden he beheld a crow plunge into the water and after bathing itself, pay its devotions to the sea. He was astonished at this action and as he understood the language of animals, he inquired of the crow the reason of its proceeding. He received this answer. "I was once of the number of the dectas and through the curse of an ascetic was transformed into this shape. A spiritual guide of high illumination affirms that the Supreme Creator has a special regard for this spot and whosoever dwells here and applies his soul to the worship of God, quickly attains his desire. For some years past I have supplicated for my deliverance in this

One of the deltaic tributaries of the Mahanadi dividing into two branches, one of which retains its own name while the other takes that of Koyakhai and supplies the Puri district.

Telinga Mukund Deo (Harichaudan); in this reign the sovereignty of Orissa was overthrown by the King of Pengal. Hanerji, Orissa, i. 342—348, Orissa was overthrown by the king of Pengal. Hanerji, Orissa, i. 342—348, palace-building not supported by history.

Parush-oltama means "the best of men" i.e., Vishna or Krishna. His brother and sister are Ralabhadra and Subhadra. The images are rude logs brother and sister are Ralabhadra and Subhadra. The images are rude logs brother and sister are Ralabhadra of human bust, and are actually in the sanctuary itself. For a description of the temple and other local shrines, Banerji, Orissa, ii. 369—413.

manner and the time is now at hand when my prayer will be answered. Since thou art essentially meritorious, watch in expectation and comprehend the wonders of this land." The Brahman in a short time witnessed with his own eves the things he had heard. He apprised the Rajah of these occurrences, who built a large city and appointed a special place of worship. The Rajah, one night, after having administered justice, was reposing on the couch of divine praise when it was thus revealed to him, "On a certain day, watch in expectation upon the sea shore. A piece of wood of fifty-two fingers in length and a cubit and a half in breadth will approach: this is the special image of the deity: take it and placing it in thy house, guard it for seven days and whatever shape it then assumes, place it in the temple and enshrine it." After waking, the thing happened in the same wise, and by a divine inspiration, he named it Jagannath and decked it with gold and jewels. It became a place of devotion to high and low and many miracles are reported regarding it. Kālā Pahār the General of Sulaymān Karrani, on his conquest of the country, flung the image into the fire and burnt it and afterwards cast it into the sea. But it is now restored and these popular fables are related of it.

The three images are washed six times every day and freshly clothed. Fifty or sixty priests wearing the Brahmanical thread, stand to do them service and each time large dishes of food are brought out and offered to the images, so that twenty thousand people partake of the leavings [prasad.] They construct a car of sixteen wheels which in Hindi, they call Rath, upon which the images are mounted, and they believe that whosoever draws it, is absolved from sin and is visited by no temporal distress. Near Jagannath is a temple dedicated to the Sun. [at Konārak]* Its cost was defrayed by twelve years revenue of the province. Even those whose judgment is critical and who are difficult to please stand astonished at its sight. The height of the wall is 150 cubits high and 19 thick. It has three portals. The eastern has carved upon it the figures of two finely designed elephants, each of them carrying a man upon his trunk. The western bears sculptures of two horsemen with trappings

^{*}The legend will be found related at length in Hunter's Orissa, Vol. I,

Kālāpāhār's desecration of the Jagannath temple and images, Banerji's Orissa, i. 345.

* Konārak temple, description in Banerji's Orissa, ii. 380-392; its art, ii. 410-415.

and ornaments and an attendant. The northern has two tigers, each of which is rampant upon an elephant that it has overpowered. In front is an octagonal column of black stone, 50 yards high. When nine flights of steps are passed, a spacious court appears with a large arch of stone upon which are carved the sun and other planets. Around them are a variety of worshippers of every class, each after its manner with bowed heads, standing, sitting, prostrate, laughing, weeping, lost in amaze or in wrapt attention and following these are divers musicians and strange animals which never existed but in imagination. It is said that somewhat over 730 years ago, Rāja Narsing Deo completed this stupendous fabric and left this mighty memorial to posterity. Twenty-eight temples stand in its vicinity; six before the entrance and twenty-two without the enclosure, each of which has its separate legend. Some affirm that Kabir Mua'hhid (monotheist) reposes here and many authentic traditions are related regarding his sayings and doings to this day. He was revered by both Hindu and Muhammadan for his catholicity of doctrine and the illumination of his mind, and when he died, the Brāhmans wished to burn his body and the Muhammadans to bury it.

The Subah of Bengal consists of 24 Sarkārs and 787 Mahals. The revenue is 59 ctores, 84 lakhs, 59,319 dāms (Rs. 14,961,482-15-7) in money. [Of this Orissa has 5 sarkārs, 99 mahals and 1,25,732,638 dāms.] The zamindars are mostly Kayaths. The troops number 23,330 cavalry, 801,150 infantry, 1,170 elephants, 4,260 guns, and 4,400 boats.

N.B.—The Parganahs will now be entered in alphabetical order in long double columns to each page accompanied by a few descriptive notices.

In the list of mahals, the editor has given the correct name first, with the letter R* or A* added, to mean that the place has been found in Rennell's Maps or in the Atlas of the Survey of India (quarter-inch scale). The name of the place as misspelt in the Persian text or wrongly transcribed by Jarrett has been given within brackets after the word mistake.—J. Sarkar,

This now stands in front of the Lion-gate of Jagannath. Orissa, I. 290. The Konarak temple was built by Narasimha I. of the Rastern Ganga dynasty (r. 1238—1284.) Banerji, Orissa, I. 267—269. For Kabir, Ency. Islam, ii. 592 (T. W. Arnold) and Hastings, Ency. Religion and Ethics, vii. 632—634. (R. Burn).

Sarkār of Udambar commonly known as Tāndā.¹ Containing 52 Mahals, Rev. 24,079,399 ½ Dāms.

		Dāms.	ı		Dāms.
Ag mahal		133,017	Dāud Shāhi	•••	242,802
Achlā)		Dugāchhi		225,745
Darsanpārah		404,2871	Rāmpur		115,532
Ashrafnihāl		103,2013	Rubaspur	•••	138,122
		960 957	Sarup Singh	•••	1,368,877
Ibrahimpur	• • •	360,357	- Sumaning A	iyäl	456,394
Ajiyāl-ghāti	•••	231,957		āhi	198,742
Amgāchhi	•••	369,3571		d	197,760
Barhgangal	• • •	666,200			187,097
Bhatāl	• • •	415,470			174,550
Bahādurpur	• • •	314,870			178,230
Bāhrāri Dhalbāri	•••	24,655		i	361,952
Phulbāri Bahādur Shāh		193,025	Sherpur	•••	163,097
		138,102	Firozpur	• • • • ;	347,787
Tanda with S			Kunwar-parta	ib 🗦	1.607,200
ban district	4	1,326,102	Kănakjok		
Tājpur	•••	291,997	[Kānkjol]	•••	1,589, 332
Taalluq Barbl	hākar	11,725	Kathgarh	•••	1,265,63 <u>2</u>
Tanauli	•••	196,38 0	Gankarah	• • •	894,027
Chunaghāti	• • •	589,967	Kāshipur	• • •	36,240
Chāndpur	• • •	190,027	Kachlā	• • •	36,240
Nasibi	•••	160,205	Käfurdiya		1,440
Chungnadiyā	•••	145,305	Mudesar]	l,503,35 2
Hājipur	• • •	106,255	Mangalpur	• • •	226,770
Husainābād	•••	266,545	Receipts from		
Khānpur		31,410	scattered est	ates*	45,837
Dhawah	•••	250,597	Nawanagar	•••	825,985
Deviyāpur	• • •	559,557	Nasibpur	•••	377,750
			-		

¹ For Udambar the reading Udner was accepted in the 1st ed. Tanda became the capital of Bengal after the decadence of Gaur. now a petty rillage in Maldah District; it was to the S. W. of Gaur beyond the Bägirathi, Old Tända has been utterly swept away by the changes in the course of the Pigla. Sulaiman Shāh Karrāni, the last but one of the Afghan kinga of Bengal, moved the seat of government to Tändä in 1564, A.D. eleven years before the final depopulation of Gaur. It was a favourite residence of the Mughal governors of Bengal until the middle of the following century. In the rebel Shāh Shujān' was defeated in its vicinity.

Mughal governors of Bengal until the middle of the following century. In 1808 the rebel Shah Shujaa' was defeated in its vicinity.

"The term Mazkurain was applied in old revenue accounts to small and existered estates not included in the accounts of the district in which they are situated, and of which the assessments were paid direct to the Government officers: subsequently it denoted a revenue payer, paying through the netervention of another, except in Cuttack where it implied the reverse, or he heads of villages paying the revenue immediately to the Collector. Wilson's Gloss.

Sarkār of Jannatābād or Lakhnauti. 66 Mahals. Rev. 18,846,967 Dāms.

Castes Kāyaths and Brahmans. Cavalry 500. Infantry, 17,000.

	Dāms.		Dāms.
Januatābād, com-	,	Darsarak	62,835
monly known as		Rāngāmāti	3,200
Gaur. It has		Sair duties from	•
been a brick fort	7,869,202	Gangapat and	
Adjacent villages		neighbourhood of	
of Akrā form-	•	Hindui†	170,800
ing 14 Parganahs		Sherpur and Gan-	
as follows:	1,573,296	galour 2 mahals	2,000
Ajor	138,925	Shāhbāzpur with-	
Bāzkhokrā	192,508	in the city	400
Baler	127,060	Ghivāspur	41,920
Akra suburban		Kamalā	16.377
district	$211,260^{-1}$	Kathachhāpā	12,000
Dhanpur	140 340 '	Modi Mahal	13,000
Deviya	112,208	Mewa Mahal	360
Serhwar ¹	71,000	Duties from the	11,760
Shāhbālā	98,400	New Market	11,700
Shāhlalsari	$-8,000^{-1}$	Adjacent villages	
Khektar	50,200	of Dihikot 7	
Madnāwāti	-151.890	mahals	869,000
Modihāt	6.980	Bararipinjar	698,900
Nāhat .	242,710	Pākor	37,720
Hashtganjpur	28,515	Dihikot	31,624
		Dahlgaon	130,320
Adjacent villages		Shähzadahpur	84,360
of Darsarak 16		Mäligaon	141,460
mahals as fol-	2,009,314	Modipur	61,880
lows:	2,000,000	11' and ailleaves	
Achārikhānah		Adjacent villages of Ramrauti 7	
where they sell	7,800	1 -1	749.795
undried ginger	826,432		207,500
Bhatiya	91,560	Badhtahli	194,767
Belbāri	91,500	Rāmauti	100 000
Bāzāri Kadim	0.700	i rice Prince i in	08,300
(Old Bazar)	3,720	Sangkalkarā	, 00,000

T. Sirapour, G. Seermor.
† Probably a mistake for "langer i or grain-mart, emporium".

		Dāms.	Dāms.
Sultānpur	•••	29,210	Makrāin 106,480
Sangdwār	•••	14,447	Manikpur and
Māhinagar	•••	107,550	Hatanda, 2 mahals 630,770
Adjacent vi of Sarsābā of 10 mah	d rev.	3,192,377	Adjacent villages of Mäldah, 11 mahls.
Akbarpur	• • •	9,736	Bārbakpur, Bāzār i Yusuf,
Pārdiyār	•••	85,280	Suburban district of Māl-
Khizrpur	•••	396,100	dah, Dherpur, Sujapur,
Sarsābād	• • •	553,080	Sarbādahlpur, Sankodiya,
Kotwäli	•••	788,427	Shālesari, Shāhmandawi,
Garhand	•••	334, 880	Fathpur, Mui'zzu'ddin-
Garhi	•••	200,000	pur.

Sarkār of Fathābād.

31 mahals. Rev. 7,969,568 dāms.

Zamindārs of three classes (i.e. castes). Cavalry, 990. Infantry, 50,700.

		$D\bar{a}ms$.		Dāms.
Isrāchāraj	•••	34,024	Sarisāni .	. 173,227
Bholiyābil	• • •	384,452	Sardiyā	53,882
Belor	•••	124,872	Sadhwā	37,127
Bhāgalpur	•••	2,115	Sawāil, common	lv
Bādhādiyā	•••	1,442	called Jalalpur	1,857,230
Telhati		377,290	Shahbazpur	. 732,172
Charnlakhi		35,645	Kharagpur	. 118,135
Charhāi	•••	30,200	Kasodiyā	102,405
		30,200	Kosā	. 68,350
Suburban dis	_		Makorgãon	0.450
and town	of	000 000	Masnadpur	PF 010
Fathābād		902,662	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	00 170
Salt duties		277,758		. 22,112
Hazratpur		11,640	Receipts from	100 008
Market dues		11,467	scattered estate	•
	•••		Naklesar	
Rasulpur	•••	103,767	Nia'matpur	. 20,960
Sondip	1	,182,450	Hazārahati	. 21,597
Sarhārkal		787,430	Yusufpur	. 258,025

Sarkar of Mahmudabad.

88 mahals. Rev. 11,602,256.

Caste Kāyath. Cavalry, 200. Infantry, 10,100.

Adniyā 76,113 Husain Ajiyāl 345,	135
Anupampur 43,365 Haweli [suburb] 91,	575
Ajiyalpur 37,307 Khalispur 56,	
	092
	265
Bāzu-rāst 652,507 Dakāsi 51,	740
Bāzu-chap 271,240 Durlabhpur 13,	775
	665
Bisi 25,247 Deora	107
Barin Jumlah 102,210 Dahlat Jalalpur 1,	200
Bethariya 96,117 Dostihnā 1,	052
Bāthnān 85,447 Dhomarhāt 42,	505
Rātkān 41,317 Sadkichāl Kotiyā	
Relwāri 80,195 or Kota 8,	205
Randwal 26.155 Sarotiva 6	530
Pātika māra 22.710 Sarsariyā 72	147
Pāhhankarlā 14.895 Sankardivā 10	212
Paranpur 12,572 Salimpur 23	637
Barmahpur 6,717 Soltāra Ajiyai,	000
Pathabari 3.567 commonly Koma 789	,220
Disciplification 2.045 Suruppur	,482
District 917 (Salibariya • 0	,760
Relkasi 123,387 Sator	,727
675 700 Shahajiyal 044	,787
rianghati 96 Sherpurbari	,403
301 365 Sperbur Otasion	,797
Azmatpur 14	,422
Q11-11: Q 125 (Ghaznipur ··· 12	,367
Tivarukhi 11,505 Farhatpur 505	,790
Lagannathpur 762 Fathpur Nosika 102	1,525
Chadibariya 44.007 Qutaopur	3,352
ladiya 44.700 Qazipur	3,652
Chitanbazu ² 952,950 Kandaliya 2),417

T, and var. Jedibariya
G. Chytun, car. Jastan and Chain.
T and var. Dakari

Sarkar of Mahnudabad-Contd.

	Dāms.	1	$D\bar{a}ms$.		
Khelphāti	19,940	Madhodiya	695		
Kandi Nawi	8,477	Maruf-diya	2,302		
Kolbariyā	6,517	Naldi	804,440		
Kaudasā ⁴	6,435	Nasrat Shāhi	272,450		
Kāliyānpur	26,235	Nagarchāl Kotivā	61,235		
Kali Mahal	26,717	Nagar Bānkā	3,382		
Lāniyān	313,286	Nāshipur called			
Launkohāl	15,425	also Ujain	91,080		
Mihmān Shāhi	575,727	Hemtapur	477,360		
Makhiyā	14,505	Haldā	122,566		
Mahmud Shāhi	226,552	Hawāl Ghāti	66,217		
Mirpur	2,370	Hatapān (?Hatiān)	3,665		
Maheswarpur	42,852	Hosipur	17,425		
Sarkār of Khalifatābād.					
	35 mahals. Rev. 5,402,140 dāms.				
			150		
Castes, various.		, 100. Infantry, 15			
	Dāms.	1	$Dar{a}ms$.		
Bhāl, with township	475,102	Chhalerā ¹	60,920		
Bhālkā	230,515	Suburban dist. of			
Polah	135,932	Khalifatābād	31,442		
Potkā	104,205	Khālispur	32,770		
Bāgh Mārā	81,807	Dāniyā	522,885		
Bhanga	25,300	Rāngdiya	129,910		
Bhades	11,225	Sahaspur	260,340		
Bhaliyānah	9,527	Sulaimānābād	168,504		
Phulnagar	66,660	Sāhas	91,500		
Taalluq of Kasinath	297,720	Sobhnāth	51,662		
Tālā	174,676	Sālesarbāhi²	11,484		
Taālluq of Srirang	26,427	Imādpur	97,102		
, Mahes Māndal	23,727	Khokrāl	105,520		
,, Dāmodar		Kanges, Taalluq			
Bhattachāraj	13,860	Parmanand	166,360		
", Sripat Kavirāj	8,675	Mundāgācha	126,360		
	0,010	Malikpur	61,327		
Jesar, commonly,	#09 0F0	Madhariyā	45,007		
	,723,850	Mangorghāt	16,842		
Charaulā	99,550	Mahresā	11,170		

⁴ G. T. and var. Gāuda. ¹ G. and var. Chabrah. ² T. and G. and var. Sālesari,

Sarkār of Baklā.

Containing 4 mahals. Rev. 7,150,605.

Castes, various. Elephants, 320. Infantry, 15,000.

	_		,	-,
Ismailpur, co	Dāms. Ommonly	Shāhzādahpur		Dāms. 977,245
Bakla	4,348,960	Adilpur	•••	911,240
Srirāmpur	252,000	[Idilpur]		1,553,440

Sarkar of Purniyah.

9 mahals. Rev. 6,408,775 dāms.

Infantry, 5,000.

Asonja Jairāmpur Suburban dist.	 of	Dāms. 734,225 467,785		 fro n i	Dāms. 390,200
Purniyah Dalmālpur		2,686,995 671,530	Kathiyāri	•••	85,000 590,100
Sultanpur	•••	502,206	¹ Kadwān	• • •	280,592

Sarkar of Tajpur.

29 mahals. Rev 6,483,857 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 100. Infantry, 50,000.

		Dāms,			Dāms.
Pangat (mist.			: Mālduār (mist.	
Bankat)	•••	3,307,885			208,540
Badokhar	• • •	238,855	: Chhāpartā	1	243,255
Phāli	• • •		! Suburban		,
Randol	•••	190,830			886,254
Bobarā			Dilāwarpu	r	944,055
Bhonharā		118,295	Daihat	***	124,196
Badgāon	•••	9,330	Sesahra	***	376,760
Bāsigāon	•••	104,492	Shujapur	***	344,507
Bangãon		3.15,990	Shahpur	•••	126,235
Bahadurpur		96,012	Kawarpur		406,000
Bahānagar	••	91,630	«Kasargāon		258,742
Badalkā	•••	71,564	Gopálnaga	r	233,160

Sarkar of Tajpur-Contd.

Goghra .	Dāms. 147,392		•••	Dāms. 147,510
Mahur (mist.		Yusuf	•••	146,240
Mahon)		1	•••	
Nilnagar (Nilpu	r) 267,612	Zakāt (tax)	•••	78, 48 7
	•	Chorāghāt.		
84 m	hals. Rev.	8,083,072½ d	āms.	
Castes, var	ious. Cavalı	ry, 900. Elep	hants,	50.
	Infantry,	, 32,800.		
	Dāms.	ı		Dāms.
Adhwā	. 91,292	Banwārkājar	•••	4,452
Andhar	. 75,010	Belghāti	• • •	3,245
Andalgāon	. 154,337	Bāzār Chhatā	ghāt	387
Anwarbān	. 31,022	Palāsbāri ¹		
Algāon	. 171,695	Panch Malka	٠	5,340
Ambathurā, Abt	hurā 25,326	Tulsighāt	•••	16 4 ,3 4 0
Ahmadābād	10 217	Taalluq Husa	ain	35,410
Anbalāgāchhi	. 9,200	,, Bäln	āth	27,962
Anwar Malik	. 8,020	,, Siwā		15,490
Al Hat	7 500 !	,, Kasā	i	15,267
Ilāhdādpur	0.100	Tāchahal	• • •	8,290
Bāzu Zafar Shāh	i.	Taalluq Ahm	ad	
2 mahals	735,835	Khān		238,475
Bāzu Faulād Shā		Hāmilā		6,580
Bāgdwār	100 440	Khairābādi	• • •	5,602
Phulbāri	6 500	Khāsbāri	• • •	2,735
Barbakpur	04.000	Rungpur [Ru		
Bāmanpur	0.40 0.50	Sultanpur		108,377
Town of Nasrata	,	Sikhshahar ²		93,071
bād	226 445	Säthipur	•••	49,570
Barsalā	933 880	Sirhata	•••	344,097
Bari Sābakbālā	146,767	Sabdi		206,224
,, Ghorāghāt	165,827	Sitpur		128,775
Bāyazidpur	144,227	Siriyā Kāndi	•••	24,622
Pätäldeh	41,365	Sāghāt	•••	16,412
Balka	30,335	Sherpur Koib	āri	,
Bholi	12,040	(S. Kafurā)		15,675
Bājpatāri	7,900	Fathpur	•••	353,355
	,			-

¹ In text figures wanting, G. has 7,000. Var. 5,340 a Var. Sabtakah, Beshekh, Silah. T. Sankha.

Sarkar of Ghoraghat-Contd.

		Dāms.			Dāms.
Khetāri	1,	344,280	Korā, receipts	S	
Gayapur	•••	107,205	from Zakāt	•••	18,000
Kābulpur	•••	98,465	Kokaran	••••	13,120
Ganj Sākhm	īālā	98,465	Kābul		11,690
Khadkhadi		81,565	Garhiya	•••	10,980
Gokul	***	56,865	Gokanpārā	•••	9,850
Kothi Bāri 2	mahals	48,807	Magatpur	•••	124,005
Khalsi	• • •		Muhabbatpur		46,512
Kandibāri -	• • •	125,797	Musjid Husai	n Shāi	hi 28,945
Kuli Bāzār,	com-		,, Andar Malāir	khāni	3,447
monly Jorg	puri	115,680	Malāir		24,800
Gobindpur A	Akhand	40,675	Nandahra		61,050
Kanhtāl ³	• • •		Naupāra		19,202
Kanak Sakh	ar		Nahajaun Bā		49,010
Ghātnagar	•••		Wakar Hazir	• • • •	30,646
Kawa Gachl	hi		Wachhi		16,832
Kālibāri	• • •	24,847	' Wahrib	•••	4,230

Sarkar of Pinjarah.*

21 mahals. Rev. 5,803,275 dams.

Castes, various, Cavalry, 50. Infantry, 7,000.

Castes, various.	Cavan	J, 00. IIIIIII J, 1,	
	Dāms.		Dāms.
Ambāri A*	058,725 36,525 101,882	Suburban district of Pinjarah Digha	93,967 146,837
/2 m. mm 8 L	635,390 719,107	Deopārā (Deorā)	107,727
Bijānagar A* · Bāyazidpur A* Baharnagar	255,445 119,720	Sadharbāri (?Jharbari)	273,045
Bāri Gher Bādughar	84,277	gacha)	251,410 203,292
(? Balurhat)	55,205	Sultänpur A* Sāsber A* Sulaimānābād	165,180 42,532
Chaloon (Hālon)	374,490 82,142	Khattā (?Khetlāl) Kedābāri†	777,255 213,382
<i>7</i>	-		

^{*}Var. (sătrăl, G. Gautnăll.

*Pinjarali, evidently a coprist's error. No such name in any map.

Tieffeuthaler reads Bijara.

† Cannot be Godăgări. May be Kâmdevpur.

2 mahals

Sarkār of Bārhakāhād.

38 mahals. Rev. 17,451,532 dams.

Cavalry, 50. Infantry, 7,000. Castes, various. Dāms. $oldsymbol{D}ar{a}ms$. Amrul 560,382 Shikarpur A* ... 327,342 City of above-Sherpur and Bahāmmentioned (Bārpur, 2 mahals A* 391,625 315,340 bakābād) Tähirpur A* 505,825 Basuoul (Bāsdol) Oāzihatti A* 620.477 ... A* ... 190.885 Kardoho A* 1,390,572 ... Polärhär 136,712 1,296,240 Guzrhät Pustu (Bastol) A* 652,367 881,080 Khās 64,335 Barbariyā Ganj known **as** Bangāon 319,000 Jagdal A* 694,655 Pältäpur A* 179,840 . . . Chhandiva Bāzu 755,522 Gobindpur 410,535 . . . Kāligāe Kotha ... 341,057 Chaurā A* 159,832 Jeasindh (Jahāsand) Khurael (Kharāl) and Chaugaon, **A** * 210.132

129,550 Kodānagar Chāndlāi (Iandlāi) Kāligaon (Kaligāe) 289,340 A* 196,932 Janāsu (? Jhankur) Laskarpur 255,090 85,787 **A*** Mājilpur (Mālji-Suburb. district of

925,680

689,712

pur) Sukh Shahar 1,629,175 Mosida (Masdhā) Dhāmin (Dhārman) 350,895 A* **A***

407,007

594,792 Dāudpur A* 8,902 Man Samāli Sankārdal, com-Mahmudpur 124,532 389,975 Wazirpur 169,190 monly Nizāmpur

Sarkar of Bazuha.

32 mahals. Rev. 39,516,871 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 1,700. Elephants, 10.

Infantry, 5,300.

760,667 Bhoriya Bāzu ... 2,820,740 Alap Shāhi Badmār, Nasiat | Bhawal Bazu ... 1,935,160 Shāhi, Mehrau-.,178,140 Partāb-Bāzu ... 1,881,265 Kāhāi-Bakhariya Bazu 1,715,170 wana, Sirali. 5 mahals Husain Shāhi ... 182,750

Sarkar of Bazuha-Contd.

	Dāms.	Ď=
Dashkāhaniyā		Shāh Ajiyāl Bāzu 405,120
Bāzu	1,945,602	Shāh Ajiyāl Bāzu 405,120
	1,901,202	Zafar Ajiyal Bāzu 250,047
	1,901,202	Katārmal Bāzu 2,804,390
Salim Partāb		Khatā Bāzu 137,720
Bāzu, Chānd		Mihmān Shāhi,
Partāb Bāzu.	4,625,475	known as Sherp-
Sultān Bāzu		pur Murcha 2,207,715
		Mumin Singh,
Sonāghāti Bāzu	1,910,440	Mount Chat:
Sonā Bāzu	1,705,290	Nasrat Shāhi,
44.14.4	1,484,320	Husain Singh, 1,867,640
_	1,303,020	Nasrat Ajiyal
Dues on produce		4 mahals
and piscary of	!	Mubarak Ajiyal 468,780
rivers, tanks,		
&c.	261,280	Hariyāl Bāzu 344,440
	201,200	Yusuf Shāhi 1,670,900

Sarkar of Sonargaon.

52 mahals. Rev. 10,331,333 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 1,500. Elephants, 200.

Infantry, 46,000.

	Dāms.		Dāms.
Uttar Shahpur	388,442	Chhokhandi, from	
Al Jihāt	53,090	shop dues	17,827
Uttar Usmanpur	24,880	Chand Bāzār	30,322
Bikrampur		Chandpur	120,000
Bhulwa-jowar	1,331,480	Suburban district	240,000
Baldākhāl	694,090	of Sonargaon with	
Bawāliyā	237,320	city	459,532
Barchandi	120,100	Khizrpur	40,308
Bāth Karā	4,080	Dohār	458,524
Palās-ghāti, &c.	43,265	Dänderä	421,380
Baradivā		Dakhin Shahpur	239,910
Phulari	•	Dilāwarpur : 1e-	,
Pānhatta		ceipts from zakāt	127,207
Torā		Dakhin Usmanpur	8,840
Tājpur		Raepur	4,535
Tarki		Sekhargāon	340,365
Jogidiyā	512,080		184,780
Environs of Port		Salimpur	91,090

Sarkar of Sonargaon—Contd.

burner of Bonarguon Conta.						
		Dāms.	1		Dāms.	
Sālisari wi	th pro-		Kothri (Koth	ari)	35,160	
duce and	piscary		Gāthi Nadhi	(G.		
of rivers,	tanks,		Danai)		20,000	
&c., raiya	ti* and		Mehrkol	• • •	1,039,470	
the like	•••	40,724	Muazzampur	•••	236,830	
Sakhwā fro	m raiyati	280,000	' Mehār	•••	60,800	
,, ,,	sāir dues	28,000	Manoharpur	• • •	53,301	
Sakhādia	•••	28,000	Mahijāl		25,000	
Sejoāl†	•••	13,000	Narāenpur, f			
Shamspur	•••	22,000	sāir dues, za	ıkāt		
Kerāpur	• • •	293,402	and raiyati		940,760	
Gardi	•••	89,590	Nāwākot	• • •	16,080	
Kārtikpur	• • •	80,000	Hamtā Bāzu	• • •	281,280	
Khāndi	• • •	40,140	Hāt Ghāti	• • •	10,285	

Sarkar of Sylhet.

8 mahals. Rev. 6,681,308 dams.

Castes, various, Cavalry, 1.100. Elephants, 190. Infantry, 42,920.

	$D\bar{a}ms$.		$m{D}ar{a}m{m}s$.
Partābgarh, called		Suburban district	
also Panjkhand	370,000		2,290,717
Bania Chang	1 672 080	Sarkhandal .	390,472
		Laur	
Bajwa Biyāju	804,080	Harnagār, raiyat	
Jesa (Jaintiya?)	272,200	and säir	1,010,857

Sarkar of Chittagong.

7 mahals. Rev. 11,424,310 dams.

Caste	es, vario	us. Cavalr	y, 100. Inta	antry,	1,500.
		Dāms.	:		Dāms.
Tālāgāon	?Māl-		Sulaimänpu	ir, com	-
gaon]	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	506,000	monly Shai	khpur	1,572,400
Chātgāon	(Chitta-		Sāir dues		
gong)	(011111111	6,649,410	salt-pits		737,520
.5	•••			• • •	5,079,340
Deogaon	•••	775,540	Nawāpārā	•••	703,300

^{*} Applied in Bengal to lands of which the revenue is paid in money in opposition to khamār lands of which revenue was paid in kind; also to a settlement direct with the cultivators. Wilsop's Gloss. + G. and var. Sabarchal,

Sarkār of Sharifābād.

26 mahals. Rev. 2,488,750 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 200. Infantry, 5,000.

Dāms.	Dāms.
Burdwan 1,876,142	Suburban district
Bahror 1,736,795	of Sherpur Atāi 816,068
Barbaksail 540,395	Azmatpur 1,660,045
Bharkondah, and	Fath Singh 2,096,460
Akbharshāhi,	Husain Ajiyāl 393,345
com mon ly	Kargāon 348,260
Sāndal, 2 mahals 1,276,195	Kiratpur 225,775
Bāghā 509,340	Khand [Ghosh] 196,380
Bhātsilā 307,340	Khanga 174,360
Bāzār Ibrāhimpur 15,740	Kodrā 63,125
Janki 937,705	Mahland 1,831,890
Khot Makand 2,315	1
Dhaniyan 1,508,850	
Sulaimān Shāhi 721,335	Nasak 782,517
Soniyā 90,370	Natrān 203,560

Sarkār of Sulaimānābād.

31 mahals. Rev. 17,629,964 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 100. Infantry, 5,000.

Cubica,			•		
		Dāms.			Dāms.
Indarāin		592,120	Husainpur	• • •	355,090
Ismāilpur		184,540	Dharsah	•••	95,250
Anliya	• • •	124,577	Rāenah	•••	68,257
Ulā		89;277	Suburban	district	
Basandhari	•••	2,266,280	of Sula	imānā-	
Bhursat		1 200 000	bād	• • •	
Panduah	•••	1,823,292	Sātsikā†	• • •	757,111
Pächnor	•••	601,495	Sahspur	•••	314,842
Bāli Bhangā	2		Sanghauli	•••	72,747
mahals*		417,185	Sultanpur	•••	44,575
Chhotipur	•••	554,956	Umarpur	• • •	223,320
Chumhā	• • •	455,901	Aălampur	•••	38,280
Jaipur		44,250	Qabazpur	•••	747,200
)					

There is a Bāli Dunga in Nadiya. † G. and var. Satsanga. Note-Now in the district of Bardwan,

Sarkār of Sulaimānābād-contd.

	Dāms.	1		$Dar{a}ms$.
Gobinda (Kosada?)	357,942	Molghar	•••	792,107
Receipts from in-		Nagin	•••	910,990
dependent taluq-		Nāirā	•••	872,945
dārs	213,067	Nasang	•••	500,765
Muhammadpur	48,515	Nabiya [?]	Nipā]	77,017

Sarkar of Sätgaon.

53 mahals. Rev. 16,724,724 dāms.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 50. Infantry, 6,000.

	Dāms.	Dāms.
Banwa, Kotwāli,	Duris.	Sādghāti 468,058
Farāsatghar, (?)		C-1-47 004 070
8 mahals	1,540,770	C ' - '
7 74 -	726,360	Sāir dues from
		1
Anwarpur	236,950	Bandarbān and
Arsa Tāwāli † Sāt-		Mandawi, 2
gāon 2 mahals	234,890	mahals 1,200,000
Akbārpur	115,590	Sākhāt, Kātsāl, 2
Bodhan	956,457	mahals 45,757
Panwān and		Fāthpur 80,702
Salimpur	952,505	Calcutta, Bakoya††
Purah	652,470	Bārbakpur, 3
Barmhattar and		mahals 936,215
Mānikhatti	383,803	Khārar 365,275
Belgāon	233,602	Kandāliyā 242,160
Bālindā	125,250	Kalarua 197,522
Bāgwān and	•	Magrā 801,302
Bangābāri	100,000	Matiyāri 307,845
Baliya	94,725	Medni Mal 186,242
Phalkā	38,245	Muzaffarpur 108,332
Baridhati	25,027	Mundagāchhā 98,565
/m	36,604	M=1:1-4: 40.00%
TT 11 (31 1	502,330	Nadiya and Sān-
	•	
Husainpur	324,322	_
Hājipur, Bārbak-	140 800	Helki 90,042
pur, 2 mahals	142,592	Hāthi Kandhā 55,702
Dhuliyapur	78,815	Hatiyagarh 781,360
Ranihāt	1,358,510	

[†] Can it be A'rsa havell-e-Sätgän? []. Sarkar].
†† G. and var. Makuma Calcutta is unlikely. I prefer the variant in
text Kains []. S.]

Sarkār of Mandāran.

16 mahals. Rev. 9,403,400 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 150. Infantry, 7,000.

	Dāms.			Dāms.
Panihatti	122,655	Shergarh, co	m-	
Bagri (Bālgarhi)		monly Sikh		
R*	937,077	bhum		915,237
Birbhum	541,245	Shāhpur	• • •	634,160
Dhawalbhum (mis.		•	•••	-
Bawal)	495,220	Ket	•••	46,447
Chitwā A*	806,542	Mandalghāt	•••	906,775
Champanagari	412,250	Nāgor¶		4,025,620
Suburban district	•	3 "	•••	_, ,
of Mandāran	1.727.077	Minakbāg (T.		
Sin[g]bhum	615,805	Mansapāt)	•••	279,322
Samar Sanhas	•	Hesla (mist.	•	
(Sarhat)	274,461	Hesoli) A*	•••	263,207

Orissa.

Sarkar of Jalesar.

28 mahals. Rev. 5,052,738 dams.

Castes, various. Elephants, 2. Cavalry, 3,470.

Infantry 43,810.

	Dām.		Dāms.
Bansanda, commonly Haft- chor has five strong forts. Castes, Khandait Brahman, and Bhijia	4 211,430	Parbagā. Cav 400, Inf. 1,600; has a strong fort, partly on a hill, partly tenced by forest.	640,000
Cavalry, 100. Infantry, 5,500 Bibli 'P-pli') Cavalry, 10. Infantry, 40 Bali Shahi Cav 200. Inf.	2,001,436	Bhograi, has a fortress of great strength; Caste Kaundall, Cav. 100, Inf. 2,200, suchers and matchlockmen.	497,140
2,000 Bātkoshi, has three forts: 1, Sokrah 2, Bānhas Tali, 3, Daddhpur Cav. 20, 1nf. 300	963,430 /56,220	Eagri, Rajfut, Cav. 100, (iif. 200	39.428 125,720 114,208

Teor Nagor T. reads Magor. We know of a Nagar of Birbhum. For Mandalghat, Rennell gives Mangalgalla, a little south of the Ajay river, and Atlas Mangalkot. Hesia is eight miles west by south of Purulia town, but one ms. reads Mahisdal.

Sarkār of Jalesar-contd.

Dāms.		Dāms.
Taliya with town of Jalesar, has a brick fort. Caste, Khandatt,	Kāsijorā, Cav. 200, Inf. 2,500, matchlock and bowmen.	893,160
Cav. 300, Inf. 6,250. / Tamluk Cav. 50, Inf. 1,000, has a strong fort, Khandait 2,571,430	Kharagpur, a strong fort in the wooded hills, 500 footmen and machiock- men.	528,570
Tarkua: a fort in the jungle, Cav. 30, Inf. 170 720,570 Dāwar Shorbhum. com-)	Kedārkhand, three strong forts, Cav. 50, Inf. 500 Karāi, Infantry 100	468,570 285,720
ly Bārah, Cav. 100, Inf. 1,342,360	Gagnāpur, Rajput, Cav. 50, Inf. 400 Karohi*	85,720 68,570
Ramuna, has five forts, 1 adjacent to city; 2, Ramchandpur; 3 Rabgā; 4, Dut; 5, Saldah, Cav.	Māljhata, Cav. 500, Inf. 5,000 Mednipur, a large city	9,312,610
700, Inf. 3,500, hold the five. Rayn, on the border of Orissa, has three forts, 218,806	with two forts, one ancient and the other modern. Caste Khan-	1,019,930
Cav. 150, Inf. 1,500. Räepur, a large city, with a strong fortress, Cav. 200, Inf. 1,000.	Mahākānghāt commonly Qutbpur, a fortress of great strength, Cav. 30, Inf. 1,000.	240,000
Sabang, strong fort in the jungle, Cav. 100, Inf. 1,257,140 2,000. Kesiari 108,570	Naräinpur, commonly Kan- dhär, with a strong fort on a hill, Cav. 100, Inf.	2,280,860

Sarkar of Bhadrak.

7 mahals. Rev. 18,687,170 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 750. Infantry, 3,730.

	Dāms.		Dāms.
Barwa, two strong fort- resses, Bānak and Raskoi, castes, Khan-	3,240,000	Sahansu, 2 strong forts, Khandait, Cav. 300, Inf. 1,700.	3,514,280
dait, and Kāyath, Cav. 50, Inf. 400.	57,140	Kāaimān, a strong fort of the greatest strength, Khandait, Cav. 100, Inf. 400.	1,515,840
January	,	Kadsu	730,430
Suburban district of Bhadrak, has a fort called Dhamnagar, with a resident governor, Khandall, Cav. 200, Inf. 3,800.	9,542,780	Independent Talukdārs; three forts, Pachchhim Dik, Khandait, and Ma- jori, Cav. 100, Inf. 300; the three forts, held by Khandaits.	85,720

^{*}G. and ver. Kerauli.

Sarkar of Katak (Cuttack.)

21 mahals. Rev. 91,432,730 dams.

Castes, various. Cavalry, 900. Infantry, 108,160.

	Dāms.		Dāms.
X1, Inf. 2,100	6,429,130	Jash commonly Jājpur, a)	
Asakah, Inf. 15,000	3,160,380	strong fort, Brahman,	2,073,780
Athgarh, with a strong)		Cav. 200, Inf. 1,800.	
fort, Brahman, Cav. 200, Inf. 7,000.	1,184,980	Dakhin Dik, 4 forts, Cav. }	22,065,770
Purab Dik, four forts,		Sirān	207,830
Cav. 200, Inf. 6,000 Pachchim Dik, Cav. 100,	22,881,580	Shergarh, Brāhman, Cav. }	1,408,580
Inf. 50,000	662,490 5,129,820	Kotdesh with three forts, the original fort, Kasi-	4 720 000
Bashi Diwarmar, Inf.	2,746,650	bagh, Caste, Khandait, Cav. 5,008, Inf. 300.	4,720,980
Barang, 9 forts, among the hills and jungles, Caste,	2,132,940	Katak Banāres, suburban district with city, has a	
ahir, Cav. 20, Inf. 300. Bhijnagar with strong		stone fort of great strength, and a masonry	605,600
fort, Telingha, Cav. 50, Inf. 22,000.	860,390		000,000
Banju, Rajput, Cav. 100,		Inf. 1,000.	
Inf. 20,000	866,206 691,530	Khatrah, with strong fortress, Khandaits,	1.120,230
Chaubiskot, 4 forts of		Cav. 100, Inf. 400.	,
great strength, Cav. 500, Inf. 20,000.	2,398,970		600,000

Sarkār of Kaling Dandpāt.

27 mahals: Rev. 5,560,000 dams.

Cavalry, 500. Infantry, 30,000.

Sarkar of Raj Mahendrih.

16 mahals. Rev. 5,00,000 dāms.

Cavalry, 1,000. Infantry, 5,000.

A general view of the country having now been cursorily given, I proceed to record the succession of its rulers and the duration of their reigns. Twenty-four princes of the Khatri caste, kept assume the torch of

sovereignty from father to son in succession during 2418 years.

Rājā Bhagda	t. Khat	ri		Sadhrak	reigned		91
- tuju - 21148 ttm	reigned	_	218	Jaydhrak	• •	•••	102
Anangbhim	•		175	Udai Singh	"	• • •	85
	"	•••			,,	• • •	
Ranghim	,,	•••	108	Bisu Singh	,,		88
Gajbhim	,,	• • •	82	Birmāth	1,		- 88
Deodat	,,	• • • •	95	Rukhdeva	,,		81
ag Singh	,,		106	Rāklıbind	• •		
Barmah Sing		• • • •	97	(Rukhnand)	• •		79
Mohandat	,,	•••	102	Jagjiwan	,,		107
Benod Singh	,,	•••	97	Käludand	11		85
ilar Sen	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • •	96	Kāmdeva	,,		90
attarjit	,,		101	Bijai Karn	,,	• • •	71
Bhupat	,,	•••	90	Sat Singh	"	•••	89
Nine princes	of the	Kā	veth	caste ruled in	i sitores	ion	520

years after which the sovereignty passed to another

Vanua

Käyeth house. Vague

		1	eurs.		I (ears.
Rājā Bhoj G	auriya			Rājā Jaint reigned	•••	60
	reigned	•••		Pirthu Rajā ,,	•••	52
Lälsen	,,	•••		Rājā Grrar ,,		45
Rājā Madhu	• • •	• • •	67		• • •	50
Samantbhoj	,,,	•••	40)	", Nandbhoj ",	• • •	53

Eleven princes reigned in succession 714 years, after which another Kāyeth family bore rule.

				ears.				Y	ears.
Rājā	Udsur, (A	disur gned	·)	75	Rājā	Rukdeva Giridhar	**	•••	62
**	Jāmani-					rei	gned		80
	bhān	,,	•••	73	,,	Pirthidhar	.,,	•••	68
73	Unrud	3 4	•••	78	,,	Shisht-			
2.2	Partāb					dhar		• • •	58
	Rudr	9.9	•••	65	,,	Prabhākar	,,	•••	63
,,,	Bhawdāt	• •	•••	69	,,	Jaidhar	,,	•••	23

Ten princes reigned 698 years, after which the sway of another Kayeth family was established.

			ears.			Y	ears.
Rājā	Bhopāl reigi	ned	55	Rājā Bigan	(Bijan)	1.	,u13.
,,	Dillipai ,	,	95	pāl,	reigned		75
"	Devapāl ,, Bhupati-	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	83	,, Jaipāl Rājpāl	"	•••	98 98
	pāl ,, Dhanpati-	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	70	Bhogpāl, his brother	,,	•••	5
,,	pāl "	,	45	Jagpāl, his	,,	•••	
				son	,,	•	74

Seven princes governed in succession during 160 years.

Years.	Years.		
Sukh Sen reigned 3	Madhu Sen reigned.	10	
		15	
built the fort	Sada (Sura)		
of Gaur ,, 50		18	
Lakhan (Lachhman)	Rājā Nāujah	•	
Sen ,, 7.	(?Buddha-sen),,	3	

Sixty-one princes thus reigned for the space of 4,544 years when Bengal became subject to the Kings of Delhi.
From the time of Sultan Outb u' ddin Arbak to Sultan Muhammad Tughlaq Shāh 17 governors ruled during a period of 156 years.

These were followed by--

А.Н.	A.D.		Y	eurs.	Months
741	1340	Malik Fakhr'uddin Silāhdār,			
					some
743	1342		• • •		. 3
744	1343	Shamsu'ddin Bhangarah Ilyas	• • •	_	**
760	1358	Sikandar (Shāh) his son			11
769	1367	Sultan Ghiyasu'ddin his son	•••		13
775	1373	Sultān 'us Salātin, his son			0
785	1383	Shamsu'ddin, his son		3	some
787	1385	Kānsi native of Bengal		7	0
794	1900	Sultān Jalālu'ddin	•••	17	0
	1400	Sultān Ahmad, his son			0
812	1409	Näsir his slave, a week or ac	cord	ling t	o others,
		*+ Mnst seen near al		ha	lf a day.

A.H. A.D.

890 1426-7 Nasir Shah, descendant of Sham-

Years Months.

COO	TAM-I	masii Shall, descendant o	onam-
		su'ddin Bhangarah	32
862	1457	Bārbak Shāh	17 0
879	1474	Yusuf Shāh	7 0
887	1482	Sikandar Shāh	half a day
887	1482	Fath Shāh	7 5
896	1490	Bārbak Shāh	two and a half days.
897	1491	Firoz Shāh	3 0
899	1494	Mahmud Shah, his son	1 0
900	1495	Muzaffar Habshi	3 5
903	1498	Alāu'ddin	27 (?). some
927		Nasrat Shāh, his son	11 (?)
94 0	1534	Mahmud Shah, son of Ala	u'd defeated by
944		Sher Khān.	
945	1538	Humayun (held his court	at Gaur).
		Sher Khan, a second time	•
952		Muhammad Khān.	
		Bahādur Shāh, his son.	
968		Jalālu'ddin, his brother.	
Not	in U.	r. { Ghiyāsu'ddin. Tāj Khān.	
		Sulaimān (Karāni), his br	other.
		Bāyazid, his son.	
		Daud, his brother (defeate	ed by Akbar's forces).

Fifty princes ruled during about 357 years and one hundred and eleven kept alive the torch of sovereignty throughout the period, approximately, of 4,813 years and

passed into the sleep of dissolution.

The first Rājā, (Bhagadatta) came to Delhi by reason of his friendship for Rājā Durjodhan, and fell manfully fighting in the war of the Mahābhārat, 4,096 years previous to the present time. When the cup of life of Rājā Naujah [correct into Rājāh of Nodia] overflowed, the sovereignty fell to Lakhmaniya, son of Rāe Lakhman. Nadiyā was at that time the capital of Bengal and the seat of various learning. Nowadays its prosperity has somewhat abated but the traces of its erudition are still evident. The astrologers predicted the overthrow of his kingdom and the establishment of another faith and they discovered in Muhammad Bakhtiyār Khilji the individual by whom these two events would be accomplished. Although the Rājā regarding these as idle tales refused to credit them, many

of his subjects sought refuge in distant provinces. At the time when Qutbu'ddin Aibak held India for Shahābu'ddin, the Khilji took possession of Bihār by force of arms, and when he marched upon Bengal, the Rājā, escaped in a boat. Muhammad Bakhtiyar, entered Bengal and having amassed enormous plunder, he destroyed the city of Nadiyā and transferred the capital to Lakhnauti. From that time Bengal has been subject to the kings of Delhi.

During the reign of Sultan Tughlaq, Qadar Khan was viceroy in Bengal. Malik Fakhru'ddin his sword-bearer through greed of power, disloyally determined upon the death of his master and plotting in secret, slew him and with pretentious allegations fraudfully possessed himself of the government and refused allegiance to the sovereigns of Delhi. Malik Ali Mubārak, who had been one of the principal adherents of Qadar Khān, assumed the title of Alāu'ddin and rose against Fakhru'ddin, and taking him alive in action, put him to death. Hāji lliyās 'Alāi, one of the nobles of Bengal, entering into a confederacy with some others, slew him and took the title of Shamsu'ddin. He is also called Bhangrah. Sultan Firoz set out from Delhi to chastise him and a severe struggle ensued, but as the rainy season was approaching, he concluded a hasty treaty and returned. When Shamsu'ddin died, the chiefs of the army raised his eldest son to the throne under the title of Sikandar Shāh. Sultān Firoz again marched into Bengal but retreated after arranging terms of peace. On Sikandar's death his son was elected to succeed him and was proclaimed under the title of Ghiyasu'ddin. Khwajah Hafiz of Shiraz sent him an ode in which occurs the following verse:

And now shall India's parroquets on sugar revel all, In this sweet Persian lyric that is borne to far Bengal.

A native of Bengal named Kānsi fraudfully dispossessed Shamsu'ddin who was his [Ghiyās-ud-din's] grandson. When he died, his son embraced Islām and took the name of Sultān Jalālu'ddin. It was the custom in that country for seven thousand footmen called Pāyiks to patrol round the palace. One evening a cunuch conspiring with these guards slew Fath Shah and assumed the title of Bārbak Shāh.

Firoz Shāh was also slain by these guards and his son Mahmud was raised to the sovereignty. An Abyssinian slave Muzaffar with the assistance of the same guards put him to death and mounted the throne. Alāu'ddin, an

attendant of Muzaffar, in turn, in conspiracy with these guards despatched his master and established himself in power. Thus through the caprice of fortune, these low footsoldiers for a considerable time played an important part in the state. Alāu'ddin placed the administration of justice on a better footing and disbanded the Pāyiks. Nasrat Shah is said to have followed the example of his father in his justice and liberality and treated his brothers with consideration. When Sultan Ibrahim (Lodi) met his death in the engagement with Sultan Bābar, [1526] his brother and the chiefs of the army took refuge with this monarch and lived in security. Humayun appointed Jahangir Quli Beg to the governorship of the province. When Sher Khan a second time rose to power, he beguiled Jahangir under pretext of an amicable settlement and put him to death. During the reign of Salim Khān (at Delhi) Muhammad Khān his kinsman, united loyalty to his lord with justice to his subjects. When he fell in action against Mamrez Khān, his son Khizr Khān succeeded him and assumed the title of Bahadur Shah. Mamrez Khan entered the field against him but perished in battle. Tāj Khān [Karrāni] one of the nobles of Salim Khān, slew Jalālu'ddin and assumed the government. His younger brother Sulaimān, although of a tyrannous disposition, reigned for some time, after which his sons Bāyazid and Dāud through misconduct dishonoured the royal privileges of the mint and the

pulpit. Thus concludes my abstract.

Praise be to God, that this prosperous country receives an additional splendour through the justice of imperial

majesty.

THE SUBAH OF BIHAR.

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from Gadhi to Rhotās is 120 kos; its breadth from Tirhut to the northern mountains, 110 kos. On its eastern boundary is Bengal; to the west lie Allahabad and Oudh. On the north and south it is bounded by hills of considerable elevation. Its chief rivers are the Ganges and the Son. Whatever of wood or leather and the like falls into the Son. becomes petrified. The head springs of these three rivers, the Son. the Narbada and the Johila, bubble up from a single reedbed* in the neighbourhood of Gadha [Mandla]. The Son

^{*}The three great rivers, Narmadā. Son and Mahānadi, rise in a sacred pond at the Amar-Kantak, a village in the Rewā State, only three miles from

is pleasant to the taste, wholesome and cool: flowing in a northerly direction, it joins the Ganges near Maner. The Gandak flows from the north and unites with the Ganges near Hājipur. Such as drink of it suffer from a swelling in the throat, (goitre) which gradually increases, especially in young children, to the size of a cocoanut.

The Sāligrām† is a small black stone which the Hindus account among divine objects and pay it great veneration. If round and small and unctuous, they hold it in the highest regard and according to the variety of its form, different names and properties are ascribed to it. The generality have a single perforation, others more and some are without any. They contain gold ore. Some say that a worm is bred within which eats its way through; others maintain that it works its way in from the outside. The Hindus have written a considerable work on the qualities of this stone. According to the Brahmanical creed, every idol that is broken loses its claim to veneration, but with these, it is not so. They are found in the Son for a distance of 40 kos between its northernmost extremity and the south of the hills.

The Karamnāsa flowing from the south unites with the Ganges near Chausā. Its waters are regarded with aversion. The Punpun flows also from the south and joins

the eastern border of the Gark Mandlä district of the C.P., where the Maikāl range begins. The Johillā, a very small river, is really a feeder of the Son and, after flowing north and west from its source for a little more than a hundred miles as a thin atream, loses itself in the Son, in the north-west corner of the Rewä State, 13 miles east of Bandhu-garh. It should not, therefore, be counted as separate from the Son, which does not really rise from the same tank at Amar-Kantak but some distance to the east of it. The third great river with its source at the same place is the Mahānadi, which Abul Fazl has entirely left out. The Mahānadi flowing eastward across half the breadth of the Indian peninsula, falls into the Bay of Bengal in Orissa. the breadth of the Indian peninsula, falls into the Bay of Bengal in Orissa, more than 1800 miles from the mouth of its twin-sister the Narmada, in the Arabian sea, though both rivers started from the same cradle.

Arabian sea, though both rivers started from the same cradle.

The sacred tank at Amar-Kantak is 8 yards long and 6 yards wide, and surrounded by a brick-wall. It is situated 90 miles due east of Mandla city. (Tieffenthaler quoting an English engineer's report). "The Narmada in issuing from its source is only one yard in breadth. The Son is visible only for a distance of half a mile from the tank, and then it descends in a waterfall 25 yards high, and after a course of five miles, it loses itself in the sand, but newly acquiring greater volume it (finally) becomes a large river." (Tieffenthaler, i, 416-417.) The Son used to fall into the Ganges near Maner, when Rennell made his survey (Bangal Atlas, 1772), but the junction is now about ten miles higher up, at Koilwar (Rl. Stn.) Jadunath Sarkar.

† A species of black quartrose found in the Gandhak containing the impression of one or more ammonites conceived by the Hiudus to represent Vishnu. This river is also known as the Sälgirām.

Vishnu. This river is also known as the Sälgiräm.

Its name signifies the ruin of religious merit. No person of any caste will drink its waters. The reason of its impurity is said to be that a Brahman having been murdered by a Raja of the Solar line, a saint purified him of his sins by collecting water from all the streams of the world and washing him

the Ganges near Patna. The smaller rivers of this Subah cannot be recorded. The summer months are intensely hot, while the winter is temperate. Warm garments are not worn for more than two months. The rains continue during six months and throughout the year the country is green and fertile. No severe winds blow nor clouds of dust prevail. Agriculture flourishes in a high degree, especially the cultivation of rice which, for its quality and quantity is rarely to be equalled. Kisāri² is the name of a pulse, resembling peas, eaten by the poor, but is unwholesome. Sugarcane is abundant and of excellent quality. Betel-leaf, especially the kind called Maghi, is delicate and beautiful in colour, thin in texture, fragrant and pleasant to the taste. Fruits and flowers are in great plenty. At Maner, a flower grows named Muchakand, somewhat like the flower of the Dhātura, very fragrant and found nowhere else. Milk is rich in quality and cheap. The custom of dividing the crops is not here prevalent. The husbandman pays his rents in person and on the first occasion presents himself in his best attire. The houses for the most part are roofed with tiles. Good elephants are procurable in plenty and boats likewise. Horses and camels are scarce. Parrots abound and a fine species of goat of the Barbary breed which they castrate: from their extreme fatness they are unable to walk and are carried on litters. The fighting cocks are famous. Game is abundant. Gilded glass is manufactured here.

In the Sarkar of Bihar, near the village of Rajgir is a quarry of stone resembling marble, of which ornaments are made. Good paper is here manufactured. Gaya the place of Hindu pilgrimage, is in this province: it is also called Brahma Gayā being dedicated to Brahma. Precious stones from foreign ports are brought here and a constant traffic carried on.

In the Sarkar of Hajipur the fruits Kathal and Barhal grow in abundance. The former attain such a size that a man can with difficulty carry one.

Known as the Jack fruit (Artocarpus integrifolia Roxb.). The Barhal according to the dictionary is a small round fruit, also an Artocarpus, doubtfully distinguished as "lacucha."

in their waters which were collected in the spiring from which the Karamnasa now issues. 1. 17.

Lethyrus sativus. Dr. King of the Royal Botanical Gardens, Calcutta, suggests that this may be the Jasminum pubescens. The flower resembles a miniature Dhatura flower and is very fragrant.

In the Sarkār of Champāran the seed of vetch Māsh⁵ is cast on unploughed soil where it grows without labour or tilling. Long pepper grows wild in its forests.

Tirhut has from immemorial time, been a seat of Hindu learning. Its climate is excellent. Milk curds keep for a year without alteration. If those who sell milk adulterate it with water, some mysterious accident befalls them. The buffaloes are so savage that they will attack a tiger. There are many lakes and in one of them the water never decreases, and its depth is unfathomable. Groves of orange trees extend to a distance of thirty kos, delighting the eye. In the rainy season gazelle and deer and tiger frequent together the cultivated spots and are hunted by the inhabitants. Many of these with broken limbs are loosened in an enclosure, and they take them at their leisure.

Rohtās is a stronghold on the summit of a lofty mountain, difficult of access. It has a circumference of 14 kos and the land is cultivated. It contains many springs, and wherever the soil is excavated to the depth of three or four yards, water is visible. In the rainy season many lakes are formed, and more than two hundred waterfalls gladden the eye and ear. The climate is remarkably healthy.

This Subah contains seven Sarkārs subdivided into 199 Parganahs. The gross revenue is 22 krors, 19 lakhs, 19,404½ dāms. (Rs. 55,47,985-1-3). Of these Parganahs, 138, pay revenue in cash from crops charged at special rates. The extent of measured land is 24 lakhs, 44,120 bighus, yielding a revenue of 17 krors, 26 lakhs, 81,774 dāms (Rs. 43,17,044) in cash. The remaining 61 Parganahs are rated at 4 krors, 22 lakhs, 37,630¼ dāms. (Rs. 12,30,940-12-5), out of which 22 lakhs, 72,174 dāms are Suyurghāl (Rs. 56,803-8-10). The province furnishes 11,415 Cavalry, 449,350 Infantry and 100 boats.

Sarkar of Bihar.

Containing 46 Mahals, 952,598 Bighas. Revenue, 80,196,390 dams in cash from special crops, and from land

¹ Phaseolus radiatus.
¹ The term Zabii though originally applied to lands sequestrated by the State, was used of rent free lands subjected to assessment in Bengal, to lands which had been resumed from Jagir grants by Jafar Khāu: in the north-west, to money rents on the more valuable crops, such as sugar, tobacco, and cotton where rent in kind was the rule. Abul Fazi employs it loosely elsewhere for the revenue collection or assessment of a village.

paying the general bigha rate. Suyurghāl, 2,270,147 dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 2,115. Infantry 67,350.

							التناسة حبريني	
			Bighas and Biswas	Revenue Dăm	Cav	. Inf.	Suyurghal Dām	Castes
Arwal			57,089-5	426,780		1000	•••	
Aukhri [?	Khol		140 404 56				•••	1
Ikhal	••		1	335,260		200		Afghān &
					l			Brahman
Amrita		••	24,387-19	1,821,333		•••	16035	Do.
Anbalu	••	••	•••	847,920		250	•••	Brāhman
Anchha		••	10,290-57	6,700,000	20	300	•••	Afghān
Antri			1,998-9	147,980	20	200	***	Kayath
Behar wi		ubur-	1					
ban dist			1			1 1		
fort of	-					1		
brick		••	70,683-9	5,534,151	10	400	653,200	
Bahlawar	• •	••	48,310-3	3,651,640	•••	500	9000	Brähman
Basok	**	••	35,318-18		***	300	1,708,130	Shaikhzādah
Palach	••	••	30,030-18		•••	500	59,185	Brāhman,
Balia	**	forming.	26,000-18	2,056,502	20	400	85,747	Rājput
Patna, has	two	iorts,						
one of								
the othe			21,846-8	1,922,430	***	444	131,807	
Pholwari		• •	20,225-19		20	700	118,120	Rājput
Pahra	••	••	12,285 6	941,160	20	400	18,560	Brāhman
Bhimpur	••	**	10,962-15	824,584	***	***	24,424	
Pandārak	**	••		727,640	300	2000	***	ma 10 0 - m.d.s.
Tilädah Yanan	••	••	39,053-12		20	300	232,080	Shaikhzāda
Jarar Charge	••	••	12,930-10	979,363	50	500	880	Do
Chargāon	•••	••	***	904,440	20	300	***	Brāhman
Jai Champ Dādar		••	•••	620,000	20	600	•••	
Dauar Dhakner	••	••	•••	262,500	***	***	•••	
Buakner Ruh	••	••	***	215,680	• • •		•••	Brāhman
Rumpur	• •	••	***	250,100	20	1500	***	Righman
Rājgir	••	••	9 750 10	363,820	***	***	****	
Sanot	• •	••	3,756-12	288,228	***	***	17,225	
Samāi	••	••	36 780-7	2,824,180	20	500	***	TT Tour Ale
Samai Sahrah	••	••	32,514-3	2,537,080	10	200	62,380	Käyath
S ā ndah			24 500 0	2,079,000	•••	500	***	Rājput, Afghān
Seor, has	a st	rong	24,562-2	1,889,956	***	500	***	Brähman
fort on a			14.145-8	1 250 501	-	2000	į	Distractor
Ghiáspur	***		84,205-7	1,250,591	200	5000	A	
Gidhaur,	has	a	09,200-7	5,657,290	•••	***	227,454	
	ort (Rājput
hill in th		ingle		1 450 500	-			Kajpac
Kātibahra	,.		***	1,452,500	250	10,000	***	
Kābar			7,400-9	737,540 560,875	20	700	•••	Käyath
Guh					30		•••	Rajput
Ghātisār	:.		•	374,880	100	1000	•••	
Karanpur	••	1	***	360,820 363,820	•••	•••	•••	
Gaya	••		951-4	74,270		•••	14 007	
Muner	••		89,039-15	7,049,179	***	***	14,235	
Masodhā	••		68,191-10	4,631,080	•••	•••	325,390	
Māldah	••	• •	28,128-9	2,151,575	100	2000	40 005	Dathara
Manroā	••		7,706-9	585,500	100 20	500	49,805	Brāhman
Maher	••		23,937-19	1,779,540		200	47 200	Do. Do.
Narhat	::	!		2,380,309	5	200	47,700	Kāyath
				-landing	• •	200	***	- ayauii

Sarkar of Monghyr.

Containing 31 Mahals. Revenue 109,625,981 ½ dāms. Castes various, 2,150 Cavalry, 50,000 Infantry.

		B	levenue D.	(R	evenue D.
Abhipur	***	•••	2,000,000	Angu			147.800
Osla	***	•••	89,760	Anbalu			50,000
Bhagalpur	•••	•••	4,696,110	Surajgarh		•••	299,445
Baliā	•••		3,287,320	Sakhrasāni	•••	•••	160,000
Paharkiah	***	***	3,000,000	Satyāri	••-		58,730
Pathrārah	***	•••	140,920	Kahalgāon		•••	2,800,000
Basai	***	***		Kharhi	•••		689,044
Tanur	***	***	88,420	Kozrah	•••		260,602
Chai	***	•••	9,280,000	Khatki	•••	•••	160,000
Chandoi	•••	•••	360,000	Lakhanpur		•••	633,280
Dharmpur		•••	4,000,000	Masjidpur	•••		1,259,750
Dand Sakhv	vārah	•••	136,000	Monghyr and	suburban	dis-	
Rohni		***	95,360	trict	•••		808,9071
Sarohi	***	- 9.0	1,773,000	Masdi	***		29,725
Sukhdehra	•••	***	690,240	Hindui	***		108,000
Saghauli	•••	***	360,000	Hazär taki	•••		9,182
_							

Sarkār of Champāran.

Containing 3 Mahals, 85,711 Bighas, 5 Biswas. Revenue 5,513,420 Dāms, Horsemen, 700. Infantry 30,000.

		B.	&	P.	Dāms					Dāms
Samrun Mehsi	• • •	7,200	23	2	500,095 3,518,435	Majhora	22,415	п	16	1,404,890

Sarkār of Hājipur.

Containing 11 Mahals, 10 Villages, 436,952 Bighas, 15 Biswas. Revenue 27,331,030 dāms.

Basārā Bāligachah Teghra Hājipur with	1 51	58,306 1-	99 93 11 9 -	17 14 7 2 13	624,791 6,380,000 913,669 3,518,354	Rati Saresā Imūdpur Garhsarah Naipur	•••	B. 30,438 102,461 12,987 27,877	25 21 11	13 8 7	Revenue 1,824,980 6,704,300 795,870 876,200 1,663,980	
	1 81	1-	11	13	3,518,354	Naipur	***	27,877	12	9	1,663,98	0

Surkar of Saran.

Containing 17 Mahals. Measured land 229, 052 Bighas, 15 Biswas. Revenue 60,172,004 1/2 dams. Castes various. Cavalry 1.000. Infantry 50,000.

						•		-		-	
		B.	&	В.	Dāms			B.	&	B.	Dāms
Indar		7,218		4	534,990	Pāl	•••	66,320	**	5	4,893,378
Barāri		7,117		10	533,820	Bārā	•••	15,059	>>	3	383,7971
Narhan		8.611		8	654,508	Godah					
Pachlakh		9.266		15	437,997	(Gawā?)	• • • •	28,049		3	2,012,950
Chanend		8,413		13	633,270	Kaliyanpur	***	17,437	•		774,086
Chanbara			••		400,000	Kashunir		16,915			1,314,539
Tuwainah		6,963	**	8	309,285	Mangjhi		8,752		19	611,813
Degsi	•••	5,825			277,630	Mandhal		9,405		7	698,140
Sipāh	••	3,662			290,592	Maker	•••	10,936		14	811,095

Sarkar of Tirhut.

Containing 74 Mahals, Measured land 266,464 Bighas 2 Biswas. Revenue 19,179,777 ½ dāms. Castes various Cavalry 700. Infantry 80,000.

	B.	0.	ъπ	Dama		m	0.	70	Dame
Theorem			B.R		Man=11:	В.	&	B.	Dāms
Ahaspur	4,880	22		302,550		7,171	27	_	443,242
Utarkhand	2,068	"		128,412	Tilokchāwand	2,411	17	.7	149,896
Ahlwār	1,001		1	62,212	Tājpur	1,351	"	14	85,434
Aubhi	n			60,000	Tāndah	1,038	29	4	63,768
Aughārā	836	,,,	15	53,980	Tarson	980	,,	4	61,180
Athāis	559		17	34,356	Tirhut with su-				
Basri &c.,					burban district				1,307,706
4 Mahals		,,,		1,125,000	Jäkhar	17,140	**		1,068,020
Bahrwarah	16,176	,,		942,000	Jarāyal	8,297	.,		515,732
Bānpur	40,347	n		894,792	Chakmani	5,173	11		321,326
Barel	6,185			789,858	Jakhai [-pur]	3,092	33		196,020
Pepra	1,823	,,	18	112,591	Jabdi	,,	,,		45,025
Padri	9,048	**		554,258	Dahror	3,165	.,		202,818
Basotra	8,864	,,		546,627	Darbhanga	2,038	21		159,052
Panchhi	•	• • •		•	Rāmjaund	7,409	•••		470,0051
[?Bachhi)]	5,816	,,		361,920	Sareshtä	15,474	**		941,010
Bahnor	5,033			289,7731	Salimpur	458	.,	14	29,094
Bachlinor	4,956	**		275,185	Salimābād	44	23	15	4,184
Pachham		,,		_,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	Sanjoli Tadrā	2,450	"		150,8434
Bhagu	4,095	,,		271,826	Alāpur	8,796	99		442,466
Bagda	3,716	"		267,8621	Fakhrābād	1,170	"	6	72,355
Purab Bhagu	3,022		17	222,280	Khānauli	4,644	21	•	408,804
Pandrājah	3,135	37	4	195,8371	Ghar Chawand	5,510	"		349,4801
Bādi Bhosādi	2,823		•	175,585	Kodākhaud	3,888			243,677
Bhālā	2,840	**		145,437	Korādi		9.3		90,000
Bhadwār	2,087	3 9		130,4711	Khandā	330	9.8	6	21,443
Parhārpur	1.968	**		121.067	Y1	2,609	-	•	142,495
Dala Z. Isamoum	1,936	3,	16	119,305	34-1.12	15,295	**		946,048
10 sees	1,455		12	90,3691	200	8,289	9.9		515,485
Parhār Rāghu	1,303	• •	17			0,203	9 9		310,760
711		.,		81,605		1 077		12	66 603
	1,170	**	9	69,608	hend?)	1,077	9 9	12	6 6,693
Palwäah	1,060	**	9	65,628	Margā	622			20, 022
Borā	875	33	15	55,757	[?Naranga]	632		18	39,022
Banwā	22			40,539	Malahmi	151	9 9	1	9,728
Parhärpur,	004				Nauram	2.20	9.9	_	288,140
Jabdi	604		14	37,736	Nautan	3,381	3.7	7	209,153
Bagi	505	**	5		Hāthi	2,563		18	159,7901
Bochhāwār	188		10	12,875	Harni	796	98	17	50,342
Barsāni	200	,, 1	18	12,695	Hābi [?Hali)	3,665	**	8	230,700

Sarkār of Rohtās.

Containing 18 Mahals, 47,334 Bighas, 15 Biswas. Revenue, 40,819,493 Dams.
Castes various Cavalry 4,550 Infantry 162,000

•	Jastes	Vallou	o.	•	avany	T,000. Illia	uuy	102,0	· · · ·
		B.	8	B.	Dāms	1	B.	& B.F	R Dāms
Alrah		. 53,512	••	16	4,028,100	Rataupur, has a			
Bhojpi	1 r	. 66,078		17	4,903,310	strong fort	11-	**	783,425
Pira			11		3,407,840	Siris (Sarsi)	44,710	3	2,769,446
Panwa	i r	. 22,733	••	3	1,677,000	Sahsaram	31,220	18	2,370,790
Baragi	ion	. 10,540	,,	17	842,400	Fathpur bhaiva	50,474	., 15	3,736,000
Chaku	nd				•	Kotrā	29,167	. 15	1,829,300
Jaur	લો)	. 45,251		3	4,440,360	Kot, has a	•	••	
Jaidar		. 26,538		16	1,634,110				847,920
Danwa	ir	. 29,154		4	2,076,520	Mangror		•-	
Dinār	• •	n	22		350,000		,,	,,	924,000
Rohtās	s with si	1 -	•-		•	Naunor	29,621	13	2,000,000
burba	ın dist.	34,330	,,	10	2,258,620		•	•	

The Subah of Illahabad.)

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from Sinjhauli in the Jaunpur district to the southern hills is 160 kos; its breadth from Chausa ferry to Ghātampur 122 kos. On the East is Behār. To the North, Oudh. Bāndhu* lies to the South and Agra to the West.

Its principal rivers are the Ganges and the Jamna, and there are other small streams such as the Rind, Ken, Saru (Sarju), Barna, &c.

Its climate is healthy. It produces a variety of fruits, flowers and garden herbs, and it has always an abundant supply of melons and grapes. Agriculture is in a flourishing state. Jowāri and Lahdarah, however, do not grow and Moth is scarce. Cloths, such as Jholi, and Mihrkal and the like are beautifully woven, especially at Benāres, Jalālābād and Mau. At Jaunpur, Zafarwāl and other places woollen carpets are manufactured. A variety of game is also to be found.

Illahabād anciently called Prayāg was distinguished by His Imperial Majesty by the former name. A stone fort was completed and many handsome edifices erected. The Hindus regard it as the King of shrines. Near it, the Ganges, the Jamna and the Saraswati meet, though the latter is not visible. Near the village of Kantat considerable captures of elephants are made. What is most strange is that when Jupiter enters the constellation Leo, a small hill appears from out of the Ganges and remains there during the space of one month upon which the people offer divine worship.

Bārānasi, universally known as Benares, is a large city situated between the two rivers, the Barna and the Āsi.† In ancient books, it is styled Kāsi. It is built in the shape of a bow of which the Ganges forms the string. In former days there was here an idol temple, round which procession was made after the manner of the kaabah and similar ceremonials of the pilgrims conducted. From time immemorial, it has been the chief seat of learning in Hindustān.

^{*} Bandhu is Rewa State, and not Banda as Jarrett noted in the 1st edition. † The Asi is a mere brook and the city is situated on the left bank of the Ganges, between the Barna Nadi on the N. B. and the Asi Nale on the S. W. The former rises to the N. of Allahabad and has a course of 100 miles. Prom the joint names of the two which bound the city, N. and S. the Brahmans derive Varanasi, the Sanskrit form of Benares. Cunningham, Ancient Geog. of India, p. 437.

Crowds of people flock to it from the most distant parts for the purpose of instruction to which they apply themselves with the most devoted assiduity. Some particulars of its history shall be related in what follows.

In A.H. 410 Sultān Mahmud of Ghazni marched hither, and some disruption of the old faith was effected. In A.H. 416, he again invaded the country. He first invested Gwalior but raised the siege under a treaty of peace. He then resolved to take the fort of Kālinjar. The governor sent him 300 elephants with his respectful submission and proffered some eulogistic verses. Mahmud was so much pleased that he bestowed on him the governorship of the fort together with the charge of fourteen other places.

Jaunpur is a large city. Sultān Firoz (Tughlaq) king of Delhi laid its foundations and named it after his cousin Fakhruddin Jaunah. Its longitude is 190° 6"; its latitude 16° 15".

Chanādah (Chanār) is a stone fort on the summit of a hill, scarce equalled for its loftiness and strength. The Ganges flows at its foot.

In its vicinity, there is a tribe of men who go naked, living in the wilds, and subsist by their bows and arrows and the game they kill. Elephants are also found in the forests.

Kālinjar is a stone fortress situated upon a heaven-reaching* hill. No one can trace its origin. It contains many idol temples and an idol is there, called Kāl Bhairob, 18 cubits high of which marvellous tales are related. Springs rise within the fort and there are many tanks. Adjoining it is a dense forest in which wild elephants, and kestrels and hawks and other animals are trapped. Ebony is here found and many kinds of fruits grow spontaneously. There is also an iron mine. In the neighbourhood, within eight kos, the peasants find small diamonds.

It is said that Rājā Kirat Singh the governor of the fort possessed six precious treasures, a learned Brāhman of saintly life, a youth of great beauty and amiable disposi-

^{*} Its elevation is 1230 feet above sea level. Perishts ascribes the fort to Kedär Rājā, a contemporary of Muhammad, but local legend connects it with Chandra Varma, ancestor of the great Chandel family of Rajputs, who removed hither after their defeat by Prithi Rāj, the Chauhān ruler of Delhi. I. G.

tion, a parrot that answered any questions put to it and some say, remembered everything that it heard, a musician named Bakshu unequalled in the knowledge and practice of his art, and two handmaidens lovely to behold and skilled in song. Sultān Bāhadur Gujrāti having formed a friendship with the Rājā asked him for one of these. The Rājah generously and with a provident wisdom sent him Bakshu. Next Sher Khan of the House of Sur requested the gift of the two wonderful songstresses, and when his messenger returned without them, he invested the fort. Works were erected and the besieged were reduced to great straits. In despair, the Rājā, after the manner of the Hindus who hold their honour dear, burnt his women, for in the slumbering of his reason, he had set his affections upon the things of this fleeting life, and so giving his body to ashes, according to the desire of his enemies, he became soiled with the dust of dissolution. As to Sher Khan, who had conceived this wicked design, he fell at the powder magazine when the fire opened on the fort and the harvest of his life was consumed.*

The Subah contains ten Sarkārs, and 177 Parganahs. Revenue 21 krors, 14 lakhs and 17,819 dāms (Rs. 53,10,695-7-9)), and 12 lakhs of betel leaves. Of these Parganahs 131 pay revenue from crops charged at special rates. Measured land 39, 68,018 bighas, 3 biswas, yielding a revenue of 20 krors, 29 lakhs, 71,224 dāms (Rs. 50,74,280-9). The remaining 46 Parganahs pay the general bigah rate. They are rated at 94 lakhs, 56,595 dāms (Rs. 2,36,424-14). Of this, 1 kror, 11 lakhs, 65,417 dāms (Rs. 279,135-6-6) are Suyurghāl. The province furnishes 11,375 Cavalry, 237,870 Infantry and 323 elephants.

Note.—In the names of the parganahs under the following Sarkārs, I have altered the spelling where the variants allow, in accordance with Elliot's list, as his personal acquaintance with their true pronunciation is probably more correct than those of my previous lists which were adapted as far as possible to reconcile the readings of Gladwin and Tieffenthaler. The discrepancies are slight and will not interfere with their recognition.

This took place in 1545. During the siege a live shell rebounded from the walls into the battery where Sher Shah stood and set fire to the gunpowder. He was brought out severely burnt and died next day, having previously ordered an assault which was at once made with success. K. R. Qunungo's Sher Shah, 339.

Subah of Illahābād. Subah of Agra. Subah of Oudh. Subah of Delhi. Sarkārs. Sarkars. Sarkārs. Sarkārs. Illāhābas. Agra. Delhi. Garakhpur. Karrah. Kanauj. Rewāri. Korarah (Kora). Kālpi. Sahāranpur. Hisar Firozalı. Kālinjar. Kol. Jaunpur. Tijāralı. Sambhal. Ghāzipur. Badāon. Irii. Benares. Sahār. Chanār.

Sarkār of Illāhābās (Allahabad).

Containing 11 Mahals, 573,311 Bighas, 14 Biswas. Of these 9 Mahals yield 20,833,374 ½ Dāms, in money. Suyurghāl, 747,001 ½ Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 580. Infantry 7,100.

	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Castes
Illähähäs, with su- burban district: has a stone fort Bhadoi, with a brick fort on the bank	284,057	9,267,359	253,261	•••	1,000	Brāhman
of the Ganges	73,252-2	3,660,918	37,534	200	5,000	Rājput, a few
jalālābād, ⁴ 5 Mahals Sorāon	63,932-4	737,220 3,247,127	161,527	10 40 .	400 1,000	Brāhman Rājput, Chan- del, Brāh- man
Singraur, has a brick fort on the bank of the Ganges	38,536-6	1,885,006	74.883			Brāhman, Kü-
611					F00	yath, Rah- matullühi Brāhnian
Sikandarpur Kantit, has a stone	34,756-8	1,867,704	92,138	25	500	
fort on the Ganges Kusi. (Rlliot Kewāi) Khairagarh, has a	14,385-3	856,555 721,115	19,005	50 15	2,000 400	Khandāl ?* Rājput, Brāh- man
stone fort on a hill	•••	400,000	•••	200	5,000	Rājput, Bi- rāsi (Bhar?)
fort on the hill Alwand* Hādiābās, (now call-	21,982	1,139,980	22,4951	20	100	Rājput, Ga- harwāl
ed Jhusi. Elliot)	42,422-5	2,018,014	79,078	20	400	Råjput, Brāh- man

¹ The Bhars were a powerful tribe during the period of Buddhist ascendancy. In Southern and Eastern Oudh there are many relics of their wealth and power in the shape of tanks, wells, embankments and deserted sites of brick built forts and towns. Beames, Memoir, i. p. 33. Oudh Gazetteer, i. p. xxxvi.

p. xxxvi.

Three names follow without discritical points, intelligible in the MSS.

Tieff given "Sobehe. Auelā. Bando. Barbar.

Tieff. gives "Sobehe, Auelā, Bando, Barbar.

A note to the text suggests, Gaharwāl, one of the 36 royal tribes of Rājpats.

A note states that in the maps there is no hill. Alward is the name of a well-known mountain in Hamadan, 80 leagues from Ispahan, often employed in Persian imagery as a synonym for loftiness.

Sarkar of Ghazipur, (East.)

Containing 19 Mahals, 288,770 Bighas, 7 Biswas. Revenue 13,431,308 Dāms, in money. Suyurghāl, 131,825 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 310 Infantry 16,650.

Baliā 28,344-15 1,250,000 200 2000 Rājput Pachotar 13,679-9 6,982,040 2,250 50 2000 Do. Bāhriābad 12,306 652,360 10 200 Do. Bhalāech, (B. Barāich) 2 255-19 112,461 200 Do. Chausā, (B. Chaunsā) 15,602-11 791,633 10 500 Brāhman Dihbā, (B. Dihmah) 2,808-15 128,815 2,077 50 Brāhman Sayyidpur Naudi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 100e Brāhman Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Kayath, Kariyāt Pali 1,384-5 75,467 Rājput Karendā 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rūjput Karendā 6,260-15 293,5	A-1	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Bilhābās* 13,679-9 6,982,040 2,250 50 2000 Dn. Bāhriābad 6,983-10 355,340 1,720 200 Do. Do. Bhalāech, (E. Barāich) 2 255-19 112,461 12,461 10 500 Brāhman Chausā, (E. Chaunsā) 15,602-11 791,633 10 500 Brāhman Dihbā, (E. Dihmah) 2,808-15 128,815 2,077 50 Rājput Sayyidpur Namdi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 100e Brāhman Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Do. Ghāzipur with sulurban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Kajath, Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 19,266-11 942,190 863 20 2000 Rājput Karendā 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834	Balia	28.344-15	1.250.000		900	2000	Dāinut
Bihabas 12,306 652,360 1,720 10 200 Do. Bāhriābad 6,863-10 355,340 1,720 10 200 Do. Bhalāech, (E. Barāich) 2 255-19 112,461 791,653 128,815 2,077 50 Brāhman Rājput Sayyidpur Namdi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 1006 Brāhman Chāzīpur with sul-urban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Kayath, Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 Kopāchhit 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (E. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 Karendā 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman Do. Muhammadābād, and	Dochotau			2 250			
Båhriābad 6,983-10 355,340 1,720 200 Do. Bhalāech, (B. Barāich) 2,255-19 112,461 10 500 Brāhman Chausā, (B. Chausā) 15,602-11 791,653 10 500 Brāhman Dihbā, (B. Dihmah) 2,808-15 128,815 2,077 50 Brāhman Sayyidpur Naudi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 1000 Brāhman Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Do. Ghāzipur with suburban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Rājput Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (B. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Do. Karendā 6,260-15 293,551 300 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 34 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 <t< td=""><td>Rilhahau</td><td></td><td></td><td>2,200</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></t<>	Rilhahau			2,200			
Bhalāech, (B. Barāich) Chausā, (B. Chaunsā) 15,602-11 791,653 Dihbā, (B. Dihmah) 2,808-15 128,815 2,077 50 Sayyidpur Namdi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 1000 Brāhman Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Ghāzipur with suburban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 Kopāchhit 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (B. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Karendā 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 2,888-3 126,636 834 Muhammadābād, and	Robeithad			1 700			
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Dihbā, (R. Dihmah) 2,808-15 128,815 2,077 50 Rājput Sayyidpur Namdi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 1008 Brāhman Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Do. Ghāzipur with sulurban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Kayath, Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Kopāchhit 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Karendā 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman	Chausa. (B. Chaunsa)		_,	í			DeSlaves
Sayyidpur Naudi 25,721-3 1,250,280 18,172 20 1008 Brāhman Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Do. Ghāzipur with sul-urban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Rājput Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 893 20 2000 Rājput Kopāchhit 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (R. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Karendā 2,888-3 126,636 834 Do. Jakhner, (E. Lakhnessar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Muhammadābād, and 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman	Dibbil. (E. Dibnish)				10		
Zahurābād 13,802-12 657,808 29,528 500 20 Do. Kayath, Rājput Ghāzipur with sulurban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Rājput Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467 20 Rājput 75,467 20 Rājput 20 Rājput 20 Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do. Do.	Savvidpur Naudi						
Ghäzipur with suburban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Kayath, Räjput Kariyät Pali 1,394-5 75,467 200 Räjput Kopāchhit 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (R. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Do. Karendā Lakhner 6,260-15 293,551 300 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 34 34 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman	Zohnezhad				,		
ban district 12,325-9 570,350 39,680 10 20 Räjput Kariyät Pali 1,394-5 75,467 Räjput Kopāchhit 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (R. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Karendā 2,860-15 293,551 300 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman		10,002-12	007,000	25,520	300	20	
Kariyāt Pali 1,394-5 75,467	ham district	19 325.9	570 950	90 600	10	20	
Kopāchhit 19,266-11 942,190 893 20 2000 Rājput Gandhā, (R. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Karendā 6,260-15 293,551 300 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman	Vacinas Deli			38,000	10	20	Kajput
Gandhā, (R. Garhā) 10,049-10 500,000 200 Do. Karendā 6,260-15 293,551 300 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman Muhammadābād, and	Kondohhit			904			D Sierre
Karendā 6,260-15 293,551 300 Do. Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman Muhammadābād, and							
Lakhner, (E. Lakhnesar) 2,888-3 126,636 834 Madan Benāres 66,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman Muhammadābād, and	Vanandā				(
sar)		0,200-10	200,001	•••	*** 1	300	10.
Madan Benäres 68,548-7 2,760 000 1,356 50 5000 Brāhman Muhammadābād, and	205)	0.8K8.3	126 896	994	i		
Muhammadābād, and	Maden Danker						Redlinion
		00,010.7	2,700 000	14000		3000	DIAHHAH
101/11/10 2/2007/07 1,777 2000 100 200,	Dankahani	48.774.18	2.2600007	1 777	2000	100	Da
		1 201772-10	-,2007007	21000	2000	100	200.

Surkar of Benares (East.)

Containing 8 Mainls, 36,869 Bighas, 12 Biswas. Revenue 8,869,315 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 3,38,184 Castes various. Cavalry 830. Infantry 8,400.

	Bighas ant' Biswas	Revenue D	Suyur- ghal D.	Cavalry	Infautry	Castes
Afrād	10,655-6 31,657-1 60,961-3	953 ,226 1,734 ,72 1 547 ,6 34		50 20	400 1000 300	Brāhman, Rājput Brāhman Do.
Pandrah) Kaswār Katehar, has a brick		2-250.160	15,836 80,120	10 50	400 2009	Do. Do.
	30,495-14 13,098-3		48,070 8,145	500	4000 300	Raghuvansi Brühmen

^{*} G. and T. Baliabass.

Sarkar of Jaunpur (North).

Containing 41 Mahals, 870,265 Bighas, 4 Biswas. Revenue 56,394,107 dams in money. Suvurghāl, 4,717,654. Castes various. Cavalry 915. Infantry 36,000.

			Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Aldimen	•	**	46,888-12	3,099,990	88,976	50	3,000	Rājput
Augli	••	••	42,992-14	2,713,551	464,516	50	2,000	Sayyid, Raj- put, and Rahmatul- lähi
Bihtari	••	. !	17,703	844,357	12,520	10	100	Bachgoti Ansari*
Bhadaon	••	•• !	4,300	229,515	07.467	10	100	Saddíki Rājput
Tilhani Jaunpur wit has a fort part stone upper con	, the lo	wer the		654,363	27,457		100	
brick	».		65,739-4	4,247,043	807,821	120	2,500	Rājput Ko- sak, Brāh- man, Kur- mi
Chândip ur 1 Birhar)	sadhar, 	(R.	22,828-7	1,467,205	157,641	20	400	Kalımatullā hi, Brāh- man
Chändah	••	•• ‡	17,590	989,286	***	20	300	Bachgoti
Chiriyākot			14,153	807,848	13,669	20	200	Räjput
Jakesar (R. Kharid, ha fort on th	s a b	rick	5,415-10	286,586	400	10	100	Saddiki
the Sarah			30,914-13	1,445,743	3,140	50	5,000	Rājput Kau
Kliäspur Tä	ndeh		17,365	986,953	40,189	10	300	Kāyath
Khānpar Deogāon		••	6-628-19 44,524-18	3, 06,020 2,583,205	5,387 196,238	25	1.000	Rājput Do.
DeoRaou			44,024-10	2,000,200	100,230	2.5	1,000	Gantanii
Rāri	••	••	24,360	1,326,299	84,502	10	300.	Rajput
Sanjhaul:	••	**	46,815-3	2,938,209	334,932	50	100	Sayyid, Raj put, Bra- man
Sikandarpur, brick fort	, has	а,	00 E74 1-11	1 700 417	5,325	10	3,000	Brähman
Sagdi, (E. S	lavri)		32,574-10 19,792	1,706,417 1,274,721	102.224	10	200	Rājpat
Surharpur	, mg 11,		18.851	1.164.095	7.094	10	20	Do.

^{*} These according to the I.G. (Bahraich) were the descendants of the early Muscalman settlers and invaders. For their descent and history, see Beames Memoir, I, 7. For Bachgoti, see Bliot (Races of the N. W. P.) who says that all Chauhans are Bachgotis, being of the governor Bach, but Shrains the says that are bachgotis, the says that are bachgotis. proves this to be an error, instancing the golras of Vatsa and Kasyap. Hindu Tribes, I, p. 164.

† A clan of Rājputs of the Chandarbans, once a powerful clan in the Lower Doab. See Elliot, p. 118, I, and Sherring, I, 202.

Sarkār of Jaunpur (North).—(Contd:)

	_				100		
		Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Shādiābād		30,848-8	1,700,742	10.020	20	400	The land
(2 - f 1 = 1	**	2.822-9	156,926	13,806		400	Rajput
Zararabad Qariyāt Mittu	••	8.991-11	851,410	13,500	iö	50	Do.
Dootson	••	8.857	481 524	42.227		300	
Man Shak	••					100	Do.
Seothah	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	7,416	394,870	21,260	•••	100	Do.
Kolah	••	2,988-10	206,738	14,224		100	Do.
Ghiawah	••	24,231	1,363,332	14,971	10	300	Do.
	••	30,775	1,241,291	42,366	10	200	Do.
Ghosi	•	18,913	1,037,934	69,650	10	200	Do.
Gadwārah	••	2,191	513,942	2,682	50	5,000	Rājput Bach- goti
Kāudiyah, (E. K	auris)	5,764-12	341,890			200	Rajput
Gopalpur		3 266-8	18,043	4.948		100	Do.
Karākat	••	48,332-14	23,002,748	77.339	20	500	Do.
Mandiahu, has		10,000					1
brick fort (B.	Ma-	i					
riahu)	••	88,899-5	5,259,465	273,788	50	2,000	Rājput Kau-
Muhammadābād	••	56,350-14	3,229,063	220,442	30	1,000	Rājput, Brāh man
Mungra		9.826-5	529,730			200	Rajput
Mailalana	••	6.417-6	420,164	14,427	•••	200	Rahmatul-
	••	0,417-0		17,727	· · ·	200	lähi
Mau	••	2,645-3	209,067	***	•••	50	Shaikh zā-
Nizamābād	••	6,074-13	602,592	478,026	200	4,000	Rājput Gau- tami, Brāh-
••							man, Rah- matuliähi
Negun Nathupur	••	10,145 4,948-14	758,796 278,472	145,350 21,259	10	200 200	Brāhman Saddiki
			<u></u>		1	<u> </u>	1

Sarkur of Manikpur.

Containing 14 Mahals, 666,222 Bighas, 5 Biswas.

Revenue 33,916,527 Dams in money. Suyurghal, 8,446,173. Castes various. Cavalry 2,040. Infantry 2,900.

	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D	Suyar- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Arwal, has a brick fort Bhalol	62.131-10 32,343-3	2.957,077 1,832,289	37 220 175,753	114	7.000 500	Rājput Rājput Kā- yath, Ban-
Tilhandi Jalalpur Balkhar, has a brick fort	11.721-6 76,517-8	383,251 3,913,917	54,821 140,325	10 400	300 5,000	Do. Brāhman Bechgeti,

^{*} Var. Gauriya, Pariya: perhaps Baoria a tribe of professional thieves widely spread, and in a loose way, a distinct caste. I. G. under, Rajgutana and Sherring, II. 82.

Sarkar of Manikpur.—(Contd.)

	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Jāes, has a brick fort, (I. G. Jais) Dalmau, has a brick	25,625	1,424,787	277,863	250	7,000	Various
fort on the Ganges	67,508-9	3,626,067	344,130	50	200	Turkomān
Rae Bareli, has a brick fort on the Sai	65,751-17	3,650,984	180,080	40	2,000	Rājput, Khand, Baoria
Salon, has a brick fort	56,102	2,717,391	394,774	180	8,900	Rājput Khandwāi,† Bisen.
Qaryāt Karārah	51,505-19	2,461,077	115,774	20	700	Rājput, Bisen
., Päegäh	22,130	1.117,926	6.794	20	400	Do. do.
Kathot, has a brick fort Mānikpur with suburbs, has a brick fort on the	9,456-8	514,909	3,187	100	2,000	Bacligoti
	129,830-1 55,599-4	6,737,729 2,582,079	542,312 108,148	500 40	6,000 1,000	Bisen Rājput, Kā- yath, Gao- ria, Bais
					:	

Sarkār of Chanādah (Chanār), South.

Containing 13 Mahals, 106,270 Bighas, 8 Biswas.

Revenue 5,810,654 Dāms in money.

Suyurghāl, 109,065. Cavalry 500.

Infantry 18,000.

	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Ahirwarah Bholi, (R. Bhuili) Badhaul, (R. Barhaul) Tandah Chanadah, with suburban district, has a	1,858-8 18,975-10 6,412-11 12,939-14	109,073 1,112,656 361,364 488,010 883,908	605	500	18,000	Saddiki, Faruki,
bhus	4.274-10	235,644	14,548		***	Ansāri
Rāghupur, now pro- nounced Rāhupur E.) Villages, this side of	7,267 12	451,962	17,869		•••	
the river	18,098	845,371			•••	
Majhwārah Mahāich	9,312-3 7,950-2	549,817 390,609		•••	•••	
Mahwari	4.878-3	227.087	2,000		•••	
Mahoi, E. Mawai)	4,301-2	206.288	3,353		•••	

[†] Sherring gives the name of Khondchwal to a trading caste in Bhurtpur. iii. 52.

Sarkar of Bhathkhora, (South.)

Containing 39 Mahals. Revenue 7,262,780 Dāms in money.

Cavalry 4,804. Elephants 200. Infantry 57,000.

Sarkār of Kālinjar, (South.)

Containing 11 Mahals. Measured land, 508,273 Bighas, 12 Biswas. Revenue 23,839,470 Dāms. in money.

Suyurghāl 614,580 Dāms. Castes various.

Cavalry 1,210. Elephants 112. Intantry 18,100.

	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Uguāsi, has a brick fort, (E. Ugāsi)	53,9 63-6	2,502,898	60,776	400	5,000	10	Sayyid, Gadhwāl, Parihār
Sendha, (E. Sihondā) has a stone fort on	***	200,000		20	2,000	10	Gond
	188,467-12	6,262.833}	129.412	20	S.000	25	Gond, Chan- del, &c.
fort Shàdipur, hay a stone	48,866-3	2,247,346	15,300	300	3,000		Khandwai
fort Rasan Kālinjar with suburban		2,798,329 <u>}</u> 512.026	96,312	40 50	708 100	20	Rājput, &c. Bhar, Bais
district	22,494	979,259	130,490	20	500	7	
Kharelah, has a brick fort	25, 940 -1	1,278,325	•••	50	1,500		Rāput, Bais
flanked by two high hills		4,042.014 & 120,000 pJnleaves	1	100	3,000	40	Bagri* Rahmatu'l- lähi, Pari-
Māndinā, has a stone fort	62,530-7	2,998,082	154,082	30	400	-	hār

The Bögri are a tribe inhabiting the Bögar country, a tract between the S.-W. border of Hariana and the Ghāra. Bögar is also the name of a tract in the Mālwah, but in the N.-W. P applied to the Bögri Jats of Hissör and Bhattiana. Elliot, Memoir (Beale), I, 9-10.

Sarkar of Kurrah,* (West.)

Containing 9 Mahals, 341,170 Bighas, 10 Biswas.

Revenue 17,397,567 Dams. Suyurghal 469,350 Dams.

Castes various. Cavalry 500. Elephants 10. Infantry 15,000.

	Bighas and Biswas	Revenue D.	ghāl D. Suyur-	Cavalry	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Jājmāo, has a fort on the Ganges	62 ,195-10	3,106,346	139,936	200	4,000	7	Afghān Lodi, Rāj- put, Bais.
Kurrah, with suburban district, has a brick fort on the Rind river	124,748-12	6,771,891	257,373	50	300		Brāhman
Ghatampur	73,876-3	3,667,564	48,654	100	2,000	10	Rājput Di- khit (Di- kshit) Kā- yath
Majhāwan	26,980-8	1,323,339	2.574	20	1,000		Brähman
Kutia	12,178-11	584,274	20,815	30			Rājput Gau- tami
Gnner	10.041-16	513.457		20	1,000		Do.
Kiranpur Kinār, (Elliot Kiratpur Kanānda)	17,965	830,070	•••	30	1,000		Do.
Muhsanpar	13,181	600,586	•••	50	2,000	2	Räjput Chandel

^{*}Kurran is a decayed town in Fatehpur district; formerly the capital of this Sarkar under the Mughals: it still retains traces of its former importance. A few words follow this name which are either omitted or illegible in the other MSS. Literally they run thus: "And there is a village called Numi which produces flowers and colour."

Karah is now a ruined town on the right bank of the Ganges, 40 miles N.-W of Allahābād. It was the scene of the famous meeting between Muizu'ddin and his father in 1286 which forms the subject of Mir Khusru's well-known Persian epic, the Kirānu's Saadain. Two sarkārs of the Allahabad province bearing names liable to be confounded with each other in careless Persian writing, are Korā and Kārā. They were later distinguished as Korā-Jahānābād (situated in the Fathpur dist. of the U. P.) and Kārā-Mānikpur, (Kāra being in the Allahabad dist., and Mānikpur on the north bank of the Ganges opposite to Kārā and therefore in the Oudh province). The two places are 70 miles apart east to west. The best device for avoiding confusion is to spell Korā as Kurrāh, which form of the word we find in the Marathi and some Persian records. [J. Sarkar.]

Sarkar of Karah, (West.)

Containing 12 Mahals, 447,556 Bighas, 19 Biswas.... Revenue 22,682,048 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 1,498,862 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 390. Infantry 8,700.

	Bighas and Biswas	D. Revenue	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Rephants	Castes
Richhi, (Elliot Enchli) Atharban Ayāsā	35,825-11 18,517-14 15,783-11	1,624,034 894,036 845.766	34,974 4,770	10 10 10	500 200 500	•••	Do. Do. Rājput
Haveli, (suburban district) of Kara	9,638-17	5,192,170	442,080	100	1,000		Käyath, Käj- put, Bräh- man, Khari
Rāri Baldah* of Kara, has a fort on the Ganges,	5 6 ,727-18	2,707,034	26,350	10	4.000		Rājput Brāhman
lower part stone, up- per, brick	70,001-12	236,868			• •••		Various
Karāri, has a brick foot on the Jumna Kotlā Kunrā, commonly Ko-	39, 686-19 18, 043-1	141,953 909,234	122,191	10	300		Brāhiuan Rājput
son, (Elliot, Karson), has a brick fort	11,782-9	693,487	•••	100	2,000	ļ	Various .
Fatchpur Hanswah, (Elliot Haswā)	55,915-8	2,892,705	370,420	50	1,000		Rājput, Brāhman
Hanswali	55,322-12 42,521-3	2,723,508 2,123,661	24,829 15,506		1,000 1,000		Do. Afghān, Rājput

Iis rulers.

Sultānu's Sharq reigned, 16 years.

Mubārak Shāh , 1 year and a fraction.

Sultān Ibrahim , 40 years ,,

Sultān Mahmud ,, 21 years and a few months.

Mahmud [= Muhammad] Shah , 5 months.

Husain ,, 19 years.

^{*} Mr. Beames in a note to Elliot's Gloss., p. 83, II, distinguishes between Heveli and Baldah, the former alluding to the district close to the Capital and the latter to that at a distance.

- 101001 TO TOTAL						
Malik Sarwar Khw	āia Jahān		. A.1		D.	
Malik Qaranful, Mu	barak Sh.		• •	802 / 1399		
Shams ud-din Ibrai	nim Sb.			804 / 1402		
Mahmud Sh.	444		•••	840 / 14 36		
Muhammad Sh.	***	***	•••	862 / 1458		
Husain Sh.	***			962-884 / 1458-79		
TTM berter fitter.			(Ca	mbridge Mist.	India, ti	Ŋ.

These six princes held sway for 97 years and a few months.*

This province was formerly administered by the sovereigns of Delhi. When the imperial authority devolved on Sultan Muhammad-b-Firuz Shah, he bestowed the title of Sultan us Sharq upon Malik Sarwar a eunuch who had received from his predecessor the dignity of Khān-i-Jahān, and sent him to this province. He gave lustre to his reign by his judgment, clemency, justice and valour and thus garnered a provision for his life's last journey. When the cup of his days was full, the son whom he had adopted, named Mubarak Qaranful, by the assistance of the chief men of the State, raised himself to power and had the khutbah read and the coin struck in his own name. When the news of this event reached Mallu (Khān), he collected troops and marched from Delhi to oppose him and encamped in readiness for battle on the bank of the Ganges, but nothing decisive having been effected, both armies returned home.

When this prince died, his younger brother Ibrahim was raised to the throne. By his knowledge of men and capacity for affairs he administered the kingdom with justice and made the chastisement of the unruly a source of prosperity to his government. Wisdom was eagerly sought and the prospects of the intelligent in every profession was advanced. Qāzi Shahābu'ddin, a sage of Hindustan flourished about this time. He was born at Delhi and in that city acquired a comprehensive knowledge of the inductive sciences and traditional lore, and at the time of the arrival of Timur, he set out for Jaunpur in the company of his master Maulana Khwajagi who was the successor o Nasiru'ddin Chiragh of Delhi and there continued his progress and became the envy of his time. Shah Madar however, who is esteemed one of the saints of Hindustan and the chief of his contemporary series of divines, throug' the disagreement that ever exists between philosopher. who regard the material world, and masters of the spiritual life, entertained no esteem for the Qazi.

When the days of Ibrahim came to a close, his elder son Bikhan Khān, under the name of Sultan Mahmud assumed the sovereignty. As his deeds were not approved the sentence of deposition was issued against him and his

^{*} Six Jaunpur rulers, 97 years.

brother Husain raised to power. He made rectitude his rule of conduct and his chief object the conciliation of all hearts. Fortune favoured his desires and the world praised him but intoxicated by the maddening fumes of worldly success, he became arrogant. He was involved in war with Sultān Bahlol and was defeated. Sultān Bahlol left his son Bārbak at Jaunpur and entrusted him with the government. [1478.] On the death of Sultān Bahlol the throne of Delhi devolved on Sultān Sikandar. Sultān Husain with the connivance of Bārbak collected troops, made several attempts against Delhi, but with him the Sharqi dynasty closed.*

The Subah of Oudh.

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from the Sarkar of Gorakhpur to Kanauj is 135 kos. Its breadth from the northern mountains to Sidhpur on the frontier of the Subah of Allahabad is 115 kos. To the east is Bihar; to the north, the mountains; to the south, Manikpur, and to the west Kanauj. Its climate is good. Summer and winter are nearly temperate. Its principal streams are the Saru (Sarju), the Ghaghar (Gogra) the Sai and the Godi (Gumti). In the first mentioned, divers aquatic animals and forms of strange appearance show themselves. Agriculture is in a flourishing state, especially rice of the kinds called Sukhdas, Madhkar, and Jhanwan, which for whiteness, delicacy, fragrance and wholesomeness are scarcely to be matched. They sow their rice three months earlier than in other parts of Hindustan. When the drought begins, the Sai and the Gogra rise high in flood and before the beginning of the rains, the land is inundated, and as the waters rise, the stalks of rice shoot up and proportionately lengthen: the crop, however, is destroyed if the floods are in full force before the rice is in ear. Flowers, fruits and game are abundant. Wild buffaloes are numerous.

^{*}Jaunpur continued to be governed by the Lodi synasty till the defeat and death of ibrahim grandson of Bahlo! and last of the line, at Panipat by Babar in 1526. A local kingdom was for a short time established under Bahadur Khān governor of Jaunpur who asserted his independence. It was recovered by Humayun, passed again into the hands of Sher Khān and his son of Salim. Humayun on his reconquest of Hindustān died before he could master his eastern possessions. Jaunpur continued under the Afghāns until Akbar in the 4th year of his reign, took possession of it through Mi Quli Khān and incorporated it with his dominions. In 1575 the Viceregal Court was removed to Allahabad and Jaunpur was governed thenceforth by a Nizam.

plains are inundated the animals take to the high ground where the people find sport in hunting them. Some of the animals remain all day in the water and only at night approach the dry ground and breathe in freedom. Awadh (Ajodhyā) is one of the largest cities of India. In is situated in longitude 118°, 6', and latitude 27°, 22'. It ancient times its populous site covered an extent of 148 kos in length and 36 in breadth, and it is esteemed one of the holiest places of antiquity. Around the environs of the city, they sift the earth and gold is obtained. It was the residence of Rāmachandra* who in the Treta age combined in his own person both the spiritual supremacy and the kingly office.

At the distance of one kos from the city, the Gogra, after its junction with the Sai, [Saraju] flows below the fort. Near the city stand two considerable tombs of six and seven yards in length respectively. The vulgar believe them to be the resting-places of Seth and the prophet Job, and extraordinary tales are related of them. Some say that at Ratanbur is the tomb of Kabir, the assertor of the unity of God. The portals of spiritual discernment were partly opened to him and he discarded the effete doctrines of his own time. Numerous verses in the Hindi language are still extant of him containing important theological truths. Bahraich is a large town on the banks of the river Sarju. Its environs are delightful with numerous gardens. Sālār Masudi and Rajab Salar are both buried here. The common people of the Muhammadan faith greatly reverence this spot and pilgrims visit it from distant parts, forming themselves in bands and bearing gilded banners. The first mentioned was connected by blood with Mahmud Ghaznavi, and sold his life bravely in battle and left an imperishable name. The second was the

1 Under the orders of Mahmud of Ghazni, he penetrated the country in A.D. 1033, but was eventually defeated at Bahraich and fell fighting, sanguing purpuratum, as Tieffenthaler writes, crowned with the double glories of the hero and the martyr.

^{*} The 7th avatar, who in this capital of the solar dynasty founded on the charict wheel of Brahma, consummated the glories of sixty generations of solar princes and as the incarnate Rāmā, is the hero of the famous epic that bears his name.

[†] His doctrines were preached between A.D. 1380 and 1420 and attempted the union of Hindu and Muhammadan in the worship of one God whether invoked as Ali or Rāmā. On his decease both these sects claimed the body and while they contested it, Kabir suddenly stood in their midst and commanding them to look under the shoud, vanished. A heap of beautiful flowers was there discovered, which, divided among the rival worshippers, were buried or burnt according to their respective rites. Pilgrinus from upper India to this day beg a spoonful of rice water from the Kabir Monastery at Puri in Orissa. at Puri in Orissa.

father of Sultan Firoz king of Delhi and won renown by the recitude of his life.

In the vicinity of the town, there is a village called *Dogon* which for a long time possessed a mint for copper coinage.

From the northern mountains quantities of goods are carried on the backs of men, of stout ponies and of goats, such as gold, copper, lead, musk, tails of the kutas cow, honey, chuk (an acid composed of orange juice and lemon boiled together), pomegranate seeds, ginger, long pepper, majith root, borax, zedoary, wax, woollen stuffs, wooden ware, hawks, falcons, black falcons, merlins, and other articles. In exchange they carry back white and coloured cloths, amber, salt, assafætida, ornaments, glass and earthen ware.

Nimkhār is a fort of considerable note and a shrine of great resort. The river Godi (Gumti) flows near it, and around are numerous temples. There is a tank called Brahmāwartkund in which the water boils and with such a swirl, that a man cannot sink therein, and it ejects whatever is thrown into it. In the neighbourhood is also a deep hollow, the springhead of a stream, one yard in breadth and four digits deep that flows into the Gumti. The Brāhmans tell strange tales of it and pay it worship. Its sand shapes itself into the form of Mahādeo which quickly disappears again and of whatever is thrown in, as rice and the like, no trace remains.

There is likewise a place called *Charāmiti*, whence, during the *Holi* festival, flames spontaneously issue forth with astonishing effect.

It would seem from a passage of Ferishta mentioning an inroad of Tibetans into Kashmir in the reign of Ibrahim, son of Nazuk Shāh (p. 359, II) that the yāk is meant. The Kashmiris retaliated by pursuing the maranders, and exacting as conpensation 500 borses, 1000 pieces of patts, 200 sheep and 50 kutās cows. Later on, it is mentioned by Abul Fazl among the fauna of India and described as little differing from the common cow except in the tail which is a distinguishing peculiarity, and the origin of its name, kutās.

^{*} Rubia Munjista, Roxb. a native of Nepal and other mountainous countries N.-E. of Bengal. Its root yields a red dye.

^{*}Tieffenthaler asserts that it derives its name from Brahma who is supposed to have sacrificed here, but according to the *I. G.* there is a legend that in one of these tanks, Rāmā washed away his sin of having slain a Brāhman in the person of Ravana, who had carried off his wife Sita.

Lucknow is a large city on the banks of the Gumti, delightful in its surroundings. Shaikh Mina whom the people consider a saint, lies buried here.

Surajkand* is a place of worship frequented by various classes of people from the most distant places.

Kheri is a town on the banks of the river Sai upon which the people go in boats to spear fish.

Bilgrām is a small town the air of which is healthy and its inhabitants are generally distinguished for their quick wit and their love of singing. There is a well here which adds to the intelligence and comeliness of whomsoever drinks of it for forty days.

This Subah is divided into five Sarkārs and thirty-eight parganas. The measured lands are 1 kror, 1 lakh, 71,180 bighas. Its revenue, 20krors, 17 lakhs, 58,172 dāms. (Rs. 5,043,954-4), of which 85 lakhs, 21,658 dāms (Rs. 213,041-7), are Suyurghāl. The provincial force consists of 7.640 Cavalry, 168,250, Infantry and 59 Elephants.

Sarkar of Oudh.

Containing 21 Mahals, 2,796,206 Bighas, 19 Biswahs, Revenue, 40,956,347 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl, 1,680,248 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,340, Elephants 23, Infantry 31,700.

	Bighas Biswas	Revendo D.	Suyur- ghài D.	Infantry	Cavalry	Elephants	Castes
Oudh, with suburban district, 2 mahals	38,649 17	2,008, 36 6	158,741	5	500		Brähmen Kumbi
Ambodha, has a brick fort	282,037 19,338-8	1,298,724 445,417	7,318 103,806	30	700	•••	Bais Ansări

^{*} Identified with Asokpur, between Ajodhya and Gonda [Elliot, ii, 549].

Sarkar of Oudh—(contd.).

				-			
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Infantry	Cavalry'	Elephants	Castes
Anhonah, has a brick fort	74,090	1,268,470	•••	100	2,000	•••	Chauhān, newly con- verted to Islām
Panchhamrāth	289,085	4,247,104		20	500		Rājput, Bāch- hāl, Ghelot
	15,859	815,831		50	2,000	ļ	Bachgoti
Bilehri, has a brick fort	31,188	505,473		20	500		Do.
Basodhi	8,703-2	427,509	36,172		1,000		
Thanah Bhadaon Baktha	44,401	385,098	3,960	•••	500		Do.
Daryābūd, has a brick forc	487,014	5,369,521	226,871	100	2,000		Rājput Chau- hān, Raik- wār*
Rudauli, has a brick fort	351,533	3,248, 680	269,083	50	2,000		Rājput, Chau- hān, Bais
Silak, do	571,071	4,723,209	200,945	100	2,000		Rājput, Raik- wār
Sultanpur do	75.903	3.832,530	98.967	200	7.000	8	Bachgoti
Sătanpur do	80,154	1,600,741	109,788	300	4,990		Bais, newly converted to Islam, Bachgoti, Toshi
Subehat	104,780	1.609.293	87.200	30	1.000		Rajput
Sarwapáli	58.170	1.210.335			1,000		Bachgoti
Satrikah (Satrikh)	37.041	1.126.295			1,000		Ansāri
Gawärchak	79,158	3.778,417		50	1.070	***	Raikwär
Kishni, has a brick fort	25.674	1.339.286			1.500	3	Raiput
						9	Sombānsi
Mangalsi	116.401	1,360,753			1,000	•••	
Naipur	5,997	308,788	2,940	• • • •	500		Various
	·		i	<u> </u>		L	

^{*} The origin of this tribe Raikwāi is given in the I. G. (Bahraich) and their settlements in Sherring I, 219.

[†] Subeha is a well-known parkanah in Bāra Bauki District. In the 1. G. its area is recorded as 88 square miles, or 56,467 acres of which 30,783 are cultivated. Govt. land revenue £6611. In Akbar's time according to the above figures Rs. 40,232-7, and the average taking the bigha % of an acre, 65,487% acres nearly.

Sarkar of Gorakhpur.

Containing 24 Mahals, 244,283 Bighas, 13 Biswas. Revenue 11, 926,790. Dams in money. Suyurghal 51,235 Dams. Castes various. Cavalry 1,010. Infantry 22,000.

				_			
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Utraulă, has a brick fort	32,052	1,397,387	6,935	50	1,500		Afghān-i- Miyānah
Unhaulā	4,114-17	201,120	2 170		400	•••	Bisen
fort	13,857-7	600,000		400	3,000	ď	Räjput Su- rajbansi
Bānbhanpārah (E. Bam- hni, p.)	6,688	414,194	'		2,000		Rājput
Bhawaparah	3.105-15	155,900			200		Bisen
Telpur, has a brick fort	9,005-17	400,000	•••	100	2,000		Rājput Su- rajbansi
Chilupārh, do Daryāpārh (B. Dhuria,	6,536-14	289,302	•••		2,000	•••	Rājput
(p.) Dewäpärah and Kotlah*	31,357-19	1,517,078	5,067	60	400	•••	Bisen
2 mahale Rihli, (or Rudauli)	16,194-17 33,183 19	717,840 1,618,074	20,873	20	2,000 1,000	• • •	Do. Räjput Bisen
Rasulpur and Ghosi, 2 mehals (R. Ghaus) Rāmgarh and Gauri, 2	4,200	622,030			500		Sombansi
mahals	10,762	485 943			•••	•••	Do., troops entered under Bi- näikpur
Gerakhpur with suburban district, has a				:			•
brick fort on the Rapti, 2 mahala Katihlä, has a brick	12,656-8	567,385	3,919	40	200		Surajbansi
fort	900-12	40,000	•••	300	2,000	• • •	Bansi
Rihla, p.)	16.012	425,845	***	20	300		Bisen
Mahauli. Do	2.523	618,256			2,000		Bisen
Mandwah	1.900-19	452,321		20	500	li	Sombansi
Mandlah	1.262-6	51,100			***		
Magher and Ratenpur,	-,			l l		'''	
2 mehale, has a brick				1 1			
fort	26,062	1,352,585	16,771		2,000		Bisen, Bais
			·				

^{*} Elliot, Dhewapara Kuhana.

Sarkar of Bahraich.

Containing 11 Mahals, 1,823,435 Bighas, 8 Biswas. Revenue 24,120,525 Dāms in money. Suyurghal, 466,482 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,170. Infantry 14,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D,	Cavairy	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
	697,231 926	9,139,141 37,185	402,111	60 0	4,500 500	•••	Rājput Kahnah (Kher?)
Husāmpur, has a brick fort	157,415	4,707,035	1,601	70	900		Raikwär, Bisen
Dängdun Rajhat	84,496 4,064-11	440,5 62 166,780	•••	•••	2,000 1,000		Janwar*
Sujhauli	124,810	877,007	***	***	•••		Rājput, Jan- wār
Sultānpur Fakhrpur, has a brick	58,146	166,001	***	•••	700		Janwar
	191,720	3,157,876	56,035	150	2.000		Raikwar
	108,601	1,933,079	4,107		7,000		TO K to make one
Fort of Nawagarh Kharonsa, has a brick	417,601	2,140,858	•••	50	1,000		Various
fort	28,489-17	1,315,061	2,628	100	1,000		Bais

^{*} A tribe of Rajputs in Silionda and Simauni of Bundelkhand: Rasulabad and Bithur of Cawnpore, and in Kutiya Gunir of Fatchpur.

Sarkār of Khairābād.

Containing 22 Mahals, 1.987,700 Bighas, 6 Biswas. Revenue, 43,644,381 Dāms in money. Suyurghal, 171,842 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,160. Infantry 27,800.

		Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Blephants	Castes
Beror Anjnah Baswah, has fort Pali	 brick	185,119	4,826,437 2,545,643 1,849,270	107,016	30	2,000 1,000 1,000	1	Rājput, Brāhman Rājput, Bichhal Lanin?

Sarkar of Khairabad—(contd.)

	<u> </u>						
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Flephants	Castes
Bāwan Basrah Bhurwārah, has a brick	56,156 60,063	1,161,285	26,488	20	1,000		Ditto. Various
fort	8,971-18	48,543		50	.2.500		Ahnin
Basārā	21.740	276,066			000		Bachhal
Pilā	961-14				200		Ahnin
Chhatyapur	64,706	1,765,641	41,094	50	700		Rajput Gaur
Khairabad with subur-							
ban District, 2 Mahals,							
	159,072	2 161,284		50	2,000	•••	Brāhman
	211,804	3,055,339	195,106	20	2,000		Sombensi
Serah	68,832	2,091,983	8,666	60	500	•••	Chauhan
	120,696	831,175	15,581	20	500	•••	Janwar
Gopaman, has a brick							Bāchhal
	107,368,5 260,168	5,620,466	562,037	100	3,000		Rajput Kuar
Khairigarh, one of the	200,100	3,250 522	50,522	80	1,500	•••	Bisen, Rāj- put, Jan-
most important fort-							wār
resses in Hindustan.	1						A 017
There are 6 forts of			İ				
brick and mortar, at				l 1			
a short distance from				1 :		-1	
it .,	43,052-7	1,829,828	***	300	1,500		Bais, Bisen, Bachhal, Kahnah
Kharkhelä	15,815-16	473,727	•••	20	500		Asin?
Khānkhat Man	3,058-11		***		400		Various
	208,288	3 029 479	209.079	50	1.000		Brāhman
Machharhatta	71-069	2.112.176	2.430	30	2,000		Rājput,
Nimkhär, has a brick		-,,	-1400	-	2,000	"	Bachhai
fort	58,775-18	3,566,055	66,055	100	1.500		Ahir
	66.952	200,000	26,385	20	500		
	}					- (
					مجمعها عمر	-	

Sarkär of Lucknow.

Containing 55 Mahals, 3,307,426 Bighas, 2 Biswas. Revenue 80,716,160 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl, 4,572,526 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 2,680. Elephants 36. Infantry 83,450.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Blephants	Castes
Amethi, has a brick fort Unten, has a brick fort Issuli, has a brick fort on the Gumti		3,976,480 2,012,372 4,208,046			2.600 4,600 2,000		Ansāri Sayvid Rājput, Bachgoti

Sarkār of Lucknow—(contd.)

			1	T	1	1		T	·
	The first state of the state of		Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Asiyun	••	••	57,726	830,625	63,421	10	500		Bais, Chan-
.\soha	••		25,027	509,901			400		del Ahnin
Unchahgāon Bilgrāon, l	n	h	33,122	417,957		1000			Bais
fort	148 9	brick	192,800	E 104 119	050 000				
Bangarmau		• ••	242,291	5,124,113 3,802,122		20	1,000 2,000	•••	Sayyid, Bais Rājput, Ghelot
Bijlaur [v.	Bijnor]		80,581	2,505,047	193,961	30	1.000		Chanhān
Bāri Bharimau		••	80,590	1,284,799	51,560	30	1.000		Bais
Pangwan	• •	••	19,409-3	591,406		20	500		Bais
Betholi	••	••	34,727	420,732			500	- 4 0	Bais
Panhan			8,736 8,945	340,191 267,809	8,194		200	•••	Rājput, Jāt
Parsandau	• •		9,111	237,537		•••	200	•••	Bais Rājput,
Pātan	••		5,621	214,256	•••		400		Kumbhi Brāhman,
Bārāshakor									Kunbi
Tahalotar	••	•	9,357	168,584	• • •	•••	300	٠١	Brāhman
Dewi, has	a brick	fort	61,774 88.637	1,123,176 1,938,837	21,441	20	2,000	•••1	Chandel
Deorakh			13,340-9	689,586	174,207	100	2,000		Rājput Bais
Dadrah	• •		10,796	73,737	***	50.	1,500	••••	Rājput
Ranbarpur,	lias a	brick		10,101	•••	01.	*** ;		Kajpat
fort	**	••	75,490	2,425,885	79,225	100	2,000	•••	Bais, Brālı- man
Rāmkot, Sandilah,	Ditto Ditto		9,790 393,700	268,099 10,623,901	837,245	100	9 000		Rājput Ghelot,
Sāipur			39,083-15	2,625,388	28,836	40	1,000		Bāchhai Rājput,
Sarosi	**		2,571	1,239,767	1,567	20	1,000		Chandel Chandel, Rājput
Sātanpu .	••		60,600	1,028,800	10,192	50	2,000		Bais, Brālı- man
Sahāli	**		13,065		130,216	10	500		Rājput
Sidhor*	••		35,794	1,692,281	313,022	100	1,000		Afghān, Rāj-
Sidhpur		1	0 971 4	EDE ALC					put
Sandi	••		9,371-4 7,856-9	505,018 392,313	19 200	150	1,500		Bais Bainnt
Seron	••		5,576	210,316	13,792 2,858	***	1,000	•••	Rājput, Rājput,
Patchpur, h	as a b	rick	-,5.0		2,000				Shaikhzādah,
fort	••	••	198,300	3,161,440	i	200 i	2,000	5	Kunbi Rājput
Patehpur Ch Garh Anbhat	ti (Ame	ethi)	106,962	909,176	6,594	10	500		Rājput, Chandel
has a brick	k fort		47,356	1,800,000	i	250	5,500	8	Räjput, Balı-
Kursi, has a	brick	fort	80,817	1 000 044	£0.010		0.000	_1	man Goti
Kākori,	Ditto		31,564	1,693,844 1,134,432	62,919	30	2,000 500	3	Rājput Rājput, Bisen
Khanjrah	••		22,300	818,472		100	2,000		Bais

^{*} Ver. Sayyidpur, Scopur, Sheopur. G. Seedhore.

Sarkar of Lucknow—(contd.)

Kachhandan 22,066 430,596 4,460 500 CI Gorandā 4,803 334,769 200 Br Konbhi 267,089 400 Rr Lucknow with suburban 91,722 1,746,771 241,195 200 3,000 Sh	rāhman handel rāhman ājput haikhzādah,
Gorandā 4,803 334,769 200 Br Konbhi 5,940 267,089 400 Rr Lucknow with suburban district 91,722 1,746,771 241,195 200 3,000 Sh	rāhman Žjput
Konbhi 5,940 267,089 400 Ri Lucknow with subur- ban district 91,722 1,746,771 241,195 200 3,000 Sh	äjput
Lucknow with suburban district 91,722 1,746,771 241,195 200 3,000 Sh	,
ban district 91,722 1,746,771 241,195 200 3,000 Sh	haikhzādah.
	Brāhman, Kāyath
	ais .
fort 169,269 4,479,250 108,545 30 1,000 Be	ais
	ais
	ajput, Bais
Morãon has a brick fort 68,847 1,698,444 4,806 150 2,000 Ri	ājput, Bais
Madiãon 49,422 1,136,213 32,900 30 500 Ba	arkhalā*
Mahonah 50,895 977,860 8,805 50 2,000 Ri	ājput
Manawi, has a brick	
	ussalmāu, Rājput
Makrāed 17,959 576,200 5,247 1,000 Ri	ajput, Bais
Harha, has a brick fort 163,226 2,450,522 6,509 100 1,500 Ba	ais
Hardoi 11,734 359,748 6.028 300 Br	rähman
	ais

^{*} Here a word illegible, Barkalä is an inferjor class of Rājputs found in Western and Central parganahs of Bulandshahr.

The Subah of Agra, the Royal Residence.

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from Ghātampur on the Allahabad side to Palwal on that of Delhi is 175 kos. In breadth it extends from Kanauj to Chanderi in Mālwah. On the east lies Ghātampur; to the north, the Ganges; to the south Chanderi, and to the west, Palwal. It possesses many rivers, of which the principal are the Jumna and the Chambal. The former flows down from the northern mountains, the latter rises at Hāsilpur in Mālwah and unites with the Jumna at Kālpi. Ranges of hills lie scattered to the south. The excellence of its climate is almost unrivalled. Agriculture is in perfection. and flowers of all kinds abound. Sweet-scented oil, and betel-leaf of the first quality are here obtained, and its melons and grapes rival those of Persia and Transoxiana. Agra is a large city and possesses a healthy climate. river Jumna flows through it for five kos, and on either bank are delightful villas and pleasant stretches of meadow.

is filled with people from all countries and is the emporium of the traffic of the world. His Majesty has built a fort of red stone, the like of which travellers have never recorded. It contains more than five hundred buildings of masonry after the beautiful designs of Bengal and Gujerat which masterly sculptors and cunning artists of form fashioned as architectural models. At the eastern gate are two elephants of stone with their riders graven with exquisite skill. In former times Agra was a village dependent on Bianah. Sultan Sikandar Lodi made it his capital, but his present Majesty embellished it and thus a matchless city has arisen. On the opposite side of the river is the Char Bagh, a memorial of Babar.* It was the birth-place of the writer of this work, and the last resting-place of his grandfather and his elder brother. Shaikh Alau'ddin Majzub, Rafiiu'ddin Safawe and many other saintly personages also repose there.

Near the city on the banks of the river Jumna is a village called Rangtah, a much frequented place of Hindu

worship.

Fatehpur was a village formerly one of the dependencies of Bianah, and then called Sikri, situated twelve kos distaut from Agra. After the accession of his Majesty, it rose to be a city of the first importance. A masonry fort was erected and two elephants carved in stone at its gate inspire astonishment. Several noble buildings also rose to completion and although the royal palace and the residences of many of the nobility are upon the summit of the hill, the plains likewise are studded with numerous mansions and gardens. By the command of his Majesty a mosque, a college and a religious house were also built upon the hill, the like of which few travellers can name. In the neighbourhood is a tank, twelve nos in circumference and on its embankment his Majesty constructed a spacious courtyard, a minar, and a place for the game of Chaugan; elephant fights were also exhibited. In the vicinity is a quarry of red stone whence columns and siabs of any dimensions can be excavated. In these two cities under his Majesty's patronage carpets and fine stuffs are woven and numerous handicraftsmen have full occupation. Bianah in former

The old Agra of the Lodi dynasty lay on the left bank of the river where traces of its foundations still exist. The modern city is on the right bank and is the work of Akbar. The fort was built in A.D. 1888. Bahar's garden later called Hasht Bihishi, or Nursfshön Gardens, now called the Ram Bigh.

times was a large city. It possesses a fort containing many buildings and cellars, and people at the present day still find therein weapons of war and copper utensils. There is also a lofty tower. Fine mangoes grow here, some of them more than two pounds in weight. Sugar of extreme whiteness is also manufactured. Here too is a well, with the water of which mixed with white sugar, they make cakes weighing two pounds more or less which they call kandaurah (with no other water will they solidify) and these are taken to the most distant parts as a rarity. Indigo of finest quality is here to be obtained, selling at ten to twelve rupees per man weight. Excellent hinna (Lawsonia inermis) is also to be found, and here are the tombs of many eminent personages.

Todah Bhim is a place at a distance of three kos, from which is a pit full of water, the depth of which none has sounded. Mines of copper and turquoise are said to exist, but the expense of working them exceeds their income.

Mathura (Muttra) is a city on the banks of the Jumna: it contains some fine temples, and is one of the most famous of Hindu shrines. Kālbi is a town on the banks of the Jumna. It is the resting-place of many saintly personages. Excellent sugarcandy is here manufactured. In the time of the Sharqi princes, it was tributary to Delhi. When Qadir Khan affecting the airs of sovereignty proclaimed his independence, Sultan Hoshang marched from Malwah and having chastised him, reinstated him in the government. Sultan Muhmud of the Sharqi dynasty, however, seized it in turn from Nasir Khān, the son of Qadir Khan.

Kanauj was in ancient times the capital of Hindustan. Gwalior is a famous fortress and an elephant carved in stone at its gate fills the beholder with astonishment. contains some stately edifices of its former rulers. climate is good. It has always been noted for its exquisite singers* and lovely women: here is an iron mine.

Alwar (Ulwar) produces glass and woollen carpets.

Bairāt possesses a copper mine, so profitable that from a man weight of ore, they obtain 35 sers of metal. A silver mine is also said to exist but it does not pay to work it. [A dependency of Narnol, but now in Jaipur.]

Near the hill of Narnol is a well at which the Hindus

worship and when the tithi of Amawas falls on a Friday,

^{*} According to the S. ul M. the famous Tansen was one of these. See Vol. I. pp. 611 of the Ain.

it overflows at sunrise and water can be drawn without the aid of a rope.

At Singhānah, Udaipur and Kotputki are mines of copper. In the town of Kānori are many cold and hot

springs.

The Subah contains thirteen Sarkārs, two hundred and three Parganahs (fiscal subdivisions). The measured lands are 2 krors, 78 lakhs, 62,189 bighas, 18 biswas. The revenue is 54 krors, 62 lakhs, 50,304 dāms. (Rs. 13,656,257-9-6). Of this, 1 kror, 21 lakhs, 5,703½ dāms (Rs. 302,642-9) are Suyurghāl. The provincial force consists of 50,681 cavalry, 577,570 Infantry and 221 elephants.

Sarkār of Agra.

Containing 33 Mahals, 91,007,324 Bighas. Revenue 191,819,265, Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 14,566,818 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 15,560. Infantry 100,800.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suvur- ghái D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Agra with suburban district Etäwan, has brick fort on the Jamna	891,990-5 284,106	44,956,458 10,739,825	8,824 454 151,362				Lodh, &c.
O'l [=Ao, near Dig.] Oudehi, (Elliot Odhi)	158,377-9 274,067	5,509,477 2,884,385	81,542 78,165	(! !	Brāhman Rājput,
Ud [Udai] Bijwārah has a stone fort	203,505 663,28 6	1,003,848 10,966,580	35,870	100	1	1	
Bianali with suburban dist. has a stone fort	285.442	7,110,104	562,205	50	100		Ahir, Jat
Bāri	276,964 808,509	5,064,158 5,505,4 6 0	57,414 255,460	300	1		various
Banāwar [?Bhandor]	12,890	155,300		30	400	J	castes Bargujar

^{*}A Surajbansi tribe of Rajputs. Lodh, a widely apread tribe, chiefly itshermen. Bhadauriya is a branch of the Chauhan Rajputs. For Oudshi I suggest Uchen and for Bhasker either Pakeser or Bisawar. [J. 8.]

· Sarkār of Agra—(contd.)

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Todah Bhim .	. 264,103-11	3,787,075	13,961	100	1000		Rājput, Thatthar¹
Bhaskar		2,891,100	15,325	20	700		Rājput, Brāhman,
Jelesar, has a brick fort	004 000	6,885,400	412,080	400	5000) 	Ahir Ghelot, Suraj Bänkrah
Chandwar, has a brick fort on the	*						
Jumna Chausath [Chau	407,652	11,442,250	60,342	200			
muha]	0000	4,182,048	674,315	50	1000		Rājput, Brehman, Jat, Ahir
Khānwah Dholput, has a brick fort on the Cham-		2.912,495	222,628	30	4000		Rājput, Jat
bat	284.087	9,729,311	255,747	200	4000	• • •	Sikarwār ^a
Räpri, has a brick fort	477,201-11	13,508,035	173,407	200	4000		Chauhān, descen- dants of Rāwat- Bāhan
Rajhohar [?Raja khera]		1,694,208	48,023				Rājput
Songar Songri	90,599	985,700	7,822	70	500	• • •	Rājput, Chauhān
Fatehpur, has a stone fort		8,494,005	597,346	500	4000	•••	Shaikhzādah, Chishti, Rājput, Sankerwāl
Kotumbar Mehāwan, has s	.,	745,951	•••	50	30 0	•••	Rājput, Jat
brick fort		6,784,780	284,787	200	2000		Sayyid, Brāhman
Mathurë, do Maholi		1,155,807	69,770		500	•••	•••
Mangotiah [Mang-		1,501,246		30	400		Rājput, &c.
tai] Mandëwar	10 100	1,148.075 132,500	79,355	20 150	800	•••	Do. Chauhān
Wazirpar	1 ms ann	2,009 255	9,255	20			Rajput
Hindeun	482,930	9,049,881	801,980	100		•••	Rājput, Brāhman, Jat
Hatkant, has a brick fort	006.901-12	5,693,807	43,231	2000	20,000		Chauhan,
Milek	137,421	2,789,494	80,681	20			Bisadauriya Rājput of various castes.

⁵ Gujars converted to Islam. Riliot, I, 101.
⁵ Sikarwar, a branch of the Bargujar Rajputa.

Sarkār of Kālpi.

Containing 16 Mahals, 300,023 Bighas, 9 Biswas, Revenue, 49,356,732 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 278,2901 Dāms. Castes various, Cavalry 1,540. Elephants 30. Infantry 34,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
U'lai [? Urai] Bilāspur	126 888-14	1,297,379 3,714,547	18,110		50,000		Rājput Kachhwāh
Bhudekh	72 930-14			50			O1 . 11 to - 11 do - 15
Derāpur	103,085	1,760,750		50			
Deokali [?Churki]	109,652	1,466,985		200			Brähman
Rath, has a brick fort	510,970-16	9,270,894	270,894	70	3000	9	Afghan, Tur-
Diamon	40.000	100 000			700		koman Rājput,
Raepur	43,166-8	120,000		60			
Suganpur [?Jagmanp]	•••	1,507,877	58 664	60	1000	•••	Rājput, Bais Chauhān,
Shahpur	•••	8,848,420	240,747	300	3000	0	Malikzādah
Kalpi, with suburban	i						
district	i	4,871,053	203.909	4000	5000	10	Various .
Kanār [? Karmār]		4,943,096		100	2000		Sengar*
Chandaut		8,027,917		50			Parihār
Khandelah, (Rlliot		0,000,000					
Khurela)	86,053-11	871,733	15,008	20	1000		Rājput
	184,080	1,617,257	4.2801	50	1000		Rajput
					_ , , ,		Kumbi
Hamirpur	404,797-6	4,803,828	182,245	200	2000		Kumbi

Sarkār of Kanauj.

Containing 30 Mahals, 2.776,673 Bighas, 16 Biswas. Revenue 52,584,624 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 1,184,655 Dāms. Castes various. Cavairy 3,765. Infantry 78,350.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Bhongāon, has a fort and near it a tank called Somnät full of water extremely sweet Bhojpur Tälgräon	337,105 180,974-13 74,100-10	4,577.010 3,446.787 8,387,076	53 316 104 706 128,568	100e 150 20	10,000 2000 1000		Chauhān Kharwār Rājput, Mussalmān

^{*} Songer, a branch of the Agnibausi Rajputs.

Sarkar of Kanauj-(Contd.)

		Bighas Biswas	Revenu D.	e Suyur- ghāi D		Infantry	Custes
Bilhaur	•••		2.921 389 2 828 347 1,8 7,600	216 741 45,656	300 20 100	10 H	Chandel Rājput Rājput,
Pati Alipur .	?Agath]	39.418-11	1.153 682 566 997	8,060 2,497	20 50 10	500 500 200	Chauhān Rājput Sengar Rājput of
Bārā . Phapund . Chhabrāmau .		8,739-14 111.546 76,318-7	400,000 5 432 391 1,522,028	19,813 22 128	10 300 20	300 2 00 500	
Deohā .		11,950-12	483,171	· 79.045	20	3 00	Chauhān Chauhān Bais, Dhā- kar
Saket Sonj [=Sonkh] Sihāwai Sheoli Sakatpur Sakrāon	•••	132 955-9 64,070-6 78,574-9 12 523 22 561 19 817-10		158,310 21,969 2 253	100 200 20 10 300 10	3000 3000 500 300 4000 500	Chauhān Dhākar Gāuruah ^s Rājput Rājput, Bais Rājput
Sahār Sauriklı	••	25,195-8 10,089-5	846,553 465,328	1,640 7,138	30 20	50 0[Chauliān,
Sikandrapur Ud		4,964.14			10	200	Dh àkar Gauruali, Brāhman
Saror [Barour] Sikandarpur Atı Shamsābād, has	a fort	20,121-16 36,084-17	269,622	2,044 <u>1</u> 6,511	5	150	Chauhān, Sengur Rājput
on the Ganges Kanauj, with dist. has a brid one of the gre	suburb. ck fort : at capi-		7,138,452	19,603	400	2000	Rathor
tale of Hindu	stān	126,255-12	2,470,743	222,036	200	10.000	Shaikhzādah, Farmuli, Afghān,
Kampil	••	139,808-6	1,651,586	30,370	100	200	Chauhān Rājput, Chauhān, Panwār
Kurāoli Malkusah	••		1.409.988 1,500,000		20 300	1000! 15,000	Räiput Räjput, Ghe- lot
Nānāman³	••	3,329-5	136,921	···	200	200	Rājput, Brāhman

¹ Dhākar, a Rajput tribe scattered over Agra, Mathura, Etawa and Rohilkhand. Elliot, I. 78.

² Gauruah, an inferior clau of Rājputs often confounded with Gaurāliurs but quite distinct. Elliot, I. 115.

Sarkar of Kol, (Koil).

Containing 21 Mahals, 2,461,730 Bighas. Revenue 54,992,940 Dāms in money, Suyurghāl 2,094,840 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 4,035. Infantry 78,950.

		1			,	_	
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Klephants	Castes
Atrauli	320,569	5,454,459	5400,459	500	9500		Rājput, Chauhān,
Akbarābād	118,389	3,003,409	23,06 0	500	5000		Afghān Rājput, Puv dir ¹
Aliar, has a brick fort on the Ganges	45,764	2,106,554	87,140	20	400		Musalmān, Brāhman
Pahāsu Bilrāon	55 060 111,878	2 502 562 2,131,765	56,561	100 50	2000 1000		Bargujar Afehān Chauhān
Pachlānā	39 128	624,825		200	5000		Rajput, Gaurāhar
Tappal, has a brick fort Thanah Farida	163,046	1,802,571	2,571	- 1	8000	i	Chauhān
[-Pharihā] Jalāli	63 847 145,801	2,957,9:0	86,352	20 500	6000	1	Rajput, Bāchhal Rājput, Pun-
Jaion							dir
Chandaus Khurjah Dibhāi, has a brick	42 469 89,726	1 749 238 3 703,020	36,662 583,056	100 200	2000 5000		Chauhāu Bargujar
fort	48 539	2,169 939	72,869	50	1000		Do.
Sikandrah Rāo, has a brick fort	83,480	4,412,381	290,458	400	4000	•••	Afghāu, Pundir
Soron, has a brick fort	40.656	975.019	16,900	20	400		Sayyid, Raj-
Sidhupar	70,567	989.458		200			put Rājput Surki
Shikarpur	44,850	1,974.827	50,291	250	2000		Savyid, Shaikh
Kol, has a brick fort	548,655	10,412 305	445	450	29 ,0 50		zādah, Bargujar Chauhān, Janghārah
Gangeri	53,545	372,050	31,849	25	200		Afghān,
Marahrah Malakpur	205 537 30,845	3,679 582 1.446.132					Rājput Chauhān Pundir, Chauhān
Nuh, has a brick fort, (Elliot, Noh)	130,299	1,311,955	29,160	100	3000		

Pundir is one of the numerous branches of the Gujar clan. Elliot, I. 19.
A turbulent tribe of Rājputs of the Tuar clan in the S. E. Rohilkhand.
Riliot, I, 141.

Sarkar of Gwalior.

Containing 13 Mahals, 1,146,465 Bighas, 6 Biswas. Revenue 29,683,649 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 240,850 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 2,490. Infantry 43,000.

	Bighas Bi zwas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Anhon, has a fort Badrhattah, Do	106 899-14 63,914-18			200 300	4000 5000		Tonwar Do., Rāj-
Chinaur Do Jhalodā [Jakhoda] fort Dandroli	140.140-16 32 677-15 197,316-11	219 306		100 100 50			Gujar
Räepur Sirseni [Sirsi]	87,797-17 94 243	1,017,721 832 128	***	40 200	700 5000		war Tonwar Sikarwāl
Samauli [Silauli] Sarbandah, has a brick fort Alāpur, has a fort;	46,284-8 22,124-17	2,001,344 267,497		50 200	700 6000	•••	Bāgri Sikarwāl
during Sultān Alā- uddin's time it was called Akhār'	211,229	5,128,7 66	***	50	500		Brāhman
Gwälior with suburban district	345,657	12 483.072				1	Rājput, Ton- war
Khatoli, has a fort	198,270	3,105,315	6,450	200	4000		Jat

Sarkār of Irij.

Containing 16 Mahals, 2,202,124 Bighas, 18 Biswas. Revenue 37,780,421 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 456,493 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 6,160. Elephants 190. Infantry 68,500.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghál D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Blephants	Castes
Inj		2,922,436 in money.	101,661	100	5000	10	Käyath
Parhār, has a brick fort Bhānder	752,791 257 042-18	5,237,096	172,380 100,688	940 50	20500 2000	50 5	Afghān,
Bijpur [Bijawar] Pāudor [Pandwaha)	30,635 8,951	1,391,097 464 111	•••	3000 100			Käyath Tanwer Parihär

Var. Akhar, Kahar, Sehar.

* Probably Panwari.

Sarkar of Irij-(contd.)

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayar- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Jhatra, 4 mahals, has- a brick fort Riābānah¹, has a fort	12,072	11,787,904 500,000		4000 50			
Shāhzādapur Khatolah &c. 3 mahals,	21,257	450,781	•••	•••	•••		
has a fort	***	3,000,000		100	5000	20	Gond
Kajhodah [?Gahrauli] Kidār	***	750,200		•••	***		•••
	***	120,000		•••	***		""
Kunch, has a fort	155,320	1,851,802		50			Kumbi
Khakes, has a fort	89,233	1,343,078	7,673	50		• • •	Kachhwä- hah
Kānti Khāerah, [Khārela] has i	***	240,000	***	20	5000	10	Gond
a brick fort	222,557	4,776,357	46,729	200	5000	10	Kachhwi-
Maholi	26,581	502,102	***	100	10000	10	Parihär

Sarkār of Bayānwān.

Containing 27 Mahals, 762,014 Bighas. Revenue 8,459,296 Dams. Suyurghāl 82,662 Dams. Castes various. Cavalry 1,105. Infantry 18,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Antri, yields excellent quality of betel leaf from which the reve- nue is chiefly derived Amwari [Amola]	906,140 223,000				100 red und	ler	Various Mārwār Gauruah
Atiwan [Araon]	35,958	165,165	54,114	18	260	j	Gond,
Autelah Rayānwān	29,444 86,241	32,455 801,275	1,257 30,160	320	100 3000		Geuruah Brähman Pundir, Pan- wär
Benwär	17,329	457,439	6,558	20	300		Brihman.
Paränchah [Paraich]	89,784	396,193	21,541	30	500		Khidma- tiyah Bundela

¹ Ridbanah = ? Rebei ck map.

Kedpur. Khankes. Khakesh. Ganges. Khaksen,

Sarkar of Bayanwan—(contd.)

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Casten
Badnun [Bardun] Bhāsandā	•••	275,000 169,040		10			Bundela Panwar
Chinaur, has a fort	50,973	548,631	3,800	10			Ahir, Brah-
Jarhali Jagtān [?=Jignā] Dahāilah,* here a large lake, full of water-	19,865	144,055 128,660	400	10	800 150		man Panwär Varions
lilies water-	18,127	17,308	•••	20	350		Brahmäu, Gujar
Ruchādah [Ruchera]	94,223	472,839	15,702	10	200		Kāyath, Brāhman
Ratangarh, has a fort Roherah Sohandi, has a brick	70,523 2 309	855,995 1,017,682	•••	200 50	4000 500		Jat
fort [? Suchendi]	81,655	896,959	***	800	5000		Panwār
Kanaulah [Karaia]	11,764	364,968	***	10	200		Gujar, Jat
Karharah !	,	277,000	•••		•••		Mentioned under Raten- garh
Kaheod, † has a fort in						!	
the mountains	27,290 17,403	196,904 162,661	3,036	•••	200 200		Brāhman Ahir, Jot
Khand Bajrah the	33,782	138,934		25	300		Bundela,
greater	00,702	100,004	***	23	300	***	Tat
Do. the lesser	1,602	68,470		10	200		Mina, Gujer
Kherihāt Kajhārah, has a stone	24,318	112,079			800	•••	Do.
fort on a hill	17,269	82,291	1	5	300	l., l	Gujar
Kadwāhah	7,169	4 ,296	1	50	300		Ahir
Mau, has a fort	59,070	850,429	5,189	50	10 0	•••	Ahir

^{*} Dahailah [Ind. Atlas. 51 S.E.], 16 m. due east of Narwar, on the way to Antri, has a very large lake. It was 2 miles to the west of this place, according to T. that Abu! Fazl lost his life in the ambuscade set for him by the Bundelā Chief Bir Sing. Dabra in the maps 13 miles south of Antri and 42 m. n. of Jhansi, has no lake, and cannot be this mahal. † Prob. Kāmod of map.

Sarkar of Narwar.

Containing 5 Mahals, 394,353 Bighas. Revenue 4,233,322 Dāms. Suyurghāl 95,994 Dāms. Castes, Rajput Tonwar. Cavalry, 500. Infantry, 20,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Baroi, has a fort; some of the villages near the Saklā are of great productive	88,065	638,700					
value Bauli (? Paori), has a fort on the Sakla	242,456	141,915					•••
Seopuri, has a stone fort Kolāras has 2 forts, one near the village of Barwā. There is a	24,975	1,250,000	•••		****		•••
small hill with a waterfall. It is a place of Hindu worship Narwar with suburb: dist. has a stone fort. In certain parts of the fort are ancient	133,10	764,880	14,882		1100		•••
Hindu temples of stone	25 ,522	438,025	81,312		 		

Sarkār oi Mandrāel.

Containing 14 Mahals. 65,642 Bighas. Revenue 3,738,084 Dāms. Castes Rājput, Jādon. Cavalry 4,000. Infantry 5,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.		Bighas Biswas	
fort on a hill and	6,413 6,866	261,746	Kharnuu Kahtoni Mandrāel, has a f	1,998 1,988	
Bagrond Jhakwār (= Jakoda) Dāng Makhori	;	498,978	on a hill and river Chambal on a north	the the 18,740	897,794

[■] Var. 1310 and 764,380 for the area and revenue,

Sarkar of Alwar.

Containing 43 Mahals, 16,62,012 Bighas. Revenue 39,832,204 Dāms. Suyurghāl 699,212 Dāms. Cavalry 6,504. Infantry 42,020.

							·
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Alwar, has a stone fort on a hill	85,084	2,679,820	350 066	10	1,500		Khānzādah of Mewāt, des- cendants of Bahādur
Anthlah Bhābru Umran Ismāilpur	24,956 39,762 28,988	850,731 642,153 503,840	1,043 2,266	20 20 40	500 1,000 500		Khān Kachhwāhah Baqqāl Khānzādah of Mewāt
Bairāt, has a stone fort (Parāt, p. 103) Bihrospur Bahādurpur Bharkol	28,522 119,015 60,451 74,281	7,201,791 2,621,968 1,950,000 678,733	9,317 95,000		1,000 2,000 2,000 1,000	• • •	Baqqāl Khānzādah of Mewāt Do. Do. Do. Do.
Balhār (? Bairohar)	58,664	448,612	***	40	500		Bargujar, Rājput
Barodah Pateh Khān	16,074	201,059	1,059	30	800		Mewät Khänzädah o
Pankin	28,726	195,680		5.	50		Khānzādah and Meo.
Baróda [Bagar] Meo Bhudah Thal Bhiwāi Basānah (=Baswa) Bajherah	13,062 80,606 14,918 20,789 2,663	158,045 146,000 122,088 100,356 104,890	•••	50 5 5 5 10	300 50 50 50 50		Do. Various Do. Kh ä nz äda h
Balheri (Bālhattah) Jalālpur	6,565 46,840	188,507 883,599		30	500		and Meo. Bargujar Khānzādah and Meo.
Hasanpur Badohar	20,353	947,871	8,020	100	300		Do.
Rasenpur Kori, (Gori) Hājipur, has a stone	47,740	1,259,059	i	120	300		Do.
fort Deoli Săjari	26,489	456,779		150	1,000		Chauhān
Deon sajari	83,186	1,600,000			1,000		Bargujar Meo.
				1		1	

¹ Mentioned in Elliot as in ancient times a well-known lawless plundering race, driven out of the Etawah tract by the Senghers and Chauhāns. According to Sherring (III, 90) they are an indigenous tribe converted to Islām, but retaining a good many Hindu customs; now an agricultural people divided into 12 clans.

.Sarkar of Alwar—(contd.)

		_					
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Dharā	12,338	512,613	5,015	100	508		Khānzādah
Rāth	6,030	229,741	3,744	10	100		and Meo.
Sakhān	18,790	804,262		100	700	1	Chauhān
Khohari kana	2,208	4,359,272	96,919	900	5,000	***	Khānzādah of Mewāt, A'mā and Duar (obscure text)
Khelohar	58,276	1,459,048		,	1,000	į	Meo
Kol [=Gol] Dhoār	33,956	627,100		30	500	ļ	Rājput
Kiyārah	307	600,000		100	1,000	1	
Khirali	26,746	465,640	23,150	100	500		Sayyid, Gu- jar
Ghāt Sudan (or Seon)			:		İ		1
has a fort	16,494	357,110	1	1	i	1	
Kohrānā [=Ghosrana]	3,565	166,666		300	1.000	1	Māhat (?)
Mandāwar, has a brick		t				1	
fort	100,322	1,889,097	5,608	500	1,000	1	Chauhān
Maujpu	44,140	639,858	12,022	300	500	l	Abbāsi
Mubarakpur (Mārapur)	18,636	514,198		50			Khānzādah
Mongona [Mangwar]	38,112	475,260		100			Do.
Mandauar	17,800	27,051		4,			Chauhān
Naugšon (Nowgong)	23,771	2,056,512	34,296	70	500		Khānzādah
Nähargarh	35,452	804,194		20	200	1	Do.
Harsoli	11,800	227,096		10	100		Meo
Harpur	16,944	686,695	3,255	20	4,000	ļ	Jat
Harsānā	4.025	208,281	1	40	500	1	Meo

Sarkar of Tijarah.

Containing 18 Mahals. 740,001 Bighahs. 5½ Biswas. Revenue 17,700,460 Dāms. Suyunghāl 701,761½. Cavalry 1,227. Infantry 9,650.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghā! D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Indri, has fort on a hill T'jinah [Uchaira]	134,150 33, 328	1,995,216 428,347	26,096 22,796	400 45		•••	Khānzādah of Mewat Khānsādah, Thathar

Sarkār of Tijārah—(contd.)

			`				
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Umrā Umri	8,107	307,037		10	100		Thathar,
Bisru	35,703	215,800	5,354	10	200		Khānzādalı, Meo
Pur	2,476	540,645	1,559	10	200		Thathar
fort Bhasohrā, lias stone	75,148	1,329,350	34,312	20	300	ļ	Mec
fort Tijārah, has a fort	57.778 131.960	1,416 715 3,603,596	25471 204.419	30 500	400 2,000		Do. Do.
Jhimrāwat, has a stone						***	
fort on a hill	22,632-11	496,202	31,283		300		Do.
Khānpur	9,893	195,620	•••	20	150		Do.
Sākras	12,106	460,088	50,411	14	150		Do.
Sānthādāri	7,712-11	406.811	267,470	200	***		Do.
Firozpur, situated on				•		'	
the skirt of a hill in						1	
which there is an				i		1 1	
ever-flowing fountain						}	
with an image of			i				
Mahadeo set up; a	'			i			
Hindu Shrine	64,150	3.042.642	69.044	50	1.000		Do.
Fatehpur Mungarta		1,135,140	12,955	10	200		Do.
Kotlah, has a brick fort	10,000	.,,,,,,,,,,	12,000			,	
on a hill on which							
there is a reservoir 4							
kos in circumference	71,265	1,552,196	7,017	30	700		Khānzādah, Gujar
Karherah, (Ghāserah,						Ι΄	anlui.
Policial	9,785	830,076		40	200	1	Meo
Khora ka Thanah. So	Ø,/00	220,070	***	10	200	***	MICO
in MSS., but Elliot				į			
Khawā)	7045	100 710	_	10	050		Do.
Naginān [Noganwa]	7,945	168,719	9.570	10	250	•••	Do.
vielmen [mokanas]	7,215-19	377 257	3,572	100	150		DO.
				- 1		, ,	

Sarkar of Narnol.

Containing 16 Mahals. 2,080,046 Bighas. Revenue 50,046,703 Dāms. Suyurghal 775,103 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 7,520. Infantry 37,220.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Bārh	146,754	2,060,662	•••	100	1,000		Chauhān, Rājput, Musalmān, Khandār. (Ver. Ke- dār).

Sarkar of Narnol-(contd.)

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D,	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Bābāi, has a stone fort and a coppermine; hills adjacent Barodah [Bahora] Rāna Chālkaliānah	78.426 47,266 517,540	920,170 592,995 7,744,027		300	3,000 2,000 5,000		Parihār. Chauhān. Jat of the Sangwān clan.
Jhojeun [Jhajlai], has a stone fort on the skirt of a hill	95,331	2,329.069		2000	3,000		Kiyām- Khāni.*
Singhanh Udaipur, has a coppermine and inint for copper coin- age	•••	11,881,629 in money	3,351	400	1,000		
of Zerpur in this Par- ganah, a large Hindu temple	10,723	4,356,189	91,577	1000	4,000		Rājput, Mu- salmān, Hālu. [Jat]
Kotputli, has a stone fort and in the village of Bhandhārah is a copper mine in work- ing	170,674	· 4,2 96 ,837	29,425	700	4,000	·	Tonwär Räj-
Kanori [?Kanti), has 3 forts in three villages Khaudelä	150,297	2,721.126 : 1.300,000 in mouey.			5,000 2,000		Tonwär. Räjput, Kachhwä-
Khodāna [or Konodana] Lapoti [=Pataudi] Villages at the foot of the mountain where	18.493 88,281	908,109 1.512,470		20 100			hah. Jat. Chauhān.
is a copper mine. In that of Raepore is a copper mine and a mint and the stream there is polluted by it	176,650 214,218 356,293	274,360 5,913. 2 28 4,28 2,837	549,161	500	2,000 2 000 2,000		Narbān. [Chanhan] Ahir. Kiām Khān Afghan, Mākar.(?)

^{*} Called Käim Khäni by Biliot and Sherring. They are Chauhāns converted to Islam. Their ancestors fought against Baber in 1528.

Sarkar of Sahar.

Containing 7 Mahals. 763,474 Bighas. Revenue 5,917,569 Dāms. Suyurghāl 109,447 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 265. Infantry 1,000.

			Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayurghā! D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Pahāri Bandhauli Sahār, has a f	ort	**	196,422 25,980 865,895	1,228,999 441,840 2,449,816	26,045 6,840 21,678	20 10 200	700 900 7,000	-	Meo, Thathar Jat &c. Bāchhai,
Kāmah	••	••	90,500	508,724	1,229	10	200	•••	Gujar, Jat, Kachhwä- hah. Meo, Jat Ahir
Koh Mujahid Nunherah	[Q.	Kho]	25,769 50,816	170, 36 5 618,115	17,515		200	•••	Meo, Jat,
Hodal	••	••	78,500	462,710	33,140	10	200		jat &c.

THE SUBAH OF MALWA.

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from the extreme point of Garha (Māndla) to Bānswārah is 245 kos. Its breadth from Chanderi to Nandarbar is 230 kos. To the east lies Bandhun [Rewa]; to the north Narwar; to the south Baglanah; to the west Gujarat and Ajmer. There are mountains to the south. Its principal rivers are the Narbadah, the Sibrā, the Kāli Sind, the Betwa, and the Godi.* At every two or three kos clear and limpid streams are met on whose banks the willow grows wild, and the hyacinth and fragrant flowers of many hues, amid the abundant shade of trees. Lakes and green meads are frequent and stately palaces and fair country homes breathe tales of fairyland. The climate is so temperate that in winter there is little need of warm clothing, nor in summer of the cooling properties of saltpetre. The elevation of this province is somewhat above that of other areas of the country and every part of it is cultivable. Both harvests

^{*} The Godi is a tributary of the Narmada.

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are excellent, and especially wheat, poppy, sugarcane, mangoes, melons and grapes. In Hāsilpur the vine bears twice in the year, and betel leaves are of fine quality. Cloth of the best texture is here woven. High and low give opium to their children up to the age of three years. The peasants and even grain dealers are never without arms. Ujjain is a large city on the banks of the Sipra. It is regarded as a place of great sanctity and wonderful to relate, at times the river flows in waves of milk. The people prepare vessels and make use of it, and such an occurrence brings good fortune to the reigning monarch.

In the 43rd year of the Divine Era when the writer of this work was proceeding to the Deccan by command of his Majesty, a week before his arrival at *Ujjain*, on the 16th of the Divine month of Farwardin (March) four gharis of the night having elapsed, this flow occurred, and all conditions of people, Musalman and Hindu alike talked of it.*

In the neighbourhood are 360 places of religious worship for Brāhmans and other Hindus. Close to this city is a place called Kāliyādah, an extremely agreeable residence where there is a reservoir continually overflowing yet ever full. Around it are some graceful summer dwellings, the monuments of a past age.

Garha† is a separate State, abounding with forests in which are numerous wild elephants. The cultivators pay the revenue in mohurs and elephants. Its produce is sufficient to supply fully both Gujarāt and the Deccan.

Chanderi was one of the largest of ancient cities and possesses a stone fort. It contains 14,000 stone houses, 384 markets, 360 spacious caravanserais and 12,000 mosques.

Tumun is a village on the river Betba (Betwā) in which mermen are seen. There is also a large temple in which if a drum is beaten, no sound is heard without.

In the Sarkar of Bijagarh there are herds of wild

Another reading adopted by Gladwin is "partook of it." Gladwin while rejecting this fable, suggests a sudden impregnation of the river with chalk.

[†] It was the ancient capital of the Gond Dynasty of Garba Mindle and its rained keep known as the Madan Mahal still crowns the granite range along the foot of which the town stretches for about 2 miles. 1. G.

elephants. Mandu is a large city; the circumference of it. fort is 12 kos, and in it there is an octagonal tower. Fo some period it was the seat of government and stately edifices still recall their ancient lords. Here are the tombs of the Khilji Sultāns. A remarkable fact is that in summer time water trickles from the domed roof of the mausoleum of Sultān Hoshang and the simpleminded have long regarded it as a prodigy, but the more acute of understanding can satisfactorily account for it. Here the tamarind grows as large as a cocoanut and its kernel is extremely white.

Learned Hindus assert that a stone is met with in this country which when touched by any malleable metal turns it into gold, and they call it Pāras. They relate that before the time of Bikramājit, there reigned a just prince nameć Rājā Jai Sing Deva who passed his life in deeds of beneficence. Such a stone was discovered in that age, and became the source of vast wealth. The sickle of a straw cutter by its action was changed into gold. The man, not understanding the cause, thought that some damage had occurred to it. He took it to a blacksmith by name Mandan to have it remedied, who divining its properties, took possession o it, and amassing immense wealth, garnered a store t delights. But his natural beneficence suggested to him that such a priceless treasure was more fitted for the reigning prince, and going to court he presented it. The Ra7a made it the occasion of many good deeds, and by means of the riches he acquired, completed this fort in twelve years, and at the request of the blacksmith, the greater number of the stones with which it was built, were shaped like an anvil. One day he had a festival on the banks of the Narbadah, and promised to bestow a considerable fortune on his Brahman priest. As he had somewhat withdrawn his heart from worldly goods, he presented him with this stone. The Brahman from ignorance and meanness of soul, became indignant and threw the precious treasure into the river to his subsequent and eternal regret. Its depth there prevented his recovering it, and to this day that part of the river has never been fathomed.

Dhār is a town which was the capital of Rājā Bhoja and many ancient princes. The vine here bears twice in the year when the sun first enters Pisces (February) and Leo (July), but the former of these two vintages is the sweeter.

In the Sarkar of *Handiah* are numerous wild elephants. In *Nandurbar* good grapes and melons are obtainable.

This Subah contains 12 Sarkārs, subdivided into 301 Parganahs. The measured land is 42 lahhs, 66,221 Bighas, 6 Biswas. The gross revenue is 24 krors, 6 lahhs, 95,052 Dāms. (Rs. 6,017,376,-4-15). Of this 11 lahhs, 50,433 Dāms (Rs. 28,760-13) are Suyurghāl. The Provincial force consists of 29,668 Cavalry, 470,361 Infantry and 90 Elephants.

Sarkar of Ujjain.

Containing 10 Mahals, 925,622 Bighas. Revenue 43,827,960 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl, 281,816 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 3,250 Infantry 11,170.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayarghai D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes	
Ujjain with suburban district, has fort of stone below and of brick above	289,560			760	2,000		Ujjainia,	
brick above	200,000	1,888,035	33,323	760	2,000	'']	Răthor	
Unhel	56,841	2,801,972	20,935	130	500		Rājput, Ujjamia, Dhakarah	
Badhnawar has a stone			!	į i	1			
fort		8,056 195			3,000		Rathor, &c.	
Panbihar	36 567	1,937 596	29,400	100		•••	Ujjamia Džinat	
Dipălpur	95,706	6,000 000	•••	500	1,000	···	Rājput, Ujjainia	
Ratlām	94,466	4,421,540	21,548	500	1,000		Rājpat Meh- tar, Soriah	
Sānwer	46,094	2,418,375	138,156	150	300	•••	Rājput, Magwar	
Kampil has a fort part- ly stone, partly brick Khāchrod	59 802 66,626	2,907,817 2,851,044	2,844	150 60	400 1,200	•	Rājput Rājput, Deora [Chauhan],	
Nolāi has a brick fort on the banks of the Chambal [? Naulāns]	198,964	3,861,886	18,015	400	1,900		Dharar or Dhur (?) Bais, Jadon, (Yada)	

Sarkar of Raisin.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayarghal D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Asapuri &c. 6 Mahals .	3 238		178,064	170	945		
This is a	40.816	6.094.970		480	1.000	1	Rājput
Phoni (2 Pomoni)	5,970	316,017			100		
Dhaines	4.097	220,592		115	1,000		
Dalahabas		215 122		265	500		
Whimel Min 171.8.		735,315		200	500	1	Räjput
Think (Theire 2)		215,122		15	100		
Jhatanawi	9.404	184,750		10	150		
Talada	250	13 290	,	2			
Whiliing	775	41.060		2	150		
Dhamoni (=Dharoli)	. 18,007	788,389		5	400	1	
Dicesão	4.932	292,313		75	520		Rājpat
Dilot	1.974	144,000		35	100		
Diwatia [?or Dhānia]		21,502		20	170		
Raisin, with suburb			1				
district has a ston	ėʻl	ł	i	1		i :	
fort on a hill, one o	Æ		l		i		
the famous fortresse	8				! !	1	
of Timelands.	17,497	934,739	•••	80	425		Rājput, Solankhi
Si wā ni ,	. 10,975	580 828		80	945		
Gamelak /3 Datistal	. 5,557	279,346		70	500		
Shahpur	1,673	89 067		5	40		
	. 11,720	645,665		40	100		Rājput
Kherā	10.534	560,037		30	320		
Kesorah	. 8.375	473 267		40	100		
Whom Dhone	7.102	378 460		50	100	1	
Wannach.	6,907	365,707	1	70	500	1	
Marci.		145,566		50	160		
Leherpur		32,267		30	100		
Māhsamand (Dhamand	814	48,024		50	140		!

Sarkar of Garha.*

Containing 57 Mahals. Revenue 10,077,080 Dams. Castes Gond. Cavalry 5,495. Infantry 254,500.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyarghal D.	Cavalty	Infastry	Elephants	Castes
Amodgarh has a brick fort on a hill Bari and Bangar, 2 mahals	•••	239,000 485 000	•••				Gond Do.

^{*}Clearly printed in the Persian text as Garks, but misread by Jarrett as Konsuj. [J. 8.]

Sarkar of Garha—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayarghal D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Bhutgaon Barh, Sana and Jhama-		400,025	•••	50	1,000		Gond
har, 3 mahals Biāwar and Nejli, 2		395,000	••	200	4,000	•••	Do.
mahals		300,000	•••	•••			Do.
Bakhrah	•••	238,000	***	, 100	10,000		Do.
Banākar, Amrel, 2 ma- hals, has a stone fort		140 000		150	10.000		P-
Babai		82,000	***		10,000	' • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Do., Do.
Bairagath has a strong		0,000	•••	,	1.0,000	1	20.
fort		45,000	***	15	200	•	Do.
makals	***	39,000	***	5		اا	Do.
Jetgarh, Bhaldewi and suburb, district, 3					1	: i : i	
mahala		12,000	***	400	30 000		Do.
[ethā (v. Chetia)		12,000	100	100	1,000		Gond Brah-
						, 1	man
Damodah	•••	1,355,000		10	500		Gond
Ohâmeri (=Dhamari)					:		
and Dhamera, 2		49 000		10	200		Do.
Deogaon	***	25,000			1,000		Do.
Deohār, Hurbhat, 2	1 ***	20.000	***	1	. •,•••	(20.
mabala		18,000	***	20	1,000		Do.
Darkarah		18,000		10	200		Do.
Ratanpur and Parhar, 2				1	1		_
mahals		613,000	***	10		;ļ	Do.
Rångarh		400,000	***	200	10.000	***	Do.
Rangarh and Sarangpur		i :			•	1	
(? Singarput) 2 mahals		1,055 000		10	200		Do.
Rasuliyā	1 400	12,000	• • •	200	5,000		Do.
Sitalpur	1	75,000		***		٠	Gond men-
•		-					tioned under Garba
hahpur, Chauragarh, 2		:					
mahals, has a strong						. 1	
fort		\$50,000	***	100	1.000		Gond
Sarha with suburb. dis-	!	1		500	8 000		Do.
trict has a strong fort		1.857.000	***	500	50 000	111	Do.
Cedarpur &c. 12 mahala		1.626,000	***		10,000		Do.
Khatolah	•••	1,000,000		1	1	!'''	
Anji, Karolah, Dunga- rolah, 3 mahala		1,000,000			20,000		Do.
Kandia		382 000		1100	1,000		Do.
Harariya (Dengarh, 2		,			•		
mahals, has a wooden	İ			486			l
fore on a hill		900,000		1500	50,000	ļ	Do.

Sarkar of Chanderi.

Containing 61 Mahals. 554,277 Bighas. 17 Biswas. Revenue 31,037,783 Dams. Suyurghāl 26,931 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 5,970. Infantry 66,085. Elephants 90.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayarghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Klephants	Castes
Udaipur has a stone fort	35,99 \$	832,086		2000	10,400		Bāgri, Bak-
Aron Bran	1,759	216,000 1,759	***	10 10		•••	Khāti Dāngi (Bundelas)
Itiwa	2,315	80,000	•••	15	50		Abir &c.
Bhorāsa has a stone fort on the Betwa Bandarjhalā Bāra &c. 5 mahals. Rach of the 5 Par-	6,783 2,750	765,000 720,000	***	40 25	150 800		Brāhman Brāhman, Jat, Bāgri
ganahs has a fort of which 4 are stone and that of Māl (?) brick	12,074	635, 500	400	500	5,000		Bundela, Kāyath
Badarwas and Ahak, 2 mahals Bajhar (? Pachar) has a brick fort and a large	4,951	304,800	•••	10	170		Ahir
tank and small hill are adjacent .	2,600	174,000	***	20			
Beli [=Bijli] Tāl Baroda [Barwa Sa-	1,253	70 000	***	10	170	•••	Ahir
gar] Tumun, on the Betwa: the residents there	18,619	1,000,000	***	60	8,000		Musalmān
say that mermen in- habit the river. There is also a temple Thatābariyār (? Mano-	6,704	812,504	•••	18	190		Brähmen
har Thana)	403-17	23,500	***	5	10	i 	
Thanwara, Lalatpur &c. 3 mahals, has a stone fort	10,977	619,997	***	•	2,000		Rājput Sāsti

Sarkar of Chanderi-Contd.

							-
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayarghal D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Costes
Chanderi* with subur-							
ban district, 2 ma- hals, has a stone fort Jhājhon, Deohari the	23,021	1,186,388	•••	95	1,350		Ahir
smaller, 2 mahais	6,468	387,480	•••	80	900		Chanhan &c.
Jorsingar &c. 5 mahals	9,568	448,000	***	30	100		Mākhāti
Chirgaon has a fort	5,096	200,000	***	15	150	••••	Khāti
Joäsah	2,550	144,000	***	15	40		Rājput, Khāti
Denhari, the greater, on the river Sindh	16,486					li	_
On the river Sindh Dub Jākar has a stone	10,100	857,998	***	65	200		Do.
fort	8,875	580 500	•••	500	5 000	l	Khichi
Daurāhai &c. 4 mahala	2,600	147.282	***	310	9 000		Various
Ranod has a stone fort and near it a large reservoir which is a					0,000		
Hindu shrine Rodahi &c. 5 mahals, has a stone for above the bandar where	•	364,000		15	6 C		Beqqāl
there is also a large temple	3,652	206,000	•••	20	700		Rājput, Gond
Rāgah (? Rāghogarh)	•	;		!	•	1	
has a stone fort	1,487	84,000		50	150		Rājput, Us Karor
Saronj white muslin of the kind called Mah- mudi is here manu-	i			1		1	
factured	186,427	11,065,788	26,931	100	2,500	¦	Rawäthansi karer (†)
Sahjan &c. 3 mahals Shadora near this town	70,221	3,976,700		150	20,000) · · · ·	Dandar (?)
is a small hill	5,840	334 290		50			Makhāti
Gună has a brick fort		1,092,062		15	250)	Khichi &c.
Garanjiyab has a stone	1	1	1	1	1	1	Dinai
fort on the Betwa	8,837	468,000	1	30		" (. Dingi .: Brāhman
Korot (~Korwai) on		252,000	•••	25	150	,	of engines
the Betwa	4,196	1	1	-			Musalman
Köngrah has a stone	•	230,990		35	100	· i	, ,
	4,670		i	Į		1	
fort on the Sind Kadrola has a stone fort		166,000	.*	; 20	400	a i	. Dingi

^{*} Emendations suggested by T. S.—Deohari (=Dehri), Kangra (=Kanjit), Kadrala (=Kadwana), Kojan (=Kanjia), Bandarjhala (=Bandrāila), Bārah (=Barāgāon), Thanwara (=Tahrauli), Thājhon (=Jaklon), Joāsa (=Churāra), Kalakot (=Kālapāhar), Larosla (=Ladhaura), Rāgah (may also be Raksa)—all found in the Survey of India maps.

Sarkar of Chanderi-Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Kolakot, has a stone fort on a hill Kojān, on the Betwa Laroālah, on the Betwa Mungāoli, has a brick	2 771 1,224 3,140	156 459 69,152 168,000	•••	150 10 10	1,500 20 20	0 0 0 0 0 0	Gujar, Bakkāl,
fort Miānah, 3 kos from it is a high hill	29,756 12,196	1,440,000 668,600	•••	70 60	700 3,000	•••	Kāyath. Rājput
Mahadpur	561	144,000	***		140	• • •	Khātri. Khātri.

Sarkar of Sarangpur.

Containing 24 Mahals. 706,202 Bighas. Revenue 32,994,880 Dāms. Suyurghāl 324,461 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 3,125. Infantry 21,710.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Ashtalı	48,502	800,790	790	230	1,500		Chauhān, Dodhi, (Dodhia).
Akbarpur Agra Bajilpur produces the	30,094 7,852	170 610 472,362	•••	45 100	150° 2,0 0 0		Various. Chanhān.
finest quality of betel leaf Paplun Bhorasah	11,590 11,180 4,147	647,544 610 544 259,777	•••	140 160 30	560 700 100		Khicut, Rathor, Various.
Bajor (? Pachor) Bāniān Beāwar	1,100 721 2,505	65,820 40 841 156,740	•••	10 25 60	200 100 700	 	Do. Do. Kāyath.
Talain Khiljipur Zirapur Sārangpur, with suburb.	48,056 118 6,047	1,800,700 6,027 877,852	27,826	150 100 40	500 200 300		Chauhān. Varions. Varions. nil.
district 2 mahala, has a brick fort Sahār Bābā Hāji	21,800 20,268	1,294,321 1,098,049	47,559	120 150	2,000 1,000	•••	Khichi, Chaubān. Dhandel.

Sarkar of Sarangpur—Contd.

		has Was	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Klephants	Castes
Sandarsi Sosner Shujāapur Karhali (Karapli) Kāvath (=KJoti) Kānhar (Khātar) Karhari Muhammadpur	138 17 33	,443 121 3,433 3,179 3,938 3,045 288 7,704	434,589 54,876 8,017 124 7,447 906 1,193 396 1,097,047 17,252 1,981,132	238,212 80,506 10,368 15,318	105 25 500 500 110 25 170	2,000 300 3 000 2,000 700 200 1,000		Do.
Naugām	66	,472	2,755.438	4,882	200	1,500		Rāthor, Dudmā. (?) Chauhān,

Sarkar of Bijagarh. +

Containing 29 Mahals. 283,278 Bighas, 13 Biswas. Revenue 12,249,121 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,773. Infantry 19480.

	Bighas Bighus	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Anjari (=Amjad), situ- ated near the Nar- bada		1,707.693	*				Bhil, included in secransh.
Un, Sanāwuds, here a temple to Mahadeo	5,321	290.348		900	1,000		Sohar, Raj- pat.
Amilata, here a lake called by the Hindus Saman (? Biman)		226.677		78h			Rājput. So har, includ- ed in Balak- warah.
Bámangāon	15,679	781,014		5	100	ļ	Bersiya Brähmen.
Balakwāru, famous for fine sweet musk me- kons		407,014		500	1,000		Sohar, Räjput.
Barodara	6,452	369,898	•••	5	50		Brähman.

[†] South of the Narmada and south of Mandaleshwar.

Sarkār of Bijāgarh—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Blephants	Castes
Bikhangāon, has a stone fort; here good horses are procur- able	12,580	223,816	•••	50	215		Rājput, So-
Balkhar, near the Nar- bada; adjacent are small hills	5,584	223,615	•••	in l	Balak-		
Bāsniyah	9,870-13	85,000	•••	•••	ärah 50		As above
Badriya (? Beria)	8,839	84,293	•••	•••	50	•••	mentioned. Rājput, So- har.
Bangelah, forest adjacent where elephants are hunted	2,185 7,477	52,939 391,333	•••	5 5	800 500	•••	Bhil. Do.
small hill Jalālābād, with suburb.	14,771	645,245	400	in	luded Seo- inah		Rājput, Bhil, &c.
district has a stone fort	9,285	414,268	•••	34	1,470		Bhil, Bāhal.
Chamāri, has a stone fort	17,916	543,994		100	500		Rājput, So-
Deolă Khatiă (Divai)	6,430	39 2,00 0	•••	•••	•••	•••	har. Rājput, So- har, iuclud- ed in Balak- wārah.
Deolā Narhar (?Dhaoda) Seorānah, near the Nar-	3,286	98,569	•••	5	500		Bhil.
badalı, and a large temple there Sindhawā, good hunt- ing grownd for ele-	13,074	627,207		300	2,025		Bhil, &c.
phants. Silwarah, has a brick	9,974	353,819		24	550		Koli.
tort Sāngori (=Sangvi)	9,628 4,607	3 25,544 170,210	•••	350 5	9,000 250		Bhil. Nahal, Kar- hah.
Kasrāod, on the Nar- badah, has a large tank and a small hill	20,490	1,150,569		u	nder		Sohar.
	,	-11-04000	•••	Ba	lak- irah.		

Sarkar of Bijagarh—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Klephants	Castes
Khargon, has a fort, stone below, brick above	14,626	753,194	•••	50	500	•••	Rājput, So- har, Kanā- rah (Khatri?)
Kānapur	5,358	126,846	•••		der Bal warah.		
Khudgāon	2,738	86,082	***	5	20	•••	Rājput, ·Kapāri.
Lahrpur, commonly Muhammadpur	6,792	205,748		5	400	•••	Rājput, Kahiri.
Lowarikoh	2,476	50,000	•••	5	300		Bhil.
Mandawara, here a large temple	15,948	777,881	4,187		under eorans	th	Do.
Mahoi (Mohipur), near the Narbada Morāna (Mardāna) has	8,318	395,206	•••	5	50		Bhil, &c.
a stone fort	9,211	355,902	***	5	70		Rajput, So-
Nāwari (Newali), has a stone fort Nangalkādi	9,779 9,057	408,164 370,208	***	5	500		Bhil. Bahal.

Sarkār of Mando.

Containing 16 Mahals. 229,969 Bighas, 15 Biswas. Revenue 13,788,994 Dāms. Suyurghāl 127,732 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,180. Infantry 2,526.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghải D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Amjhera	27,370-19 7,780-12 18,183	395,400 1,307,760 656,556 966,370	8,838 8,750 10,860	80 80 80 70		•••	
kind Aman and Khal- sah are manufactured Dhar, anciently a large city	4,805-13 38,660	210,000 2,679,30 6	36,364	40 1 20	189		

Sarkār of Mando —Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Dikhtān Dharmagāon Sāgor Sanāsi Kotra	17,643 3,018-11 12,807-14 70,670	958,986 916,442 683,084 3,097,190 2,393,871	29,696 395	70 50 800 165	200 150 600 300		
Mando, with suburb. district, 2 mahals Manāwara Nalchah Nawāli ,	540-17 2,048-10 9,949-7	48,398 102,164 545,952 224,608	34,105	10 20 70 45	50 50 200 100		

Sarkār of Handiah.

Containing 23 Mahals. Land under special crops 20 Mahals. 89,578-18 Bighas, 18 Biswas. Amount of revenue in cash from crops charged at special rates and from land paying the general bigah rate. 11,610,969 Dāms. Suyurghāl 157,054 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,296. Infantry 5,921.

		Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Unchod		. 59,495	2,037,877	10.825	200	500		
Angalgãon		. 414	422,947		150	200		
Amondah		. 392	21 834	***	7	20		
Bijnolā		. 606	44,418	***	25	100		
Punäsa	••	. 873	25.251		10	100		
Balahri (? Bh	ilakheri)	***	825	***		15		
Chakhoda		. 2,319	158,876	13,324	20	80		
Champaner	••	. 317	20,350		20	100		
Dewas	••	188,249	6,718,000	42,837	875	2,000	 	
Rajora		383	25,641	• • •	7	20	ļ	
Satwās	**	. 971	89,080	7,504	45	150		
Samarni [? T	imurni]	. 775	52,115		5	40	ļ	
Siyamgarh	••	160	20,494		111	550		į
Seoni	••		2,250		50	500		į
Khandohā Is	lämpur .	. 22,632	1,298,581	6,400	120	500		
Mundi	••	367	19,443		7	20		
Mardanpur	**		450		50	500		
Nimewar	•-	18,207	946 467	•••	25	100		
Naugãon Nimes (Nimes		1,187	79,264	.,.	30	120		
Niman (=Nit	nanpar) .	- 1,160	75,152		14	56		
Händah (= H	ards)	2,954	146,044	***	30	100		
Mandia, with		-						
district, ha	s a ston	e						
on a level	Dadia				ا ا			
OH R IEVEL	Piens .	5,154-15	850,051	76,160	40	150	• • •	
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>		<u> </u>

Sarkar of Nandurbar.

Containing 7 Mahals. 2,059.604 Bighas. Revenue 50,162,250 Dāms. Suyurghāl 198,478 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 500. Infantiy 6,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Bhāmber (Bhamer)	212,830	69,244,355					
Cultanone				•••		1	
	995,993	28,119,749		***	***	1***	
Khāer (or Jahur?)	868	53,310	•••	•••	• • • •		
Nandurbar, with sub.	1				İ	1 .	
district	203,007	14,252,191	38,734			1	
Ner	15,253	722,760			l 1 •••	1	
Managhi	1.645	89.585	•		1	1 1	
Namorni	1,040	39,300	***				

Sarkar of Mandesor.

Containing 17 Mahals. Revenue 6,861,396 Dāms. Suyurghāl 23,387 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,194. Infantry 4,280.

			Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.		Infantry	Klephants	Castes
Ringmod	••			716 355		80	250		Sisodiā,
Ujenwās	••		***	170 953		60	200		Ahir, Gond.
Basad				515,400		80	250	1	Sisodiā.
Budha				255.062		65	300	1	Rājput,
Therod Barëndeh Bareiteh Bhathpur	 (? Bhanpu	r)	000	109,220 106 703 90 970 63.104	 727 	74 50 30 16	200 100 250		Dodia. Bodhia.) Ahir. Ahir. Gond. Chauhān. Rājput. Dodia.
Tai	••		•••	1,600 000	4.5	160	250	ļ	Do. do.
Titrod	••			500 000	***	80	220		Do. do.
Jamiawara				619,759	***	80	200		Si-odiā.
Sukhera				46 690		50	300		
Ghiyaspur	••		***	138 890	•••	80	800		Gond, Ahir.
Qiyampur				175,350	490	110	300		Deora.
Kotri	••			803	***	50	500		
Mandesor.	with subs	ırb.	1				?	-	
	2 mahals		***	1,651,920	28,860	100	400		Rājput.

Sarkar of Gagron.

Containing 12 Mahals. 63,529 Bighas. Revenue 4,535,794 Dāms.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayar- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Klephants	Castes
Urmāl	•••	502,774	•••		•••		
Akbarpur	01 200	in money. 62,500 1,573,560	•••		•••		
Panch Pahar	21,399	222,640	***		***		
Khairābād	17,136	646.000	•••	•;•	***	•••	
Rāepur	9,716 9,638	28,730 281,909	•••		***		
Sendar (=Sandhara)	695	81,929	•••				
Ghāti Gāgron, with suburb. district, has a stone	***	600,046	•••		•••		
fort	***	19,781	•••	•••	***		1
Nimthor	4-945	in money. 608,834	.~		•••		

Sarkār of Kotri Parāwa.

Containing 10 Mahals. 190,039 Bighas. Revenue 8,031,920 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 2,245. Infantry 6,500.

	Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Riephants	Castes
Alot (missp. Asop) Ajigarh	42 220 4,558	1 783 927 855 612	250 350	700 200			Rajut,
Awar Barod	9 204 20,224	532,056 923,667	•••	80 160	ano 400		Deora. Rajput,
Dāgdudhālia	13 881 13 381	458,144 693,585		125 240	400 500	•••	Sondhia. Do. do. Do. Deora
with suburb. dist	46,046	1,856,566		770	1.800		Kayath.
Gangrār Ghosi (? Gadguchi)	200,615 2,507	1,066,668	•••	200	700	-	Rajput, Sondha.
Griosi (1 Gadgueni)	2,007	116,800		000	200		Sondhie.

Princes of Malwa.

I.

Five Rājahs of this dynasty reigned in succession, 387 years, 7 months, 3 days.

(Dates from Prinsep.)

		Ys.	Ms.	Ds.
B. C. 840	Arjun, about 785 before			
		100		0
,, 760		86		3
	Sālivāhana,	1	0	0
,, 680	Nirvāhana,	100	0	0
,, 580). Putrāj, (Putra Rājas of Vansāva-			
	lis without issue),	100	2	0
	II.			
E	ighteen princes of the Ponwar caste rei	oned	,	
	1,062 years, 11 months, 17 days.	дисч	,	
B. C. 400				
	nobles. [Co-temp. Sapor, A. D. 191. Wilford.	86	7	3
,, 390). Brahmarāj, (reigned in Vidar-	30	7	3
260	bhanagar),	30	•	J
,, 500). Atibrahma, (at Ujain, defeated in the north),	90	0	0
., 271	the north), Sadhroshana, (Sadasva Sena.			
	Vāsudeva of Wilford, Basdeo of			
	Ferishta, A. D. 390, father-in-			
	law of Bahram Gor, revived			
	Kanauj dynasty),	80	0	0
,, 191	. Hemarth, (Heymert, Harsha Me-			-
,,	gha killed in battle)	100	0	0
91	gha, killed in battle), L. Gandharb,* (Gardabharupa, Bah-		_	
,, 01	rāmgor of Wilford),	35	0	0
B. C. 56			•	•
⊅. ♥. ♥	caste, 3rd of Wilford),		2	3
	cauce, ora or warrang,	200	-	•

^{*} Under power of a curse, in consequences of a crime, he was changed into an ass resuming his human form only at night. Hemar I, notwithstanding, gave him his daughter in marriage and she gave birth to Vikramaditya.

			Ys.	Ms.	De
A. D.	44.	Chandrasen of the same race			
		(possessed himself of all Hin-	00	_	_
		dustān), ···	86	3	2
• •	135.	Kharagsen, (Surya Sena, w. 676),	85	0	0
~ ~	215.	Chitarkot,	1	0	U
,, 2	216.	Kanaksen, (conquered Saurashtra			
		[Surāt and Gujerāt] founder of			
		the Mewar family, ancestry traced by Jain Chronicles con-			
		sulted by Tod, to Sumitra, 56th			
		from Rāma),	86	0	0
9	302.		00	ŏ	ŏ
	02.	Mahendrapāl,	7	Ŏ	Ŏ
	09.	Karamchand of the same race,	1	Ŏ	0
• •	10.	Bijainand, (Vijyananda),	60	Ŏ	0
	70.	Munja, (killed in the Deccan,			
		reigned A. D. 993, according			
		to Tod).			
,, 4	83.	Bhoja, (by Tod 567 A.D. The			
		other two Rājās Bhoja, Tod			
		fixes in 665 [from Jain MSS.]			
		and 1035, the father Udayati.	00	^	^
2	00	Kälidäs flourished), 1	LUU	0	0
,, 5	83.	Jayachand, (put aside in favour	10	0	2
		of the following),	10	U	4
		III.			
	Elev	en princes of the Tonwar, (Tuar) ca	ste		
	4.01	reigned 142 years, 3 days.			
A. D. 5	93.	Jitpāp,	5	0	0
		Rānā Rāju,	5	0	0
	03.	Rānā Bāju,	1	0	3
,, 60	04.	Rānā Jaj Jalu, var, and			
		U. T.),	20	0	0
A. D. 69			30	0	0
		Rāna Bahadur,	5	0	0
		Rāe Bakhmal, (Bakhtmal),	5	0	0
		Rāe Sukanpāl,	5	0	0
Q!	69. 74.	Rāe Kiratpāl,	Ð	0	0
,, u	12.	Rāe Anangpāl, (rebuilt and peopled Delhi 791, Tod.),	60	0	0
79	34 .	Kunwarnal	1	Ö	Ö
); (1	υ π.	izunwai pai,	4	V	v

IV.

Eleven princes of the Chauhān caste reigned 140 years.

A. D. 735. Rājā Jagdeva, ,, 745. Jagannāth, his nephew, ,, 755. Hardeva, ,, 770. Bāsdeva, ,, 786. Srideva, ,, 801. Dharmdeva, ,, 815. Baldeva, ,, 825. Nānakdeva, ,, 834. Kiratdeva, ,, 845. Pithurā, ,, 866. Māldeva, (conquered by Shāh father of Ala u'd	Shaikh	Ys	Ms. 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Ds. 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
V.				
Ten princes reigned 77			_	_
A. D. 1037. Shaikh Shah, (from Gh	azni),	70	0	0
	•••	20	0	0
,, 1057. Alā u'd din, son of Shail put the Vizier to dea		20	0	0
,, ,, Kamāl u'd din, (murdere		12	ŏ	ŏ
,, 1069. Jitpal Chauhan, (Jaya Delhi and Lahore?	Sing of			
descendant of Maniky	ya Rai?)'	20	0	0
,, 1089. Harchand,	•••	20	0	0
,, 1109. Kiratchand,	***	2	0	0
i, 1111. Ugarsen,		13	0	0
,, 1124. Surajchand,	***	12	0	0
A. D. 1136. Birsen, (dispossessed	by the			
following),		10	0	0
VI.				
Eight princes reigned 20	5 years.			
A. D. 1146. Jalāl u'd din, (an Afgha ,, 1168. A'alam Shah, (killed	n),	22	0	0
by, ,		24	0	0

223							
					Ys.	Ms.	Ds.
A.D. 1192.	(Birsen, rup, 1 daughte	emigrate narried t r succee	ed to K the ki ded to	ng's the			
	kingdon wah)	and reg	ained I	Mai-	8	0	0
,, 1200.	Narbāhan.	Managemen	nadorra		20	0	0
		Lakhan,	k				
,, 1220.	Birsāl,	•••	•••		16	0	0
	Puranmal,		••	•••	39	0	0
	Haranand,			•••	62	0	0
	Sakat Sing,		t the in				
,,	sion of t	he following	ng),	•••	60	0	0
		VII.					
Eleve	en princes rei 4	gned 142 j days.†	years, 2	mon	ths		
A. D. 1390.		ih, (king d Delhi),	of Decc	•••	some 's. M	e m	s.) e
,, 1390.		h assun	ied so	of ve-			
440	reignty),		•	***	20		0
,, 1405. ,, 1432.	Hoshang Sh Muhammad	āh, Shāh,	(Ghi	zni	30	U	U
	Khān, po	isoned),			some	n	3.
,, 1435.	Sultan Ma	hmud, , (Rānā	uncle of Chi	of tor			
	Kumbho,	present		kas			
	coined i	n his ov	vn nar	ne,			
	1450),	•••	•	•••	34	0	0
* These five re	eigned A.D. 1137-	-1143 accordi	ng to the	Ujjain	111501	riptio	n.
† Correct list Dilawar Kh.	of Malwa Sultans			I. 794			
Hushang Sh.	•••	•••	***	808	1405		
Muhammad S Ma'sud		•••	***		/ 1435 / 1436		
Mahmud 1.	***	•••	•••		1436		
Ghiyās-ud-din Nāsir-ud-din	*1*	***	***		1469		
Mahmad II.	10.0	•••	9	905 / 1 6-93 7 /	/1500 /1510-3	31	

		Ys.	Ms	. Ds.
	1469. Sultān Ghiyās u'd din,	32	n	0
,,	1500. "Nāsir u'd din. (his sou			•
	- Shahāb u'd din revolts).	11	4	3
,,	1512. " Mahmud II, (younger		_	_
	son, last of the Khiljis),	26	6	11
	Qādir Shāh,		0	
"	Shujāat Khān, known as Shujāwa!			
	Khān,	12	0	0
,,	Bāz Bahādur.			

In 1534 Malwah was incorporated with Gujerāt kingdom; in 1568 as a province of Akbar's empire.

It is said that two thousand, three hundred and fiftyfive years, five months and twenty-seven days prior to this, the 40th year of the Divine Era [761 B.C.] an ascetic named Mahābāh, kindled the first flame in a fire-temple, and devoting himself to the worship of Cod, resolutely set himself to the consuming of his rebellious passions. Seekers after eternal welfare gathered round him, zealous in a life About this time the Buddhists began to of mortification. take alarm and appealed to the temporal sovereign, asserting that in this fire-temple, many living things were consumed in flaming fire, and that it was advisable that Brahmanical rites should be set aside, and that he should secure the preservation of life. It is said that their prayer was heard, and the prohibition against the said people was enforced. These men of mortified appetites resolved on redress, and sought by prayer a deliverer who should overthrow Buddhism and restore their own faith. The Supreme Justice brought forth from this fire-temple, now long grown cold, a human form, resplendent with divine majesty, and bearing in its hand a flashing sword. In a short space, he enthroned himself on the summit of power, and renewed the Brahmanical observance. He assumed the name of Dhananjaya and coming from the Deccan, established his seat of government at Mālwah and attained to an advanced age.

When Putrāj, the fifth in descent from him. died without issue, the nobles elected Aditya Ponwār his successor, and this was the origin of the sovereignty of this house. On the death of Hemarth in battle, Gandharb, the chosen, was raised to the throne. The Hindus believe that he is the same as Hemarth whom the Supreme Ruler introduced

among the celestials in the form of a Gandharb1 and then clothed in human shape. Thus he became universally known by this name and prospered the world by his justice and munificence. A son was born to him named Bikramājit who kept aflame the lamp of his ancestors and made extensive conquests. The Hindus to this day keep the beginning of his reign as an era and relate wonderful accounts of him. Indeed he possessed a knowledge of talismans and incantations and gained the credulity of the simple. Chandrapal obtained in turn the supreme power and conquered all Hindustan. Bijainand was a prince devoted to the chase. Near a plant of the Munia he suddenly came upon a newborn infant. He brought him up as his own son and called him by the name of Munja. When his own inevitable time approached, his son Bhoja was of tender age. He therefore appointed Munia his successor, who ended his life in the wars of the Deccan

Bhoja succeeded to the throne in the 541st year of the era of Bikramājit and added largely to his dominions, administering the empire with justice and liberality. He held wisdom in honour, the learned were treated with distinction, and seekers after knowledge were encouraged by his support. Five hundred [correctly nine] sages, the most erudite of the age, shone as the gathered wisdom of his court and were entertained in a manner becoming their dignity and merit. The foremost of these was Barruj [Vararuchi], a second was Dhanpāl [Dhanwantari] who have composed works of great interest and left them to intelligent seekers of truth, as a precious possession. At the birth of Bhoja, either through a grave miscalculation of the astrologers or some inadvertence on the part of those who cast his horos-

¹ A class of demigods who inhabit the heaven of Indra and form the celestial choir at the banquets of the deities. He appears in the lists as Gandhapala, fostered by an ass, Gandha-rupa or Harshamegha, epithets of the same anima. According to Wilford the Pandits who assisted Abul Fazl disfigured the chronology of the supplement to the Agni-purana. Of Salivahana and Naravahana they made two distinct persons as well as of Bahrām with the title of Gor in Persian and Himār, or the Ass in Arabic. Thus they introduced Himār or Remarth and Gor or Gandharb.

or Hemarth and Gor or Gandharb.

*Saccharum munja; a rash or grass from the fibres of which a string is prepared of which the Brahmanical girdle is properly formed. Munja wrote a geographical description of the world or of India which still exists under the name of Munja-prati-desa-vyvasthā or state of various countries. It was afterwards corrected and improved by Rājā Bhoja, and still exists in Gujerāt. Munja-prati-desa-vyvasthā or state of various countries. It was afterwards corrected and improved by Rājā Bhoja, and still exists in Gujerāt. Munja-patiana on the Godaveri.

cope, the learned in the stars in consultation announced a nativity of sinister aspect. They prognosticated hazard to the lives of such as sympathised with him, and these to save their own, cast this nursling of fortune in the dust of destitution and exposed him in an inhospitable land. He was there nourished without the intervention of human aid. The sage Barruj, who at that time was not accounted among the learned, having recast his horoscope after profound investigation, foretold the good tidings of a nativity linked to a long life and a glorious reign. This paper he threw in the way of the Rājā, whose heart on reading it, was agitated with the impulse of paternal love. He convened an assembly of the astrologers, and when the nativity was scrutinised, and it was ascertained where the error lay, he went in person and restored Bhoja to favour and opened the eyes of his understanding to the strangeness of fortune. They relate that when the child was eight years old, the short-sighted policy of Munja impelled him to desperate measures and he contemplated putting the innocent box to death. He entrusted him to some of his trusty followers to make away with him secretly, but these ministers of death spared him, and concealing him, invented a plausible tale. On his taking leave, he gave them a letter telling them to read it to the Rājā in case he should inquire regarding him. Its purport ran as follows: -- "How doth darkness of soul in a man cast him out of the light of wisdom, and in unholy machinations stain his hands in the blood of the innocent! No monarch in his senses thinks to carry with him to the grave his kingdom and treasures, but thou by slaying me seemest to imagine that his treasures perpetually endure and that he himself is beyond the reach of harm." The Rājā on hearing this letter, was aroused from his day-dream of fancied security and brooded in remorse over his crime. His agents, when they witnessed the evidences of his sincerity revealed to him what had occurred. He gave thanks to God, welcomed Bhoia with much affection and appointed him his successor.

When his son Jayachand's reign was ended, none of the Ponwar caste was found worthy to succeed. Jitpal of the Tonwar caste, who was one of the principal landowners was elected to the throne, and thus by the vicistitudes of fortune the sovereignty passed into this family.

¹ Jayananda according to Wilford, who gives the next name as Chaitra or Jytepäl and identifies or comounds him with Chandrapala.

When Kunwarpal died, the royal authority passed into the hands of the Chauhans. During the reign of Maldeva, Shaikh Shāh came from Ghazni and acquired possession of Mālwah and lived to an advanced age. At his death his son Alā u'd din was a minor, and his chief minister Dharm Rāj Sud occupied the throne. As soon as Alā u'd din came of age, he rose in arms to assert his rights and put to death the disloyal usurper. Jitpal Chauhān, a descendant of Mānik Deva Chauhān, who was in the service of Kamāl-u'd-din, under the impulse of malice and in pride of wealth compassed the destruction of his master and in the hope of gain, acquired for himself eternal perdition. Under the rule of Tipparsen, an intriguing Afghan, getting together some desperate characters as his abettors, laying an ambush for the Rājā, slew him while hunting, and assumed the sovereignty with the title of Jalal u'd din. Tipparsen had married his son Kharagsen into the family of the Rājā of Kämrup. The Rājā, for his eminent services, appointed this adopted son his heir, and when the Raja died, Kharagsen ascended the throne and to avenge his wrongs marched an army against Mālwah and Aālam Shāh was killed in battle.

In the reign of Sakat Singh a prince named Bahādur Shāh advanced from the Deccan and having put the Rājā to death, marched against Delhi and was taken prisoner while

fighting against Sultan Shahab u'd din.

From the time of Sultān Ghiyās u'd din Balban (A.D. 1265) to that of Sultān Muhammad son of Firoz Shāh (A.D. 1387) no serious weakness in the imperial authority betrayed itself, but on his death the empire of Delhi became a prey to distractions. Dilāwar Khān Ghori who had been appointed by him to the government of Mālwah, assumed independence. The Sultān bestowed the government of four provinces upon four individuals who had been faithful to him in his adversity. To Zafar Khān' he gave Gujerāt; Khizr Khān was appointed to Multān; Khwājah Sarwar to Jaunpur and Dilāwar Khān to Mālwa. After his death, the time being favourable, each of the four assumed independence. [Persian text confused.]

Alp Khān the son of Dilāwar Khān was elected to the succession under the title of Hoshang. It is said that his father was poisoned by his order whereby he has gained

Zafar Khan took the title of Muzaffar Shah,

everlasting abhorrence. Sultan Muzaffar of Gujerat marched against him and took him prisoner and left his own brother Nasir Khan in command of the province. But as he was tyrannous in conduct and ignored the interests of his subjects, Musa, cousin of Hoshang, was raised to the throne. Sultan Muzaffar released Hoshang from confinement and despatched him to Malwa in company with his own son Ahmad Khān, and in a short time he was restored to power. On the death of Muzaffar, he perfidiously marched against Gujerāt, but meeting with no success, returned. On several subsequent occasions he attacked Sultan Ahmad of Gujerat but was shamefully defeated.

On one occasion cunningly disguised as a merchant, he set out for Jajnagar.1 The ruler of that country accompanied by a small retinue visited the caravan. Hoshang took him prisoner and hastened back. While journeying together. Hoshang told him that he had been induced to undertake this expedition in order to procure a supply of elephants and added that if his people attempted a rescue, the prince's life should pay the penalty. The prince therefore sending for a number of valuable elephants, presented them to him

and was set at liberty.

Hoshang was engaged in wats with Mubarak Shah son of Khizr Khan viceroy2 of Delhi, with Sultan Ibrahim of the Jaunpur dynasty, and with Sultan Ahmad of the Deccan. On his death, the nobles, in accordance with his bequest, raised his son Nasir Khan to the throne under the

He never assumed the royal title but styled himself viceroy of Timur in whose name the coin was minted and the Khutbah read.

Ahmad Shah Wali of the Bahmani dynasty (1422-35)

¹ Jājpur on the Baitarani river in Orissa, capital of the province under the Lion Dynasty, the Gajpati or Lords of Elephants. This story occurs in the Tab. Akbari, p. 537, and in Ferishta, Vol. II, p. 236. (Briggs, IV, 178). Ferishta's account is that in A.H. 825 (1421—2), Hoshang with a 1,000 picked cavalry disguised as a merchant set out for Jājuagar, one month's journey from Mālwa and took with him a number of cream-coloured horses, much sought after by the ruler of Orissa and stuffs of various kinds, his object being to exchange these for elephants the better to meet Sultān Ahmad of Chiesēt in the field. On his arrival near Tājuagar he saut to inform the Gujerat in the field. On his arrival near Jajnagar he sent to inform the Rajah of the presence of his caravan and the prince arrived with a number of elephants to barter for the horses, or ready to pay in coin, as the need arose. The horses were caparisoned and the stuffs laid out for inspection, when a storm of rain came on and the lightning frightening the elephants, when a storm or rain came on and the lightning frightening the elephants, they trampled on the goods and caused great damage. Hoshang tore his hair and swore that life was no longer worth having and at a signal, his men mounted and attacked the Rājā's guard, and put them to flight. Capturing the Rājā, Hoshang discovered himself and excused his action on the ground of destruction of his property. He then stated his object. The Rājah admired his audacity and 75 elephants purchased his own release. Hoshang carried him as far as the frontier and set him at liberty.

title of Muhammad Shāh. Mahmud Khān, cousin of Sultān Hoshang, basely bribed his cup bearer and that venal wretch poisoned the Sultān's wine. The generals of the army kept his death secret hoping to place his son Masaud Khān upon the throne and they sent to confer with Mahmud Khan. He replied that worldly affairs had no longer any interest for him but that if his presence in council were necessary, they must come to him. They foolishly went to his house and were placed in confinement, and by the aid of some disloyal mercenary partisans, he seized upon the sovereignty of Mālwa and was proclaimed under the title of Sultan Mahmud (Khilji). Upon such a wretch, in its wondrous vicissitudes thus did Fortune smile and the awe he inspired secured him the tranquil possession of power. He waged wars with Sultan Muhammad son of Mubarak Shah, king of Delhi, with Sultan Ahmad, king of Gujerat, with Sultan Hussain Sharqi of Jaunpur, and with Rana Kumbha of Mewär.

Khwājah Jamāl u'd din Astarābādi' was sent to him as ambassador by Abu Said Mirza with costly gifts which greatly redounded to his glory. Mahmud II (1512 A.D.) through his ungenerous treatment of his adopted followers fell into misfortune but was again reinstated in power by the aid of Sultān Muzaffar Shāh (II) of Gujerāt (A.D. 1511-26). Through his reckless bravery in battle he was taken prisoner by the Rānā (Sanga) who treated him with generosity and restored him to his kingdom. He was again captured in action against Sultan Bahadur of Gujerat and conveyed to the fortress of Chāmpāner. He was killed (A.D. 1526) on his way thither and Mālwa was incorporated with Gujerāt until it was conquered by Humayun. When this monarch returned to Agra, one of the relations of Sultan Mahmud, by name Mallu, seized on the government of Malwa under the title of Oadir Khan.

⁴ He proved notwithstanding, the ablest and most chivalrons of all the

This ambassador arrived with presents from Mirza Sultan Said 3rd in descent from Tamerlane who reigned over Transoxiana and held his court at Bokhārā—grandfather of Bāber. He returned with presents of elephants, singing and dancing girls, Arab horses and an ode in the vernacular composed by Mahmud himself which Abu Said valued above all the other gifts. Ferishta II, 254.

The reference is to his dismissal of his Hindu minister Medni Rae and the Rajput troops to whom he owed his kingdom when deserted by his nobles at the beginning of his reign.

*Rana Sanga (A.D. 1508—1529) under whom Mewär reached its highest prosperity, fought Babar in 1526.

During the supremacy of the usurper Sher Khān the control of the province was invested in Shujāat Khan, who rebelled under the reign of Salim Khān and assumed independence under Mubāriz Khān.

On his death, his eldest son Bāyizid succeeded under the title of Bāz Bahādur until the star of his Majesty's fortune arose in the ascendant and this fertile province was

added to the imperial dominions.

May the robe of this daily-widening empire be bordered with perpetuity, and its inhabitants enjoy to their hearts' fill a prosperity that shall never decay.

SUBAH OF DANDES.

This flourishing country was called Khāndes, but after the capture the fortress of Asir (1600 A.D.) and when this province fell under the government of prince Danyal, it was known as Dandes.! It is situated in the second climate. Its length from Borgāon which adjoins Handiah to Lalang which is on the borders of the territory of Ahmadnagar is 75 kos. Its breadth from Jāmod adjoining Berār to Pāl which borders Mālwa is 50, and in some parts only 25 kos. On its east is Berār; to the north, Mālwa; to the south. Gālnah (Jālna)*: to the west, the southern chain of the mountains of Mālwa. The rivers are numerous, the principal being the Tapti which rises between Berar and Gondwana, the Tabi which has its source from the same quarter and which is also called the Purna, and the Girna near Chāpra. The climate is pleasant and the winter temperate.

Jowāri is chiefly cultivated, of which, in some places, there are three crops in a year, and its stalk is so delicate and pleasant to the taste that it is regarded in the light of a fruit. The rice is of fine quality, fruits grow plentifully and betel leaves are in abundance. Good cloth stuffs are woven here: those called Siri Sāf and Bhiraun come from

Dhurangāon.

Asir is the residence of the governor. It is a fortress on a lofty hill. Three other forts encompass it which for strength and loftiness are scarcely to be equalled. A large and flourishing city is at its foot. Burhānpur is a large city three kos distant from the Tapti. It lies in latitude 21° 40′, and is embellished with many gardens and the sandal-wood also grows here. It is inhabited by people of all countries and handicraftsmen ply a thriving trade. In the summer, c'ouds of dust fly which in the rains turns to mud.

Aādilābād is a fine town. Near it is a lake, a noted place of worship, and the crime of Rājā Jasrat (Dasarath)'

"Caina is 20 m. S.W. of Dhulia in W. Khandesh, while Jaina is far to the south of E. Khandesh, beyond the Ajanta range.

Dasarath's crime was committed in his youth when he unwittingly killed the hermit's son in the forests by the banks of the river Saraya in Oudh. The story is told in Rāmāyan, Bk. II, Sec. 63 (see Griffith's translation, Vol. II, p. 243). He was curred by the bereaved father and fated to be similarly agonised for the loss of his son in after verts.

was expiated at this shrine. It is full all the year round and it irrigates a large area of cultivation.

Changdeo is a village near which the Tapti and the Purnā unite, and the confluence is accounted a place of great sanctity. It is called Chakra Tirth. Adjacent to it is an image of Mahādeo. They relate that a blind man carried about him an image of Mahadeo which he worshipped daily. He lost the image at this spot. For a time he was sore distressed, but forming a similar image of sand, he placed it on a little eminence and adored it in a like spirit. By a miracle of divine will, it became stone and exists to this day. Near it a spring rises which is held to be the Ganges. An ascetic by the power of the Almighty was in the habit of going to the Ganges daily from this spot. One night the river appeared to him in a dream, and said, "Undertake these fatigues no longer; I myself will rise up in thy cell." Accordingly in the morning it began to well forth and is flowing at the present time.

Jāmod is a rich parganah. In its neighbourhood is a fort on a high hill called Pipaldol. Dhāmarni is a prosperous town. Near it is a tank in which a hot spring perpetually rises and which is an object of worship.

Choprah is a large flourishing town, near which is a shrine called Rāmesar at the confluence of the Girna and the Tapti. Pilgrims from the most distant parts frequent it. Adjacent to it is the fort of Malkāmad [= Malkheda].

Thalner was for a time the capital of the Faruqi princes. The fort though situated on the plain is nevertheless of great strength.

This Subah contains 32 parganahs. Scarce any land is out of cultivation and many of the villages more resemble towns. The peasantry are docide and industrious. The provincial force is formed of Kolis, Bhils and Gonds. Some of these can tame lions, so that they will obey their commands, and strange tales are told of them.

Its revenue is 12,647,062, Berāri tankahs as will appear in the statement. After the conquest of Asir, this revenue was increased by 50 per cent. The tanka is reckoned at 24 dāms. The total is therefore, 455,294,232 Akbari dāms. (Rs. 11,382, 355-12-9).

Sarkär of Dändes.

Containing 32 mahals. Revenue in money 12,647,062 Tankas.

Warangãon, east by south 215,50 Pāchorah, west 162,83 Purmāl, west 183,54 Bodwad, south-west 183,54 Names omitted in all MSS 288,51	Chāndsir, south Jalod, south (Jalam?) Chopra, west Dāngri, south Dāmri, west Rāver, west Renpur, east [? Ratanpur] Savdā, south Shendurni, between E. and W. Aādilābād, east by south Laling, south Lohārā, south Mānjrud, east [Mānjal] Nasirābād, south Name omitted in all MSS.	Tankahs 196,900 317,205 730,965 315,325 325;300 883,655 820,971 430,008 104,754 527,223 352,644 247,965 104,965 824,925 316,338
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In ancient times this country was a waste and but few people lived about the fortress of Asir. The locality was traditionally connected with Ashwatthāmā* and established as a shrine. It is related that Malik Raji from whom Bahāduri is the ninth in descent, under stress of misfortune came from Bidar to these parts and established himself in the village of Karonda, a dependency of Thalner, but being molested by the natives, he repaired to Delhi and took service under Sultan Firoz. The king admired his skill as a huntsman, and his reward being left to his own choice, he received a grant of that village and by judicious policy acquired possession of other estates and reclaimed much waste land. In the year 784 A.H. (A.D. 1382), he made Thalner his seat of government, assumed the title of Aādil Shāh and reigned for 17 years. He was succeeded by his son Ghizm Khan under the title of Nasir Shah, after which this province became known as Khandes. reigned 40 years, 6 months, and 26 days. On his death his son Miran Shah administered the State. By some he is called Aadil Shah. He occupied the throne 3 years, 8

^{*} San of Drona, a hero of the Mahabharat.

[&]quot;San of Drona, a hero of the manaonavar.

Bahādar Khān Fāruqi, 1596 A.D. last of the dynasty.

According to T., his father was Khān Jahān one of the ministers in the court of Alā-ad-din Khilji and of Muhammad Taghlaq. He claimed descent from the Caliph Omar called by Mahammad "al Pāruq" or the discriminator, on the day that he publicly professed his conversion, because on that day "Islām was made manifest and truth distinguished from falsehood." See as Snynti's Hist. of the Caliphs, Jarrett's translation, p. 118. Karonda = Karwand, 12 m, n, of Thalner,

months and 23 days. He was followed by his son Mubarik Shah Chaukandi Sultan during 17 years, 6 months and 29 days. His son Aādil Shāh Aynā whose name was Ahsan Khan, had a prosperous reign of 46 years, 8 months and 2 days. He removed to Burhanpur and made himself master of Asir. Sultan Ahmad of Gujerat, the founder of Ahmedabad, gave him his daughter in marriage. At his death, his brother Daud Shah reigned for 7 years, 1 month and 17 days. Aādil Shāh (11) son of Hasan took refuge in Gujerāt. Sultān Māhmud Bigarah Rāji gave him in marriage Ruqayya the daughter of Sultan Muzaffar. (his son) and accompanying him to Khandes, restored him to his kingdom and returned to his own. He reigned 13 years. He left two sons, Miran Muhammad Shah and Muharik Sultan Bahadur of Gujarat being on terms of friendly alliance with the first-named made him his heir. and guadian to his nephew Mahmud and his own brother Mubārik. Mirān Shāh from a sense of their deserts, and with political sagacity did them no injury and contenting himself with the kingdom of Khandes, restored Mahmud to the sovereignty of Gujerat. He reigned 16 years, 2 months and 3 days. When the measure of his days was full, the nobles raised his son Raji to the throne. Mubarik wrested it from him and reigned in succession to his brother, administering the government for 31 years, 6 months and 5 days. He was succeeded by his son Miran Muhammad who reigned 9 years, 9 months and 15 days. When he died, his younger brother Raja Ali Khan² was elected and assumed the title of Aādil Shāh. His administration was conducted with ability and he was killed in the

Khandesh Muslim rulers--Malik Rājā, Rājā Ahmad ... A.H. 784/1382 A.D. 801 / 1399 Nasir Khan ... *** ... Adil Kh. I. 840/1437 *** ... Mubarak Kh. I, Chankaada 844/1441 'Adil Kh. II, Ainā ... 861 / 1457 ... Daud Kh. 907/1501 914/1508 Ghazni Kh. Hasan Kh. 914/1508 ---'Alam Kh. (asurper)
'Adil Kh. III. ('Alam Kh.) 914/1508 914/1509 ... Miran Muhammad Sh. I. ... 926 / 1520 943 / 1537 Ahmad Sh. • • • 943 / 1537 Mubarak Sh. II. Mnhammad Sh. II. 974/1506 • • • ... 984 / 1576 Hasan Sh. ... 'Adil Sh. IV. (Rājā 'Ali Kh.) 985 / 1577 Bahadur Sh. (Qadr Kh.) .. 1006-1009 / 1597-1601

¹ His sister being mother of Mirān Shāh. ⁸ He married a sister of Abul Fazl.

wars of the Deccan fighting on the side of his Majesty's victorious troops. He was buried at Burhanpur, after a successful reign of 21 years, 3 months and 20 days. At his death the succession devolved on Khizr Khan, his son, who took the name of Bahādur Shāh. But the star of his destiny was obscure and in the 45th year of the Divine era, he was deprived of his kingdom as has been recorded in its proper place.

SUBAH OF BERAR.

Its original name was Wardatat, from Warda, the river of that name and tat, a bank. It is situated in the second climate. Its length from Baithalwadi to Biragarh is 200 kos, its breadth from Bidar to Handia 180 kos. On the east lies Biragarh adjoining Bastar; to the north is Handia; to the south Telingana; on the west Mahkarābād. It is a tract-situated between two hill-ranges having a southerly direction. One of these is called Bandah upon which are the forts of Gawilgarh, Narnala and Melgarh. The other is Sahia, where rise the forts of Mahur and Rāmgarh.

The climate and cultivation of this province are remarkably good. There are many rivers, the principal of which is called Ganga Gautami called also the Godavari. As the Ganges of Hindustan is chiefly connected with the worship of Mahadeo, so is this river with (the Rishi) Gautama. Wonderful tales are related regarding it and it is held in great sanctity. It rises near Trimbak? in the Sahia range and passing through the country of Ahmad-nagar, enters Berar and flows into Telingana. When Jupiter enters the sign Leo, pilgrims flock from all parts to worship.3 The Tāli and Tapti are also venerated. Another

river the Purnā rises near Dewalgāon, and again the Wardā

As this province corresponds geographically with the ancient Tel-Kalinga, Gen. Canningham thinks Telingana to be probably, a slight contraction of

Gen. Cunningham thinks Telingana to be probably, a slight contraction of Tri-Kalinga. See Anc. Geo. Ind., p. 519.

^a In the Nāsik District, about 50 miles from the Indian Ocean. At this spot is an artificial reservoir, reached by a flight of 90 steps, into which the water trickles drop by drop from the lips of an earthen image shrouded by a canopy of stone.

^a Once in every 12 years, a great bathing festival called Pushkaram, is held on the banks of Godaveri, alternately with the other eleven sacred rivers of India. The most frequented spots are the source at Trimbuk, Bhadrāchalam on the left bank about 100 miles above Rājāmahendri, the latter itself, and the village of Kotipāli. I. G. Tāli, varianta Pāli, Pāti.

issues forth ten kos higher up than the source of the Tāli.

The Napta* also rises near Dewalgaon.

In this country the term for a Chaudhri [village headman] is Desmukh, for a Qanungo, Des Pandia; the Muqaddam is called Patil and the Patwari, Kulkarni.

Elichpur is a large city and the capital. A flower violet in colour is found here and is very fragrant. It is

called Bhui champahi and grows close to the ground.

At the distance of 7 kos is Gāwil, a fortress of almost matchless strength. In it is a spring at which they water weapons of steel.

Panār is a strong fort on an eminence which two

streams surround on three sides.

Kherla is a strong fort on a plain. In the middle of it is a small hill which is a place of worship. Four kos from this is a well, into which if the bone of any animals be thrown it petrifies, like a cowrie-shell only smaller. To the east of this resides a Zamindar named Chatwai (= Jatiba) who is master of 2,000 cavalry, 50,000 foot and more than 100 elephants. Another such Zamindar is named Dadhi Rão who possesses 200 cavalry, and 5,000 foot. north is Nahar Rão a chief whose force consists of 200 horse and 5,000 foot. Formerly in this neighbourhood, was a Zamindar named Hatia, but now his possessions are under other subjection and the whole race are Gonds. Wild elephants are found in this country. The chiefs were always tributary to the kings of Malwa; the first, to the governor of Garha, and the others to the government of Handia. Narnālah is a strong fortress on a hill, containing many buildings. Bija Rāo is a Zamindār in the neighbourhood who has a force of 200 cavalry and 5,000 foot. Another is Dungar Khān with 50 horse and 3,000 foot: both of the Gond tribe. Near Bālāpur are two streams, about the borders of which are found various kinds of pretty stones, which are cut and kept as curiosities. distant was the head-quarters of Prince Sultan Murad which grew into a fine city under the name Shahpur.

Near Melgarh is a spring which petrifies wood and

other substances that are thrown into it.

^{**}Nopta—doubtfully written in Persian. The great Penganga is evidently meant, but only one small feeder of it rises here; NPTA=PNNA.

1 The S. at M. calls it Bhuin Champa and adds "it grows also in Bengal; it shoots from the ground with leaves like the ginger-plant and till the rainy season it continues in growth and is green. In the winter it withers away and disappears altogether." The word is properly Bhum Champah, "The grounds Champah, and is the Krampahan Roberts." ground Champak", and is the Konggeria Rotunda.

Kallam (Kalamb), is an ancient city of considerable importance; it is noted for its buffaloes. In the vicinity is a Zamindār named Babjeo of the Gond tribe, more generally known as Chāndā: a force of 1,000 horse and 40,000 foot is under his command. Birāgarh which has a diamond mine and where figured cloths and other stuffs are woven, is under his authority. It is but a short time since that, he wrested it from another chief. Wild elephants abound.

About Bāsim is an indigenous race for the most part proud and refractory called Hatkars: their force consists of 1,000 cavalry and 5,000 infantry. Banjāra is another Zamindāri, with 100 horse and 1,000 foot. At the present time it is under the authority of a woman. Both tribes are

Rājputs.

Māhur is a fort of considerable strength situated on a hill. Adjacent is a temple dedicated to Durgā, known in this country as Jagadathā [=Jagatdhātri]. Here the buffaloes are of a fine breed and yield half a man and more of milk. The Zamindār is a Rājput named Indradeo and is entitled Rānā. He commands 100 horse and 1,000 foot.

Mānikdrug is a remarkable fort on a hill surrounded by extensive forests. It is near Chandā, but up to the present

is independent territory.

Jitanpur is a village in the Sarkar of Pathri, where there is a thriving trade in jewels and other articles of value.

Telingānah was subject to Qutb ul Mulk¹ but for some time past has been under the authority of the ruler of Berār.

In Indur and Nirmal there exist mines of steel and other metals. Shapely stone utensils are also carven here. The breed of buffaloes is fine and, strangely enough, the domestic cocks are observed to have bones and blood of a black colour.* A Zamindār called Chanāneri,² is Desmukh, a man of the most distinguished character, who has a force of 300 horse. Rāmgir is a strong fort on a hill, enclosed by forests. Wild elephants are numerous. It has not as yet been annexed to the empire.

* See Constable's ed. of Bernier, p. 251, note.

* Var. jayaberi.

^{&#}x27;Warangal was the ancient capital of this kingdom founded by the Narapati Andhras which was also considered to include the coast territory from the mouth of the Ganges to that of the Kistnä known as Kalinga. After the invasion of Alä u'd din in 1303, it continued with some interruptions under Hindu rule till its remains were incorporated in the dominions of Quli Qutb Shāh the founder of the Qutb Shāhi dynasty, in 1512 with Golconda as its capital.

Lonar is a division of Mehkar, and a place of great sanctity. The Brahmans call it Bishan Gayā. There are three Gayas, where the performance of good works can be applied as a means of deliverance to the souls of deceased ancestors; namely, Gayā in Behār which is dedicated to Brahma, Gayā near Bijāpur dedicated to Rudra, and this one. Here is also a reservoir, having a spring in it of great depth, and measuring a kos in length and in breadth, and surrounded by lofty hills. The water is brackish, but when taken from the centre or at its sides, it is sweet. It contains the essential materials for the manufacture of glass and soap, and saltpetre is here produced and yields a considerable revenue.

On the summit of a hill is a spring at the mouth of which is carved the figure of a bull. The water never flows from this spring to the other, but when the 30th lunar day (conjunction) falls on a Monday, its stream flows into the large reservoir. In the neighbourhood is a Zamindar called Wārlah of the Rājput tribe, commanding 200 horse and 2,000 foot. Another is called Sarkath, also a Rajput, and possesses 100 horse and 1,000 foot.

Batialah is a fort of considerable strength on a hill, of which Pātāl Nagari is a dependency. In the sides of the hill twenty-four temples have been cut, each containing remarkable idols. The zamindar is Medni Rão, a Rajout. with 200 horse and 1.000 foot. Another is Kāmdeo, a

Rājput having under him 100 horse and 1,000 foot.

This Subah contains 16* sarkars and 142 (should be 242) parganahs. From an early period the revenues were taken by a valuation of crops, and since the tankah of this country is equal to 8 of Delhi, the gross revenue was 31 krors of tankahs or 56 krors of dams! (Rs. 14,000,000). Some of the Deccani princes increased the revenue to 37,525,350 tankahs. In the time of Sultan Murad a further

* But only 13 Sarkars are named in the detailed statement given in the following pages

following pages

1 This makes 16 dams to the tankah. In the revenue statement of Khandesh, the tankah is reckoned at 40 dams. That of Gujerāt=two-fifths of a dam or 100 to the rupee of 40 dams. Baylev Hist. of Gujerāt, p. 6. If Prince Murād's increase be added to that of the Deccani princes, the total gives 40,162,804 tankahs. This sum multiplied by 16 results in 642,604,864 dams. As 40 Akbari dams are equivalent to a rupee, the above total represents 16,065,121 rupees. Under Akbar, according to the I. 6. the land tax of Berär was Rs. 17,378,117. Under Shah Jahan, Rs. 13,750,000, and under Aurangaeb, 15,350,625, but the latter amount, taken by Mr. R. Thomas from Manucci, is given by Tieffenthaler from the same authority as 10,587,500. See his discertation on the apparent inaccuracies of calculation in the registers of the empire and their cause. Vol. I, p. 65, empire and their cause. Vol. I, p. 65,

addition of 2,637,454 Berāri tankahs was made. The total amounted to 40,162,704 Berāri tankahs. The original amount and the additional increase were thus tabulated, the whole reaching the amount of 642,603,272 Delhi dāms.

Eight parganahs of the Sārkar of Kallam (Kalamb) were annexed to Chāndā, the revenue of which is not included, nor those of 22 parganahs of the Sarkār of Kherla, held by Chātwā (Jātibā) and some few other Zamindārs.

Sarkar of Gawil.

Containing 46 parganahs. Revenue 134,666,140 dāms. Suyurghāl 12,874,048 dāms.

	Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D		Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D
Sub. dis. of Ellich- pur, has a fort of stone and brick			Thugāon Chakhli, (Banjārās) and Gonds, 400	5,600,000	•••
on the plain	14,000 000	2 800,000	Cav. 2,500 Inf.)	2,400,000	,
Äshti	4,800,000	2,000,000	Daryāpur	6,400 000	
Aron	8 200 000		Dhamori	2,718,540	1,118,540
Ānji	1,600 000		Ridhpur	6,400,000	
Anjangãon	3,200,000		Sarasgãon	5,296,000	496,000
Karyāt Bāhil 👑	604,000		Qasbah Serālā	1,835 390	1,015,890
, Bāri	114,368	82,368	Sarson	4,800,000	•••
Bhādkali	3,200,000	***	Sālor	840,000	•••
Basrauli	1,280 000		Karyat Sherpur	48,000	***
Beāwadā	700,000		Karhātha Kuram	2,400,000	
Palaskher	960,000	***	Kholapur	4,870,114	70,114
Karyat Pala, (100			Kāranja, Badhonā,	4	l
Cav., 2,000 Inf.			2 mahala	4,800,000	•••
Gonds)	800,000		Karanjgaon, Qasbah	F00 000	
Beror	1,280,000		Kherah, 2 mahals	523,200	•••
Qasbah Baligaon	817,850		Kumargaon	640 000	400 000
Postah	814,416	504,460	Kāranja Bibi	4 200 000	1,400,000
Radherāmeni		1,625,300	36	4,800 000	***
Tival	800,000			4,800,000	•••
Maner	800,000	***	Nandgāon Pith Nandgāon	6.633,826	238,826
Mänjarkher	6,400,000 480,000	***	Danmanah Min	8,220,000	200,020
		***	TT Short on		1,600,000
Manglor, (Mangrol)	2,800,000	***	margaon		
Murjhi (Mojbri)	4,800,000	***	managaon H	1,600,000	1,000,0

Sarkar of Panar.

Containing 5 Parganas. Revenue 13,440,000 Dāms.

Revenue D.	D.
Sub. dist. of Panär, has a lofty stone fort, surrounded on 3 sides by water 4,000,000	Kheljhari, 100 horsemen, 400 foot, Räjput 2,400,000 Mäudgšon Karar, 25 horse,
Bewanbärhä, Känt Barhä 640,000 Shein, 16 horsemen, 400 foot 1,600,000	400 foot, Rājput [=Nand-

Sarkār of Kherla.

Containing 35 Parganahs. Revenue 17,600,000 Dams.

the p horse, Ashta Patan Bhesdahi 2,000 f Baror, C horse, Bāsad, Gond.	lain. Ri 2,000 foot i, Rājput, oot chandji M 500 foot (Māsod), 10 horse, lājput, 40	100 horse [āli (?) 20 Brahman 100 foot horse, 500	3,200,000 160,000 1,200,000 1,600,000 2,800,000	Nārangwari [?Maramihiri]	000
Mangah Sewah Jāmkher Belwali Sirāi Chakhli	5 0 0 0 0 0 1 00	•••	•	Bāri Wāigāon Deo- thānah Bāri Saloi Rāmjok Janābak [? Halbatak] Jomār [? Chopar]	

Sarkar of Narnala.

Containing 34 Parganas. Revenue 130,954,476 Dāms. Suyurghāl 11,038,422 Dāms.

	Revenue D	Suyur- ghải D		Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D
Bālapur Paujar Bārsi Tānkli Pigalgāon Pātar Shaikh Bābu Qasbah Bārigāon Pātarra Bānbahar Badner Bhuli	8,000,000 11,200 000 22,000 000 2,000 000 2,864,000 2,400,000 3,700 000 1,800,300 3,342 500 1,568 000 2,764,450	3,300,000 500 000 640 000 1,262 500 668 000 364,452	Sheold Sherpur Karaukher Kothal Kothil Mangāon Mahen Malkāpur Melgarh, (from proceeds of road tolls or safe-conduct passports)	48,000 2,400,000 1,409,000 640,000 4,800,000 600,000 11,200,000	800,040 209,000
Badner Känka Jalgāon Jaipur Chāndor	4 818 700 10,000,000 400 000 4,887,000	2,000,000	Karvät Rājor Nādura, (Nandura) Qasbah Hatgāon	1,200,000 1,500,000	170,866 300,000

Sarkār of Kallam (Kalamb).

Containing 31 Parganahs. Revenue 32,828,000 Dāms in money.

				Revenue D.					Revenue D.
Indori [U	ndri]	•••	•••	1,200,000	Qasba K	allam	***		500,000
Amrãoti	***	•••		1,200,000	Kelāpur	•••	•••	•••	1,200,000
I'ni [Anjr		•••		1,600,000	Lädkher	•••	***		1,600,000
Punah [?	Pusda]	•••			Näigäon		• • • •	***	960,000
Bori	***	•••			Nachangā			_ :::	640,000
Belur	*	***	***	2,800,000	Yunt Lo	hārā	[? Noni		128,000
Tälegäon	***		•••		Barkhond				
Talegaon,	Waigāo	n	***	4,800,000	(in the		session	of a	
Dungar	***		***	1,600,000	Zamindā	7)	***	•••	
Rālegāon		n n s0	• • •	,	Malbori		***		•
Sālod	18.0	• • •	***		Chandur	-::-	- ***	***	
Kurha		•••	***	960,000	Lahubāti	[74	ohagarh]	٠	

Sarkar of Basim.

Containing 8 Parganahs. Revenue 32,625,250 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 1,825,250.

	Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D		Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D
Aunda Suburb. dist. of Bā-	4,864,000		Kalambuh Nāri	 4,800 000 3 200,000	1,600,000
	8,161,250 2,400,000	161,250	Marai	1,200.000 3,200 000 4,800,000	

Sarkar of Mahur.

Containing 20 Parganahs. Revenue 42,885,444 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 97,844 Dāms.

		Revenu D.			Revenue D.
Ansing	•••	960,00	Pusäd	***	4,000,000
Amar Kher	•••	6,400,00	Tāmsā		2,177,844
Chikni		3,200,00		•••	64,000
Chincholi	***	2,400,00			3,260,000
Suburb. dist.			Khenot	•••	1,300,000
Qasbah, of	Surah, S		Korath [Korandh		460,000
ghal 97,844			Metth [Mantha]	***	2,400,000
Dharwah		2,400,00		***	1,660,060
Dhanki [Dhan	nnıj	320,00		•••	2,000,000
Shevala	7**	2,400,00); Hald Badhonā	•••	***

Sarkar of Manikdrug.

Containing 8 Parganahs. Revenue 14,400,000 Dams in money.

Papai Bhia Chāndor Jāir (? Ja	···	•••	2,000,000 2,400,000	Rējor Karath Nair	•••	***	Revenue D. 2,400,000 2,000,000 1,600,000
Jasz [f]a	ora)	• • •	1,600,000	J			.,,

Sarkar of Pathri.

Containing 18 Parganahs. Revenue 80,805,954 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 11,580,954 Dāms.

	Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D		Revenue D	Suyur- ghāl D
Ardkäpur Suburban district or Pathri Parbani Pänchalgäon Balhor [Valur] Basmet Bärad Täkli Jintor	£ 25,114.740 8,000 000 2,000,000 2,400 000 21,260,000 160,000 640,000	5,014,740	Shevii	8,200 000	405,000 1,205,600 1,806,000 160,000 471,209 240,000

Sarkar of Telingana.

Containing 19 Parganahs. Revenue 71,904,000 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 6,600,000 Dāms.

Revenue D.	venue D.
	40,000
200,000 Dhakwār Peglur	96
Bodhan, Suyarghal 4,400,000 8,000,000 Rajor, Suyarghal 800,000 1,6	00,000
Progr. Suvergial 400,000 1,600,000 [Kotgir, Swywrghal 1,000,000 2,2	,000
Bhaise 6,400,000 Kharki 6,4	100,000 164,000
DELICATION !!!	200,000
Difficult [Locations]	100,000
Pariota (Pariotal)	100,000
Tamberni 1,600,000 Nirmai	,,,

Sarkar of Ramgarh [= Ramgir]

Containing 5 Parganahs. Revenue 9,600,000 Dams in money.

	Revenue D.	Revenue D.
Bai Arab	2,500,000 Khandwah [? Khandar]	2,240,000
Chinar	3,200,000	

Sarkar of Mehkar.

Containing 4 Parganahs. Revenue 45,178,000 Dams in money. Suyurghāl 376,000 Dāms.

Revenue	1	Revenue
Suburban district of Mehkar,	Dewalgāon Sakkar Kherla,	5,600,000
7 divisions 2,560,000 Tamurni [? Samarni] 7,200,000	Sakkar Kherla, 376,000	6,776,000

Sarkār of Baithalwādi.

Containing 9 Parganahs. Revenue 19,120,000 Dāms. Suyurghāl 4.800,000 Dāms.

	Revenue D.	Revenue
Undargãon		hār] 4,800,000
Anāwān [Anva]	40,000 Dhawer [=	:Dhāora] 2,600,000
	1,200,000 Seoni	640,000
		Bārah [? Shilod
	2 000 000 Parent1	1,600,000

This province was dependent on the ruler of the Deccan. During the reign of Sultan Mahmud, five Sardars rebelled and kept him under restraint, and the sovereignty was assumed by Fath-ullah who had held the office of Imad-ul-Mulk. He ruled but four years. At his death,

^{1568.} Tufel, whose usurpation was opposed from Ahmadnagar and family of Imad Shah and Tufal was extinguished. In the appendix to Elphinstone's Hist of India, (Edit. Cowell 1866) the dates are as follows :-

			A.D.
Fatah Ullah	• • •	•••	1484
Alā u'd din	•••	***	1504
Derya (about)		•••	1529
Burhān (perhaps)			1560

During the minority of Burhan, his prime minister, Tufal usurped the government and the State merged in that of Ahmadnagar in A.D. 1572.

¹ Imād-ul-Mulk one of the oldest of the Bahmani ministers had been appointed to the government of Berār by Muhammad Shāh II of the Bahmani dynasty (A.D. 1463—1482) under the advice of his prime minister Mahmud Gawan, to whom this dynasty owed its splendour, and which perished at his death. Mahmud II (A.D. 1482—1518) for a period of 37 years was content with the nominal sovereignty leaving the real power in the hands of Qasim Barid and his son Adam, the founder of the Barid Shāhi dynasty of Ahmadābād. Barid and his son Amir, the founder of the Barid Shāhi dynasty of Ahmadabād. The Bahmani kingdom was now broken up into five independent sovereignties, viz., the Barid Shāhi, the Adil Shāhi of Bijāpur, the Nizām Shāhi of Ahmadnagar, the Qutb Shāhi of Golconda and the Imād Shāhi of Berār. Imād-ul-Mulk, in the general anarchy seized the government which had been entrusted to him and declared his independence in A.D. 1484. The succession is thus given in the U. T.

1484. Fath u'l lah Bahmani, governor of Berār, became independent.

Alā u'd din, Imād Shāh, fixed his capital at Gāwel.

1528. Darya Imād Shāh, married his daughter to Hasan Nizām Shāh.

Burhān Imād Shāh. deposed by his ministets.

his son Alā-ud-din, took the same title and reigned 40 years. His son Daryā Khān succeeded, and enjoyed the government for 15 years. After him, his son, Burhān, a minor, was raised to the throne, but the nobles perfidiously usurped the administration, till Murtaza Nizām-ul-Mulk conquered and annexed the country to Ahmadnagar.

SUBAH OF GUJARAT.

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from Burhanpur to Jagat [i.e., Dwarka in Kathiawar] is 302 kos; its breadth from Jalor to the port of Daman 260 kos. and from Idar to Kambhāyat (Cambay) 70 kos. On the east lies Khandes; to the north Jalor and Idar; to the south, the ports of Daman and Kambhayat, and on the west, Jagat which is on the seashore. Mountains rise towards the south. It is watered by noble rivers. Besides the ocean. there are the Sābarmatti (Savarnamati), the Bātrak, the Mahendri, the Narbadah, the Tapti, the Saraswati, and two springs called Ganga and Jamna. The climate is temperate and the sandy character of the soil prevents it from turning into mud in the rainy season. The staple crops are Towari, and Bajra, which form the principal food of the people. The spring harvest is inconsiderable. Wheat and some food grains are imported from Mālwa and Aimer, and rice from the Deccan. Assessment is chiefly by valuation of crops, survey being seldom resorted to. The prickly pear is planted round fields and about gardens and makes a goodly fence, for this reason the country is difficult to traverse. From the numerous groves of mango and other trees it may be said to resemble a garden. From Pattan! to Baroda which is a distance of a 100 kos, groves of mango yield ripe and sweet fruit. Some kinds are sweet even when unripe. Fine figs grow here and musk-melons are delicious in flavour both in summer and winter, and are abundant during two months in both seasons. The grapes are only moderate in quantity: flowers and fruit in great plenty. From the thick growth of forest sport is not satisfactory. Leopards² abound in the wilds.

The roofs of houses are usually of tiles and the walls of burnt brick and lime. Some prudently prepare the foundations of stone, and of considerable breadth, while the walls have hollow spaces between, to which they have secret access. The usual vehicles are two-wheeled drawn by two Painters, seal-engravers and other handicraftsmen oxen.

¹ I. G. Anhilwara Pattan, lat. 23° 51′ 30″ N., long. 72° 10′ 30″ R. on the Saraawati, one of the oldest and most renowned towns of Gujarāt.

^a The term yus is employed in Ain 27 and 28 Vol. I, (Book II) for leopards generally including the hunting leopard, (F. Jubata), being used indifferently with the common name for the latter, chitā.

are countless. They inlay mother-o'-pearl with great skill and make beautiful boxes and inkstands. Stuffs worked with gold thread and of the kinds Chirah, Fotah, Jāmahwār, Khārā, and velvets and brocades are here skilfully manufactured. Imitations of stuffs from Turkey, Europe, and Persia are also produced. They make likewise excellent swords and daggers of the kinds Jamdhar? and Khapwah, and bows and arrows. There is a brisk trade in jewelry and silver is imported from Turkey and

At first Pattan3 was the capital of the province, next Champaner and at the present day, Ahmadabad. The latter is a noble city in a high state of prosperity, situated on the banks of the Sabarmatti. It lies in latitude 250.4 For the pleasantness of its climate and its display of the choicest productions of the whole globe it is almost unrivalled. It has two forts, outside of which are 360 quarters of a special kind which they call Pura, in each of which all the requisites of a city are to be found. At the present time only 84 of these are flourishing. The city contains 1,000 stone mosques, each having two minarets and rare inscriptions. In the Rasulābād Pura is the tomb of Shah Aalam Bokhari. Batwah is a village 3 kos from

¹ See p. 52, (note II) Vol. II, Book III, and pp. 93—95 of Vol. I, B. I. Chirah is a parti-coloured cloth used for turbans. Jāmawār, is a kind of flowered woollen stuff, well known, Khārā an undulated silk cloth.

See p. 110, Vol. I, Book I.

^{*}See p. 110, Vol. 1, Book 1.

Of successive dynasties of Rājput kings from 746 to 1194 A.D. Champāner was taken by Mahmud (Bigārah) of Ahmadābād after a siege, it is said, of 12 years and was made his capital and continued to be that of the Gujarāt kings till about 1560 A.D. I. G.

Lat. 23° 1′ 45" N., long. 72° 38′ 30" E. The Emperor Aurangzeb had a different opinion of its climate and called it among other abusive epithets, Jahannumābād or the Abode of Hell. See Bayley, p. 91.

A quarter or ward of a town, having its own gateway. The I. G. has pol and describes it as a block of houses varying in size from small courts of 5 or 10, to large quarters of the city containing as many as 10,000 inhabitants. The larger blocks are generally crossed by one main street with a gate at each end and subdivided into smaller blocks each with its separate gate branching off from the chief thoroughfare.

The text has Patwah, the variant Batwah being relegated to the notes, but the best authorities concur in the latter reading. For Outh-i-Aālam, see Bayley, p. 128, and Briggs' Cities of Gujarashtra, p. 292. Regarding the lithoxyle over the tomb, Briggs writes that one of the legends given him concerning it is that Outh-i-Aālam on a journey to his masjid tripped against a stone and picking it up, said, "Can this be stone, wood or iron?" and the combination ensued. A visitor who had preceded Briggs on a visit to this place wrote to him as follows: "The size mentioned by Abul Fazl is correct. The stone is not now on the sepulcure but deposited in the chief Said's house. Great reverence is paid to it and on such occasions as visitors desire to see it, it is produced under a covering of brocade. It appears to be petrified wood, the barky part gives it the appearance of iron oxydised; that portion where it has been chipped by the hand of Akbar when he visited Batwa (according The text has Patwah, the variant Batwah being relegated to the notes, it has been chipped by the hand of Akbar when he visited Batwa (according

Ahmadābād where are the tombs of Qutb-i-Aālam father of Shah Aalam, and of other eminent personages. In the vicinity are fine gardens. Over the tomb is suspended a covering of about the measure of a cubit, partly of wood, partly of stone and a part also of iron, regarding which they relate wonderful stories. At a distance of three kos is the village of Sarkhech (Sarkhej) where repose Shaikh Ahmad Khattu, Sultan Ahmad after whom, Ahmadabad is named, and many other princes. Indigo of good quality is here grown and exported to Turkey and other countries.

Twelve kos from Ahmadābād is Mahmudābād a citv founded by Sultan Mahmud, in which are beautiful buildings extending to an area of 4 kos square. The whole is surrounded by a wall and at every half kos is a pleasure house and a preserve in which deer and other kinds of game are at large.

The chief of Idar is a Zamindar named Narain Das. and of such austere life that he first feeds his cattle with corn and then picks up the grains from their dung and makes this his food, a sustenance held in much esteem by the Brāhmans. He is regarded as the head of the Rāthor tribe and has a following of 500 horse and 10,000 foot.

The ports of Ghoga and Kambhāyat (Cambay) are included in this (Gogo) Sarkār. The latter is a large city where merchants of divers kinds reside and wherein are fine buildings and much merchandise. Vessels sail from and trade to Ghogah. The cargoes are put into small ships called Tawari which transport them to Kambhāyat.

In Kari are fine oxen, a pair being worth 300 rupees, and according to their shapeliness, strength and speed fetching even a larger price.

Ihālāwār was formerly a separate principality containing 1,200 villages. Its length is 70 kos and its breadth 40. It furnished 10,000 horse and the same number of infantry. Now it possesses but 2,000 horse and 3,000 foot. Its ruler was subject to the king of Gujarāt. It formed four divisions, the inhabitants mostly of the Jhāla tribe of Rājputs.

to the Abbot of the community) shews the fibre or vein of the wood; and upon the opposite side, where it seems to have been ground crosswise, it bears the appearance of stone."

'See Bayley's Hist. of Gujarāt, pp. 90 and 130. A description of these mausoleums will be found in Messrs. Hope and Fergusson's "Architecture of Ahmedābād." London Murray, 1866. Khattu is one of the towns in the Sarkār of Nāgor. Cf. Briggs' Cities of Gujarashtra, p. 275.

At the present day it is accounted a Pargana of Ahmadābād, and its villages and districts are summarized in the follow-

ing table.

Great Jhālāwār contains Birāmgāon residence of the chief, Halod, Wadhwān, Koha, Daran Gadra, Bijānā, Pātri which has a salt-pit, Sahālā, Baroda, Jhinjhuwārā, Sanjān, (? Sanand), Dhulhar, Mandal.

Parganahs of Machhukhantā contain Morbi, Rāmpur, Tankārā, Khanjariā, Malia, Kazor, in the vicinity of which pearls are found, Dhansar, Amrol (Amreli).

Parganahs of Jāmbuji contain Jāmbu, Limri, Siāni.

Parganahs of Chaubisi, chief seat of the Parmār tribe contain Morbi, with 36 villages and Chotilā with 55 villages. Now Morbi with 7 districts is included in Sorath.

Pattan has two forts, one of stone and one of brick. It lies in long: 117° 10′, lat. 23° 30′. It produces fine oxen that will travel 50 kos in half a day. Good cotton cloths are here woven and are taken to distant parts as gifts of value.

Sidhpur is a town on the Sarsuti and a great place of

pilgrimage.

Barnagar [Vadnagar] is a large and ancient city and containing 3,000 pagodas, near each of which is a tank; it is chiefly inhabited by Brāhmans.

Châmpaner is a finely situated fort on a crag of great height¹; the approach to it for two kos and a half is extremely difficult. Gates have been posted at intervals. At one place a cutting about 60 yards long has been made across which planks are laid which can be removed when necessity arises. Fine fruits abound.

Surat is a celebrated port. The river Tapti runs by

it and at a distance of 7 kos thence, falls into the sea.

Rānder on the opposite side of the Tapti is a port dependent on Surat; it was formerly a large city. The ports of Khandewi and Balsār also are a part of the Surat division. Numerous fruits abound especially the pine apple, and oils of all kinds and rare perfumes are obtainable. The followers of Zoroaster coming from Persia, settled here. They follow the teaching of the Zend and the Pāzend, and erect funeral structures. Thus through the wide tolerance of His Majesty every sect enjoys freedom. Through the negligence of the ministers of state and the commanders of the frontier pro-

^{&#}x27;Tieffenthaler states that the fortress on the summit of the hill is called Pauagarh and the town at its foot Champaner.

vinces, many of these Sarkārs are in the possession of European nations, such as Daman, Sanjān, Tārāpur, Māhim and Base (Bassein) that are both cities and ports.

Bharoj (Broach) has a fine fort. The Narbada flows past it in its course to the ocean. It is accounted a maritime town of first rate importance, and the ports of Kāwi, Ghandhār, Bhābhut and Bhankorā [Bhakora] are its dependencies.

Near the town of *Hānsot* is a game preserve 8 kos in length by 4 in breadth, full of deer and other animals. The cover is rich and fresh with verdure, being situated on the banks of the *Narbada* and is perfectly level.

The Sarkār of Sorath² was an independent territory, having a force of 50,000 cavalry and 100,000 infantry, the ruling tribe being Ghelot. Its length from the port of Ghogo (Gogo) to that of Arāmdāe³ is 125 kos; its breadth from Sardhar (?.Sadra, n. of Ahmadabad) to the seaport of Diu, 72 kos. On the east it is bounded by Ahmadābād; on the north by the State of Kachh (Cutch); on the south and west by the (Indian) Ocean. Its climate is healthy, its fruits and flowers numerous and grapes and melons grow here. This territory is divided into 9 districts each inhabited by a different tribe, as follows:—

Parganahs of new Sorath.

Junahgarh with suburban district, Sultānpur, Barwa [Bantva], Hānsāwar, Chaura Rāmpur, Kandolnā, Hast Jati, Und, Bagsarā, Mahandrā [Mandurda], Bhāntror [Ghantwar], and others.

Parganahs of old Sorath, called Naghar.

Pattan Somnāth, Aunah, Delwārah, Mangler, Korinār, Mul Mahādeo, Chorwār, Diu, &c.

Parganahs of Gohelwarah.

Lāthi, Luliyānah, Bhimpur, Jasdhom, Māndwi, Birāi, Sehor.

¹ A small village in Thana (Tanna) Dist., where the Parsis first landed in India, known to the Portuguese and long after their time as St. John. I. G.

² The old name for Käthiawar, or Saurashtra and Prakritised in that of Sorath which is to this day the name of a large district 100 miles in length in the south-west.

² Aranda, near port Okha, n. of Jagat Dwarka.

Parganahs of Wālā.

Mahwah, Talājā, Pālitānah, &c.

Parganahs of Badhelah.

Jagat (called Dwarka), Aramdae, Dharhi (? Sanku-dhar).

Parganahs of Barrā. (Berda?)

Barrā, Gumli, &c.

Parganahs of the Baghela¹ tribe.

Sordhär, Gondal, Räyet, Dhänak, &c.
Parganahs of the Wāji in the uncultivated tracts.
Jhanjhmer.

Parganahs of the Timbel tribe.

Not assigned in any of the MSS.

The first district known as New Sorath had remained unexplored on account of the impenetrable nature of the forests and the intricate windings of the mountains. A recluse by chance found his way into it and through him a knowledge of it was gained. Here is the celebrated stone fortress of Junahgarh which Sultān Māhmud, I, captured by force of arms and at the foot of it built another fort of stone. At a distance of 8 kos is the fort of Osam on the summit of a hill; it has now fallen into decay, but is worthy of restoration. There is also another stronghold on the summit of the hill of Girnār in which are many springs, a place of worship of the Jains. Adjacent is the port of Kondi Kolidyā, which derives its name from two villages at a distance of one kos from it. In the rear of Junahgarh is an island called Siālkokah 4 kos in length by 4 in breadth,

³ The I. G. (I. 550) calls this clan Wäghelä tribe of Räjputa, a remnant of the Solänki race who fled from Anhilwärah when that kingdom was destroyed by Alä u'd din in A.D. 1297.

destroyed by Ala u'd din, in A.D. 1891.

² Bigarah of Gujarāt. One derivation of this name is its supposed meaning of two forts (garh) because Mahmud's army conquered on one day Chāmpāner and Junahgarh, Vol. I, p. 506, n. According to T. Junahgarh, aignifies the ancient fort, because it was long concealed in the dense forest and discovered by a wood cutter. The legend runs that 1500 years elapsed from its discovery to the time of Māndalik from whom Mahmud wrested the fortress. See Bayley's Hist. of Gujarāt, pp. 161—182, for the derivation of the name.

² Var. and G. Kondi or Gondilakiyāt. [Can it be Kodiner?]

adjacent to which is a forest, 3 kos square, where wild fruits grow and where there is a settlement of Kolis. This tract is called Gir. Near the village of Tunkagosha, the river Bhādar falls into the ocean. Its fish are so delicate that they melt when exposed to the sun. Good camels are here obtainable and a breed of horses somewhat larger than the Gunth.

In the second district is Pattan, a city on the seashore possessing a stone fort. This they call Pattan Somnāth. It is both a capacious harbour and a town having nine² stone towers on the plain, within an area of three kos on the seashore. Good swords are made here, there being a well in the vicinity the water of which gives them a keen edge.

The ports of Manglor,3 Diu, Purbandar, Korinār, Ahmadpur and Muzaffarābād are about this coast. A spring of the Sarsuti (Saraswati⁴) rises near Somnāth. Brahmanical shrines are numerous, but among these Somnāth, Parānchi, and K-orinār are accounted among the most sacred. Between the rivers Haran and Sarsuti about 4,000 years ago, 560,000,000 of the Yadu race while engaged in sport and merriment, fell to fighting and all of them perished in that field of death, and wonderful are the legends that they relate. Two and a half kos from Pattan Somnāth is Bhāl ka Tirth's (or the shrine of the Arrow). In this place an arrow struck Sri Kishn and buried itself under

² A note says Tunkragosā, in the maps. There are two rivers of the name of Bhādar, one rises in the Māndav hills and flowing S. W. falls into the sea at Nawi-Bandar after a course of 115 miles. Another from the same hills, sea at Nawi-Bandar after a course of 115 miles. Another from the same infinite flowing E, falls into the Gulf of Cambay. The Kolis are a predatory tribe and their distribution is not confined to a single province. They were spread over the country between Cambay and Ahmadābād and the well-wooded country afforded them a refuge from attack.

² Gladwin has turned these words into a mame which mistranslation I notice

as it has been adopted by Count von Noer in his monograph on Akbar, p. 98. (Mrs. Beveridge's Trans.). The Diwān of Junagarh, Haridās Viharidās, has conrteonsly given me the benefit of his local knowledge. The new temple and the ruins of the old are within the fort which was inhabited chiefly by the attendants of the shrine, the population living in the environs forming the town. Pattan is said to have had three walls and hence named Trigadki. The length of the present walls covers nearly two miles. The fort had or

has 10 towers or bastions of which 8 are existing and two are in ruins.

The I. G. gives Mangrol. The text unites Diu and Purbandar (elsewhere Porbandar) in one name, as Somnāth is called Deo Pattan, but it is probable that the port of Din was intended by Abul Fazl.

⁴ The river rises in Mount Abu and enters the Runn of Cutch, though a part of its course near Sidhpur and Patan towns, is said to be subterranean.

4 Apparently the Bhat Kund of the I. G. Yudhisthira after the slaughter of the 56 tribes of the Yadu race on the field of Kurukshetra and the death of Duryodhana, in grief at the loss of so many kinsmen, placed Parikshita on the throne of Indraprastha, and retired with Krishna and Baldeo to Dwarka. They were attacked by the Bhils and Krishna was slain. Baldeo founded the city of Patalibotra or Patna.

a pipal tree on the banks of the Sarsuti. This they call Pipal sir, and both these spots are held in great veneration. An extraordinary event occurs at the town of Mul Mahādeo where there is a temple dedicated to Siva. Every year on a certain day before the rainy season, a bird called Mukh1 appears. It is somewhat smaller than a pigeon, with a coarser beak and pied in colour. It alights on the temple, disports itself for a while, and then rolls over and dies. On this day, the people of the city assemble and burn various kinds of perfume and from the proportions of black and white in the plumage of the bird, they calculate the extent of the coming rainfall, the black portending rain, the white, drought. In this tract, there are three crops of jowar annually. At Unah there are two reservoirs, one of which is called Jamna, the other Ganga. The water bubbles up and forms a stream and the fish of these two springs have three eyes, the third eye being in the forehead.

Between Manglor and Chārāwār is a tract into which the sea enters. On a certain day of the year the water is sweet. It is related that in ancient times a certain person was in need of Ganges water. A recluse made a sign to the expanse and sweet water came forth. Ever since, upon that day this wonder is repeated to the astonishment of all.

In both of these districts the Ghelot tribe of Rajputs prevail and the ruling power in this country is in their hands. At the present time the force (of the first district) consists of 1,000 horse and 2,000 foot. There is also a settlement of Ahirs called Babriyas.2 The force (of the second district) is 2,000 horse and 3,000 foot.

In the third district at the foot of the Satruniah (Satrunjaya) hill, is a large fort and on its summit, the fort of Pālithānah. Though in ruins, it deserves restoration. It is in great veneration with the Jains. The port of Ghoga (Gogo) is a dependency of this district. island of Biram (Perim) was formerly the residence of the governor; it is 9 kos square and is a low recky island in

Or Makh. In a work called Haqiqat-i-Hindustan, the word is Sakh or Sukh. See Bayley, p. 197, who records this event and places it in the village of Madhopur.

The name of one of the old territorial prants or districts into which Käthiawär was divided, was called Bäbriawär, a hilly tract on the S.R.

The hill is sacred to Λdināth the deified priest of the Jains. The description of Pālitāna in the I. G. taken from Mr. Burgess' "Notes of a visit to Satrunjaya Hill," gives an interesting sketch of this temple hill. Perim (the Baiones of the Periplus) is in the Gulf of Cambay, 8 miles S. of Gogo.

the midst of the sea. The Zamindār is of the Gohel' tribe. This district possesses 2,000 horse and 4,000 foot.

In the fourth district, are the ports of Mohwah and Talājā, inhabited by the Wali clan. The local force consists of 300 men and 500 foot.

In the fifth district is Jagat, called also Dwarka. Sri Krishna came hither from Mathura (Muttra) and here died. It is a great Brahmanical place of worship. The island of Sankudhār [Bait] 4 kos square is reckoned within this district. Near Aramdae is an island 70 kos in length and breadth. An area of half a kos of this land is for the most part stony and if an excavation is made salt-water pours in on all sides. Malik Ayaz² Khas Khel, of Sultan Mahmud I of Gujerāt, had, one-fourth of it dug up. The port of Arāmdāe is superior to most of its class. The inhabitants are of the Bādhel tribe. It musters 1,000 horse and 2,000 foot.

In the sixth district Barra, the country is so hilly, the forests so impenetrable and the defiles so extensive that it is impassable for troops. The Jaitwah clan inhabit it. It furnishes 1,000 horse and 2,000 foot.

In the seventh district are the Baghelahs. It furnishes 200 horse and the same number of foot. The Kāthis are numerous in this tract; they are of the Ahir caste and are skilful in the management of horses. The military force is 6,000 cavalry and 6,000 infantry. They are said by some to be of Arabian origin. Cunning but hospitable, they will eat of the food of people of every caste, and are a handsome race. When any Jagirdar comes amongst them they make it a condition that there shall be no account

¹ The Gohels came from the north in the 13th century, and retreating before the tide of Muhammadan conquest conquered for themselves new seats in the decadence of Anhilwära. They are now in R. Käthiswär.

¹ See Bayley's Hist. of Gujatät, p. 233 et seq. Khäs Khe? represents the position of a royal equerry combined with high command. Perishta calls him the ghulām-i-khās or confidential attendant of Mahmud. He was premier noble (Amir u'l Ufinarš) and commander in chief of the army, fought and defeated the Portuguese fleet at Chaul and sank the admiral's flagship valued at a kror of rupees. (A.H. 913—A.D. 1507).

¹ I have no doubt that this is Bardā (or Jaitwār) of the I. G.; a division of Kāthiawār lying between 21° 11′ and 21° 57′ N. lat., and 69° 30′ and 70° 7′ R. long., bounded N. and N.-H. by Hallār; H. by Sorath, and S.-W. by the Arabias Sea. The Barda hills are from 12 to 18 miles distant from the coast and formed a favourite refuge for outlaws.

¹ The name of Kāthiawār, was formerly given to a tract to the R. of the centre of the peninsula; from having been overrun by the Kāthis who entered from Cutch in the 13th and 14th centuries, it was extended to the whole committy by the Mahrattas who had come into contact with them in their foreys.

taken of the incontinence of any of their people. In the vicinity of the Kathis on the banks of the river Dondi, there is a sept of Ahirs called Porechas. Their force is 3,000 horse and the same number of foot. They are perpetually at feud with the lams.1

In the eighth district Jhanjhmer is a maritime port. The Wāji tribe prevail. There are 200 horse and 2.000 foot.

In the ninth district is the Charan tribe. Mahadeva formed a man from the sweat of his brow and gave him the charge of his own bull. He spoke in rhythmic sentences and sang the divine praises and revealed the past and the future. His descendants are known by his name. They chiefly recite panegyrics and genealogies and in battle chant deeds of valour and animate the warriors and some of them reveal future events. There are few of the nobles of Hindustan who have not some of these in their retinue. This district furnishes 500 horse and 4,000 foot. The tribe called Bhat resemble this caste in their panegyrics, their powers, their battle-chants, and genealogical recitations, and although in some of these respects they surpass them yet the Charans are better swordsmen. Some pretend that the Charans were called into life by the mere volition of the divinity, and the Bhats from Mahadeva.

Between Jhālwāra in the Sarkār of Ahmadābād, and Pattan and Sorath is a low-lying tract, 90 kos in length by 7 to 30 in breadth, called the Ran2 (the Runn). Before the rainy season, the sea rises and covers this area and falls as the rains cease. A considerable part dries up and is covered with salt, the duties of which are collected in the pargana of Jhālwāra. Ahmadabād lies to the east of this tract. On the west is a large separate territory called Kachchh (Cutch) 250 kos in length by 100 kos in breadth. Sind lies to the

The Järeja liputs, to which branch the Rao of Cutch belongs, are descended from the Summa (Sama!) tribe and came originally from the north. They are said to have emigrated from Sind about the 15th century under the leadership of Jä Läkha, son of Jära from whom the tribe derive their name. Till 1540 the Jäms ruled over Cutch in three branches. About that year Khengär succeeded in making himself head of the tribe and master of the province. His uncle Jäm Räwal fled to Käthiawär and founded the present reigning house of Nawanagar, the rulers of which are still called Jäms. See Jäm under the secount of Sind.

The word in Hindi signifies a waste or wilderness. There are two, the northern or larger Runn, 150 by 80 miles has an area of about 7,000 square miles. The eastern or smaller Runn, 70 miles from R. to W., covers an area of 2,000 square miles. Except a stray bird, a herd of wild asses, or an occasional caravan, no sign of life breaks the desert loneliness. I. G.

west of Cutch. The physical aspect of the country is barren and sandy. There is an excellent breed of horses believed to be of Arabian race, and there are good camels and goats. The chief of this country is of the Yadu' race and his tribe is now known as Jārejas. The military force of this clan is 10,000 cavalry and 50,000 infantry. The men are handsome, tall in stature and wear long beards. The residence of the chief is Bhuj, which has two strong forts Jhārah and Kantkot. On the Gujarāt side towards the south is a Zamindar of note whom they call Jam, a relative of the ruler of the above-mentioned state. Sixty years ago, Jām Rāwal, after a war of two months, was driven out of the country, and settled in Sorath between the territories of the Jaitwah, Bādel, Chāran, and Tumbel tribes. He posssessed himself of other parts and founded the city of Nawanagar and his country received the name of Little Cutch. Sattarsāl the present Rājah, is his grandson. There are many towns and the agricultural area is extensive. The residence of the chief is at Nawanagar and his force consists of 7,000 cavalry and 8,000 infantry. The camels and goats are of good breeds. For a considerable period the prime ministers of these two states have been of the Muhammadan religion.

In the vicinity of Morā and Mangrej is a state called Pāl² through which runs the river Mahendri towards the Gujarāt side. It has a separate ruler who resides at Dungarpur. On the Mälwa side is Banswara and that too has a separate chief. Each of them has a force of 5,000 horse

the state of Kirauli on the Chambal is now their chief independent possession.

* Pāk in the text, with the emendation Pāl by the Editor. There are two of the name, one within Māhi Kānta on its N. E. frontier. The other one of the petty states in Hallār, Kathiawār. The former must here be meant, as Dungarpur lies in lat. 23° 52′ N., long. 73° 49′ R. It is now a separate native state. The early history of the ruling family is not known with certainty; they paid tribute to the Mughal Empire and did military service, and on the fall of the Empire became tributary to the Mahrattas. I. G. The name Pāl says Bayley, seems to have been given to a congeries of petty hill states of which the rulers were Hindus. They appear to have included Dungārpur, Bijanagar and others.

Bijamagar and others.

¹ The lunar race established by the Scythian Budh, expanded into fiftysix branches and filled nearly the whole of northern India. Yadu 4th in
descent from Budh gave his name to the royal line which closed in Krishna
and Balrāma. While the solar race was confined to a narrow strip of land
between the mountains and the Ganges, the Yadus had spread over the whole
country. Yadu, says Elliot, (Races of the N.-W. P., Vol. I, 128) is the patronymic of all the descendants of Buddha, the ancestor of the Lunar race, of
which the Bhatti and the Jāreja are now the most conspicuous, but the title
of Jādon is now exclusively applied to that tribe which appears never to have
strayed far from the limits of the ancient Suraseni, and we consequently find
them in large numbers in that neighbourhood. The tract south of the Chambal them in large numbers in that neighbourhood. The tract south of the Chambal called after them Yaduvati is in the possession of the Gwalior Mahrattas and the state of Kirauli on the Chambal is now their chief independent possession.

and 10,000 foot, and both are of the Sisodia clan. The rulers were of the Rānā's family, but for some time past it has been otherwise.

Adjoining the Sarkar of Pattan is a state, the chief town of which is Sirohi and which possesses a force of 2,000 horse and 5,000 foot. On the summit of a hill is the strong fortress of Abugarh (Mount Abu) about which are 12 flourishing villages. Pasturage is plentiful.

There is also a territory having Nandurbur on the east, Mandu on the north, Nandod on the south and Champaner on the west. Its length is 60 kos, and its breadth 40. The chief is a Chauhan and his residence is the town of Ali Mohān. Wild elephants are numerous. The force consists of 600 horse and 15,000 foot.

Between Surat and Nandurbar is a mountainous but flourishing tract called Baglana, the chief of which is a Rathor, commanding 3,000 cavalry and 10,000 infantry. Fine peaches, apples, grapes, pineapples, pomegranates, and oranges grow here. It possesses seven remarkable forts,

among which are Mulher and Salher.

Between the Sarkars of Nandod and Nandurbar is a hilly district 60 kos in length by 40 in breadth, which the Gohel tribe of Rajputs inhabit. At the present day a Brāhman named Tewāri has the management of affairs, the titular Rajah being of no account. He resides at Rājpipla or Khulu, and has a force of 3,000 horse and 7.000 foot. The water of this tract is very unwholesome. Rice and honey of the finest quality are here produced.

This Subah embraces 9 Sarkars and 198 Parganahs, of which 13 are ports. The revenue is 43 krors, 68 lakhs, 22,301 dams (Rs. 10,920,557-8-0) and one lakh, 62,0283/4

Mahmudis² as port dues.

The measured land (except Sorath which is paid in money by estimate) is 1 kror, 60 lakhs, 36,377 bighas, 3 biswas, out of which 4 lakhs, 20,274 dams are Suyurghāl. The local force is 12,440 cavalry, and 61,100 infantry.

Both these lie in the Navasari (Nosari) district of the Baroda territory, the latter in the S. R. corner. Songarh and Rupgarh are two other forts. The former 43 miles H. of Surat, and Rupgarh 10 miles S. of Songarh. The hills must refer to the Rājpipla range, there being no other in the whole territory.

Mr. H. Thomas (Numismatic Chronicle, Vol. III, 3rd series) quotes Sir T. Herbert as saying about 1676 A.D. "A mahmudi is twelve pence, a rupee two shillings and three pence." See Bayley's Histary of Gujardt, p. 16. The relative value of coin varied according to time and locality. The Changezi Mahmudi is variously valued at half and two-thirds of a rupee and at half a crown, French money. Ibid, pp. 12 and 16.

Sarkar of Ahmadabad.

Containing 28 Mahals. 8,024,153 Bighas. Revenue 208,306,994 Dāms. Suyurghāl 6,511,441 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 4,120. Infantry 20,500.

various. Cavairy 4	120.	Imanti	20,00			
	Bighas Biswas		Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
		42.000.000		100		
City of Ahmadābād Suburb. dist. of Ahmadābād	370,087	15,000,078 23,999,371	144,680 4201,783		300	
M.) on the river Baroli Ahmadnagar has a stone	145,384	9,662,753	160,938	100	200	Chauhan.
fort faced with chunam	54,370	1,770,912	50,774	500	5,000	Solanki.
Idar, [revenue by estimate of crops]	•••	1,616,000		1000	5,000	Garāsiah ¹
Bahiel	375,675			100	200	
Bārah Sewah [Bāla Sinor] Birpur [? Pithapur] has a	84.960	2,814,124	5.608	50	100	Bhodia Rājpur, Lodiah
stone fort on the Mahen- dri	173,385	1,778,900	•••	300	600	Rājput, Kharbā
			1			and Bonah.
Paplod [Palod]	39,930			50	100	Rājput.
Parāntij	159,273	2,076,574	•••	100	200	O1.
Bandar Solah [?Bhadarwa]	i	800 000				i
(revenue in money) Petlād		600,000 771,960	128,990	•••	***]
Thamanah [? Thawad]		771,500	120,880	•••	•	
(rev. in money)		600,000	***	***	***	
Chhala-Babra, has s brick						
fort, somewhat dilapi-				1		
dated, saltpetre obtain-	40.000	04 000 000		200	10,000	Koli.
ed here	43,283 579,877	34,903,220 4,825 392	232,860	50	200	Thalawar.
Dholqa, the Sābarmati	318,011	4,020 092	5,627	30	200	Jean was.
flows adjacent	834,606	1.650,000	188,160	50	100	Ponwär.
Dhandhok, has a masonry		3,551,555	.00,100			
fort of chunam		113077044	***	500	4,000	Do.
Sirnāl	80,646	2,528 632	***	100	300	Garāsiah,
77 au!	000 000	00 105 7701		300	1,000	Mehtar. Ol. etc.
Kari Kambhäyat	236,037	30,125,778° 22,147,986	394,963 160,405		200	Rājput,
Kambhayat	330,010	22,147,000	100,400	100	200	Bārah.
Kapadbhani, a masonry			į	Į.	- 1	
fort of chunam	•••	80,125,778	27.309	100	500	Koli.
Mandwa		22,147,978	301,320	50	500	Do.
Modasa, has a brick fort	507,370	423,510	16,062	100	200	Do.
Mahmudābād, has a tem-	45 500	1 740 000	100 000			Chauhān.
ple to Mahādeva Masaudābād, has a brick	45,590	1,748,080	160,088	***	***	Chaunan.
fort	218,805	1,400,000				Ol (Koli)
Mangrej, has a masonry		-,,			•••	,
fort of chunam	76,629	121,762		100	300	Chanhan.
Nāriād	202,062	8,103,098	49,478		ered	Garāsiah.
					der	
Hasol	200,020	752,202	1	20	ruāl 100	Koli.
Prince Delicate	200,020		•••• 1		100	

¹ The Räjputs are here divided into two classes. (1) Garāsiahs or land-owners (see Bayley's *History of Gujarāt*, p. 98, for the derivation of this term), and (2) Cultivators. The former live a life of idleness on their lands and are greatly given to opium. *I. G.*

Sarkar of Pattan, north.

Containing 16 Mahals. 38,500,015 Bighas. Revenue 600.325,099 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 210,627 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 715. Infantry 6,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Pattan, has two forts		957,462	143,862	150	B ,00 0	Rājput, Koli, Kumbi,
Bijāpur	290,554	6,001,832	2,832	200	500	Koli.
Päthanpur		528,611	3,600,000	50	500	Do.
Badnagar, has a stone fort	37,600-13				ıder	Do.
				Bij	apur	4
Visalnagar	13,281	674,348	•••	20	100	Rājput, Jādun.
Therad, has a brick fort	240,052-11	4,000,000	•••	50	200	Rājput, Bārhah.
Tervāda do	294,516-17	2,130,000		50	1,000	Koli.
Suburb. dist. of Pattan	14,787-50				ader	
					itan	
Rādhan [-pur], has a brick				1		
fort Sami, has a shrine much	257,709-6	4,000,000	* •••	100	200	Koli.
venerated in Hindustan	107,2981	1,266,498	***	20:	100	Do.
Santalpur	34.267	287,340			***	
Kherāla	101,946-17	4,000,000	***		••	ł
Kākrej	112,338	1,312,590			der	i
•	1			Tel	arār	
Munjpur	51,814-11	909,630		25;	100	Do.
Morvāda	47,777	320,020	***		200	Do.
Disah, has a brick fort	288,270	1,600,000	***	50	200	Do.

^{*} So the MSS, but I apprehend these figures should be reversed, the larger coming under revenue, as G. has it.

Sarkar of Nandod-north.

Containing 12 Mahals. 541,817 Bighas, 16 Biswas. Revenue 8,797,596 Dams. Suyurghāl 11,328 Dāms.

	Biswas Bighas	Revenue D.			Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.
Badál [?Bhadli]	158,696 40,663	17,076 2,061,368 272,645	Nandod with	suburb	14,903 15,028 5,402	412,093 80,307 62,328 16,090
Tilakwāda Tahwā [Tankhala]		1,595,525 165,509	dist. Natrang	•••		3,929,330 40,798

Sarkār of Baroda, south.

Containing 4 Mahals. 922,212 Bighas. Revenue 41,145,895 Dāms. Suyurghal 388,358 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 900. Infantry 5,800.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Baroda with sub. dist. has a brick fort	500,920	20,403,485		200	400	Ponwār, &c Rājput.
fort Dabhoi, has a stone fort Sinor, the Narbada, in its	1,680,920 167,090	6,243,280 9,252,550	4,562	500 500	5.000 500	Rājput. Rājput, Bahrāh.
course from the north, passes under the town	148,150	5,746,580	•••	500	5,000	Rājput, ,fol- lowing name ille- gible).

Sarkar of Broach, south.

Containing 14 Mahals. 349,771 Bighas. Revenue 21,845,663 Dāms. Suyurghal 141,820 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 990. Infantry 8,600.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur gbāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Castes
Olpād	186,420 188,876 90,383	1,659,877 558,010 307 ,787	***	50	280	Gwalia.
on the Narbada; here is a Hindu shrine Tarkesar Chharmandvi Suburban dist. of Broach Dehej Bārhā [Vagra] Kāri [Kareli]	64,660 8,752 44,821 52,975 42,664	456,230 5,651 122,795 7,022,690 1,174,540	64,516	•••	5,000	Rājput,
Karı (Kareli) Kala [Ghalha]	177,939	4,275,000 853,670 240,000	12,650	20	300	Räjput, Berhäh. Räjput, Garäsiah.

Sarkar of Broach, South—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Lorakh [?Luhara], on the seashore	31,760	1,287,230			•••	
Maqbulābād, on the sea- shore. Salt here obtained	81,750	1,912,040		20	100	Rājput. Musalmān.
Hānsot, one of the ports of this district	77,560	2,439,158		400	3,000	Rājput Bāghelah.

Sarkar of Champaner.

Containing 9 Mahals. 80,337 Bighas. 11 Biswas. Revenue 15,009,884 Dāms. Suyurghāl 173,730 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 550. Infantry 1,600.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Arwārah	19,129	48,209				
Champaner, with sub. dist.	10,123	10,000			1	
has two stone forts, one			1			
on a hill called Pawah,			[
and the second at its		4 400 640	173,730	500	1 000	
foot	159,590	1,429,649	1			
Chaudāwārah	27,328-8	21,530	***	•••	**1	
Chaurāsi	107,718	2,215,275	***	•••	***	
Dohad, has a stone fort	58,249	1.283,300	***		•••	
Dhol [Derol]	32,614	172,992	***	•••	•••	
Dilāwarah	18.129	48,628	***	•••	•••	
Sonkherah	240,313	2,995,696			***	
Sanwes, has a strong stone fort	120,391-1	2 300,000		50	100	Rājput.

Sarkar of Surat.

Containg 31 Mahals. 1,312,815 Bighas. 16 Biswas. Revenue 19,035,180 Dams. Suyurghāl 182,370 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 2,000. Infantry 5500.

	Bighes Biswas	Revenue D.	uvur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infant:y	Cantes
Ambhel, has a stone fort Părchol [=Parujan]	6.581 55,920	424,355 1,508,000		:::		

Sarkar of Surat-Contd.

						البديد ويسترين والمناوي
	Bighas	Revenue D.	Suyur ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Balsār, on the sea	74,702	1,281,420	50.785	100	500	
Deleven	86,400	1,013,045	15,035		1	
Beāwarah, has a stone fort	80,200	1,010,010	10,000	***	•••	
near Tapti	58,659	554,320		2000	5.000	Raiput.
Balwarah, has a stone fort,	00,000	00.,020	***		0,000	
and a shrine with a hot	1]	1]	1	
spring [?Palsana]	41,650	478,620	1			
Bhesrot [Bhestan]	21,170	425,055		·		
Pārnera	54,460	277,475				
Bhutsar	12,075	146,230				•
Bālor [?Kadod]	21,435	592,180	***		* ***	
Tilāri [Taori]	85,095	917,890	90,835	***	***	
Timbā	51,029-19	263,390	2,040	•••	***	
Chikhli, on the sea, has an			,		1	
iron mine	337,613	389,320	***	***	***	
Dhamori, on the river	40 004 40	505 500	}			
Timi? (Kim?)	40,994-19	767,520	10,000	•••	***	
Rander Surat with suburb, dist.	5,528	63,692	13,092	***	***	
In an address Cond	20 700	E 800 14E				
Com *	50,733 37,594	5,580,145 73,151	8,720	***	< 0.0	
Carleton	64.127	601,257		***	***	
721 1.1	4,024	026,760		***	•••	
Chamland	4,524	835,330	7,810	***	***	
Kharka [Kharsawa], on	7,027	000,000	7,010		***	
the Timi	42.019	629,310	•••			
Karodah [Kathodra]	000.704		24,550			
Kāmrej	68,044	328,205		***		
Kos [-amba], has a stone						
fort	9,771	228,390				
Lohari	5,928	85,280				
Maroli, on the sea	17,044	370,410	***	***	[
Mahwah (Moha?) on the						
sea	15,016	100,290	***	•••	***	
Nāroli	1,620	65,220	***	4**		
Nosari, with a manufac-						
tory of perfumed oil,	12.250	00E E00				
found nowhere else	17,353	297,720	•••	•••	***	
Nariād, on the sea	7,290	130,700		•••	•••	
	!	l				

Sarkār of Godhrā.

Containing 12 Mahals. 535,255 Bighas. Revenue 3,418,624 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 1,000. Infantry 5,000.

	Bigha	D,			Bigha	D.
Andhā [Aradrā] Atjawara [?Atar	17,877	184,935	Bera [Bariya] Jadnagar*	•••	37,318 46,690	257,202 120,660
Sunba]	46,704	63,460	Dagnakar.	•••	10,000	120,000

[•] Jadnagar-either Jambughoda or Chandpur.

Sarkar of Godhra-Contd.

	Bigha	D,		Bigha	D.
Jhālod [Halol] Dhānbod [Dhan-	92,409	794,654	Kohāna [Kadana] Marāl [Marwa]	20,858 46,755	785,360
pur] Shehera	17,082	140.000	Mahariwarah	19,285	525,975 10, 826
Godhra with sub.	35,702	146,322			
dist	150,250	785,660	1	İ	

Sarkar of Sorath (Kathiawad).

Containing 12 Mahals, of which 13 are ports. Revenue 63,437,366 Dāms. Cavalry 17,000. Infantry 365,000.

	Revenue D.		Revenue D.
Una Aivej Amreli	7,620,388 780,500 1,784,160	Dharwār [Dholarwa] Dhāntror Dhāri	59,792 252,048 644,270
Apletah Pattan Deo [Somnath] Bānwāra [?Wadhwan] Belkhā	1.214,592 4,453,912 2,049,340 440,000	Rånpur Rålgan	42,480
Bālsar Beri [? Baori] Barwa [? Baroda] Bandah Bāndor [Wanod]	509,760 145,600 50,664 84,960 14,060	Sarii Sultünpur Carıadhar Korinār Ghogah (Gogo), exclusive	4,936 424,800 623,040 4,538,560
Bhimrad Pālitana Bagsra [/ Digsar]	28,320 240,592 56,340 734,190	of port Kianābanāerā Kathar Garidhari	42,480 127,480 598,704
Barwārā [? Wasawad] Bādli Talāja Chokh [Charkha]	74,792 14,160 2,435,520 453,120	Gondol Kotiānā (Katiana) Kandolnā Luliānā Lenorā Batwā	56,640 1,797,256 198,432 1,423,080 487,576
Jaitpur Jagat [Dwarka] Chorwād (Charadwa) Chaurā Jetwad	803,200 936,960 97,288 1,071,660	Lāthi	296,152 995,048 2,051,136 127,440
Jasdhon (Jasdān Suburban dist. of Sorath Daulatābād	98,560 932,000 357,424	Manglor Melarah Morbi Miānsh	
Dang Dungar	4,410 760,400	Nāgsari Hatasni (?)	755,376 1,612,590

Port duties.

		Revenue Mahmudis		Revenue Mahmudis
Port of Manglor Pattan Deo Korinär Nägsari Porbandar	•••	27,000 25,000 1,000 10,000 27,228	Port of Mohwah (Mowa) ,, Meykor ? ,, Dungar ,, Talājā, 4 Mahals ,, Una	1,000 3,000 1,000 7,000 15,000

Princes of Gujarāt.

Seven princes reigned in succession 196 years.

				Y	ears.
Bana-rāj Chau	ihan¹	•••	•••	•••	60
Jog Rāj		•••	• • •	• • •	35
Bhimrāj	•••	•••	• • •	•••	52
Bhor	• • •	• • •	•••	•••	29
Bahr Singh	• • •	•••	• • •	•••	25
Ratnādat (var.	Rashādat)	• • •	•••	***	15
Sāmant	•••	•••	•••	•••	7

^{*}Sorath corresponds to mod. Junagad. The following emendations are suggested from Hamilton's E. I. Gazetteer and the Survey of India Atlas: Dhantror (=Dhamnagar), Dhari (=Darwa), Rālgaon (=Ranigaon), Siyor (=Sihor), Sarii (=Sarya), Korinar (=Kauri Nagar, 10 m. N. of Din point), Kathar (=Kantharia), Kandolna (=Kadorna), Luliana (=Lilaola), Ur.a =Una-Delwara).-1. Sarkar.

The following table is from the U. T. taken from the Ain-i-Akbari, and collated with the Agni Purana of Wilford.

A.D.

^{696.} Saila Deva, living in retirement at Ujjain found and educated.

^{745.} (S. 802) Banarāja, son of Samanta Sinh (Chohān) who founded Anhalpur, called after Anala Cohan.

^{806.} Tagarāja

^{841.} Bhira Raja, (Bhunda Deva. Wilford).

^{866.} Bheur.

^{895.} Behe sinh.

^{920.} Reshadat, (Raja Adity W.).
935. Samanta, (dan. married son of Delhi Raja). The total of years of reigns in the A. A. makes 223 instead of 198. G. and T. give Rhimraj 25 instead of 42, and thus correct the error.

Ten princes of the Solanki race reigned 224 years.1

				Yrs.	Ms.
Mulrāj Solanki	•••	***	•••	56	0
Chāmand	•••	•••	•••	13	0
Balabha	•••	•••	•••	0	6
Durlabha, his nephew	•••	***	••	. 11	6
Bhim, his nephew	•••	•••	•••	42	0
Karan	•••	•••	•••	31	0
Jai Singh, called also S	udhrāj	• • •	•••	5 0	0
Kumārpāl, grandson of	his uncle	•••	•••	23	0
Ajaipal, his nephew	•••	• • •	•••	8	0
Lakhmul	•••	•••	•••	8	0

Six princes of the Bāghelah tribe reigned 126 years.2

				Yrs.	Ms.	Ds.
Hardmul Bäghelah	•••	•••	•••	12	5	0
Baldeva	• • •			34	6	10
Bhim, his nephew	•••	•••	•••	42	0	0
Arjun Deva				10	0	0
Särang Deva	•••	•••		21	0	0
Karan	***		•••	6	10	15

The totals give only 238 years. The U. T. runs as follows:-

A.D. 910. Mula Raja, usurped the throne.

1038. Vallabha (ancient line restored).

1050. Bhima Rāja.
Kaladeva (Karan, A. A.) Carna Rajendra or Visaladeva, (W.) who became paramount sovereign of Delhi.

1094. Siddha or Jayashaha, in usurper Kumārapal, poisoned (by Ajayapala, son of Jayashaha).

The U. T. give the following

The Bhaghela tribe. Mula (Lakhmul, A. A. Lakhan Raya, W.) without issue.

Birdmul Baluca-Mula, W. of Bhaghela tribe.

A.D

1209. W. Bhima Deva. or Bala Bhima Deva, same as last W.

1250. Arjun Deva, 1260. Saranga Deva, A. A.

1281. Karau
Karna the Gohila fled to the Deccan when in the year 1309 Gujarāt
was annexed to Delhi by Alā ud din.

^{1025.} Chāmund, invaded by Sultan Mahmud (Samanta. W).

^{1039.} Durlabha (Dabisalima Ferichta) usurped the throne.

Fourteen (Muhammadan) princes* reigned about 160 years.

	•			
A.D.		Yrs.	Ms.	Ds.
1391.	Sultān Muzaffar Shāh,	3	8	16
1411.	Sultan Ahmad, I, his grandson (builds			
	Ahmadābād and Ahmadnagar),	32	6	20
144 3.		7	9	4
1451.	Outb ud din Ahmad Shāh (opposes			
	Malwa King and Chitor Raja		_	
	Kombha), Dāud Shāh, his uncle, (deposed in	7	0	13
1459.	Daud Shah, his uncle, (deposed in	_		
	favour of)	0	0	7
145 9.	Mahmud Shāh I, son of Muhammad			•
	Shāh (Begarrā: two expeditions to		4	4
	Deccan), Sultān Muzaffar, his son, (war with	55	1	4
1511.	Sultan Muzaffar, his son, (war with	4.4	0	^
17.50	Rājā Sangrām),	14	9	0
1526.		^	10	10
1 526.	sinated), Sultan Nasir Khān, his brother,	0	10	16
1.520.	(Mahand Shah II displaced by)	0	4	0
1526.	(Mahmud Shāh II, displaced by), Sultan Bahādur, son of Sultān	U	4	U
LOZO.	Muzaffar, (invades Mālwa: murdered			
	by Portuguese)	11	9	0
1536.	by Portuguese), Muhammad Shāh, sister's son,	4.1	J	U
1000.	(Fāruqi of Mālwa),	0	ç)	0
1536.		•	**	•
2000,	Muzaffar,	18	2	
			ie da	vs.
1553.	Sultan Ahmad (II) a descendant of			<i>J</i> • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
	Sultān Ahmad, (spurious heir set up			
	by ministers),	8	0	0
	J			-
4 * *	A COLORA DE LA COLORA DEL COLORA DE LA COLORA DEL COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DEL LA COLORA DEL COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA DE LA COLORA D			
	t of Gujrat Muslim rulers:	08 11304	2 1 1	

Muzaffar I A.H. 798/1396 A.D. ... Ahmad I 814/1411 MJ. I. Karim ... 846 / 1442 ... Quthuddin Daud 855 / 1451 ---... 862 / 1458 ---Mahmud I 862 / 1458 ••• ••• Muzaffar II ... 917, 1511 • • • Sikandar 932 / 1526 Mahmud II 932 / 1526 • • ... Bahādu: 932 / 1526 •• Muhammad II ..., 943 / 1537 Muli anniad III 943/1537 ---Ahmad II 961 / 1554 Muzatiar III 969-930 / 1562-1572 ...

A.D.

Yrs: Ms. Ds.

1561. Sultān Muzaffar III, (Habbu, a suppositious son of Mahmud), ... 12 & odd. 1583. Gujarāt becomes a province of Akbar's Empire.

The Hindu chronicles record that in the year 802 of Bikramājit, corresponding with A.H. 154 Sarāj kindled the torch of independence and Gujarāt became a separate state. Rājā Sri Bhor Deva ruler of Kanauj put to death one of his dependants, named Samant Singh for his evil disposition, disloyalty and disorderly conduct, and seized his possessions. His wife was pregnant at the time, and urged by distress, she fled to Gujarāt and in an uninhabited waste gave birth to an infant. It happened that a Jain devotee named Saila Deva passing that way took compassion on the child and committed it to the charge of one of his disciples who took it to Rādhanpur, and brought it up with tender solicitude. When he grew to manhood, associating with wicked reprobates, he fell to outrage and highway robbery and a gang of free-booters was formed. He plundered the Gujarāt treasure on its way to Kanauj, and through the good fortune that attended him, he was joined by a grain merchant called Chāmpā. Wisdom guided his sword and from works of evil he inclined to deeds of goodness till in the fiftieth year of his age, he acquired the sovereignty of the state, and founded Pattan. It is said that he long deliberated regarding the site of his capital and was diligent in search of a suitable place. A cowherd called Anhil informed him that he knew an excellent site which he would show on condition that the king would call the city after his name. His offer being accepted, he directed them to a wooded spot where a hare, he narrated, had grappled with a dog and by sheer strength of limb had got away. The Raja founded the city there and named it Anhilpur. Astrologers have predicted that after the lapse of 2,500 years, 7 months, 9 days, and 44 gharis, it shall be in ruins. Through the corruption of language and syllabic change it came to be called Nahrwalah, but as in the tongue of that country 'chosen' is rendered 'Pattan,' it became aniversally distinguished by that name.

Rajā Sāmant Singh gave his daughter in marriage to Sri Dandak Solanki, a descendant of the Delhi princes.

¹ A trade in favour, apparently, with Gujarāt kings. One was the intimate friend and counsellor of Sultān Muhammad. See Bayley, pp. 132 and 188.

She died when on the point of giving birth, but a son was by a surgical operation taken from her womb. The moon at the time was in the sixteenth mansion termed by the Hindus Mul, and hence he was named Mulrāj. Rājā Samant Singh adopted him as his own son and watched over his education. When he grew up, he entered into a conspiracy with some evil-disposed persons. The Rājā in a fit of drunkenness abdicated in his favour, but on becoming sober recalled his promise which so infuriated this miscreant that he slew his benefactor and assumed the sovereignty. During the reign of Rājā Chāmand A.H. 416 or 1064 of the era of Bikramājit, Sultān Mahmud of Ghazni conquered this country, but on leaving, he found no fitter person on whom he might confer the government than a descendant of the royal line, and having arranged for the annual payment of a tribute, he returned by way of Sind. What is remarkable is that at the desire of this prince he carried with him captive another scion of the same family. After a time, either through fear or foresight, the captive's restoration was solicited by the same prince who went out to meet him as he approached his territory in order that intriguers might not secure his favour. On the day that they were to meet, the Raja fell asleep for a short space under a tree, when an animal of prey tore out an eye. At that time a blind man being incapacitated from reigning, the ungrateful soldiers substituted the captive prince in his place and placed the Rājā in confinement.3

Kumārpāl Solanki through fear of his life lived in retirement, but when the measure of Jai Singh's days became full, he came forth from the wastes of disappointed ambition and seated himself on the throne and considerably enlarged his dominions. Ajaipāl wickedly poisoned his sovereign and for a fleeting gratification has acquired eternal abhorrence.

Lakhmul having no issue, the worthiest representative of the Baghelah tribe was chosen as sovereign.

¹ Variously taken as the 17th, 19th and 24th lunar asterism, containing 11 stars, apparently those in the tail of Scorpio and said to be unlucky. In the dissertation on Astronomy that follows in a subsequent book, Mal is counted as the 19th mansion

counted as the 19th mansion.

1064 A.B. is equivalent to A.D. 1007 and A.H. 416 to A.D. 1025. It was in Sept. 1024 A.D. that Mahmud set out from Ghazni in his expedition against Somnäth.

^{*}The story is related at greater length from the Mirat i Ahmadi in Bayley's Hist of Gujarat, pp. 29-34 and its probability defended in a discursive note.

During the reign of Karan, the troops of Sultan Ala u'd din overran Gujarat. Karan, defeated in the field, fled to the Deccan. Although previous to this time Muizz u'd din Sām' and Qutb u'd din Eibak had made expeditions into the country, it was not until the reign of Ala u'd din that it was formally annexed to Delhi.

In the reign of Muhammad, son of Firuz Shah, Nizam Mustakhrāj, called also Rāsti Khān,2 was appointed to the government of Gujarāt, but his injustice becoming oppressive, he was removed and the vicerovalty was conferred on Zafar Khān son of Wajih u'l Mulk Tank. The former governor disloyally rebelling, was killed in the field. The events of this time may be gathered from the history of the Delhi sovereigns. His son Tatar Khan was a man of base character and in whom wickedness was ingrained. At this period after the death of Sultan Muhammad when the throne of Delhi devolved on Sultan Mahmud, considerable anarchy prevailed. Zafar Khān withdrew from affairs and Tātār Khān assumed the royal state and marched against Delhi, but was poisoned at the instigation of his father who coming forth from his retirement had the Khutbah read and the coin struck in his own name, and was proclaimed under the title of Sultan Muzaffar. (1407.) Gujarat thus became an independent kingdom and the government of the province was established in the Tank family. The father of Zafar, Wajih u'l Mulk had been a Brahman and was converted to Islam. Ahmad the son of Tatar Khan conspired against the life of his grandfather and took possession of the throne thus garnering eternal perdition. Ahmadabad was founded by him. With deep design and meditated hypocrisy he withdrew himself from all worldly pageantries till at a festival when all suspicion was laid asleep in the midst of universal enjoyment, he put to death twelve of his uncles. Subsequently he applied himself with earnestness to the

¹ Otherwise Shahāb ud din Ghori. Malik Mufarran Sultāni, who afterwards obtained the title of Farhat ul Malik Mufarran Sultāni, who afterwards obtained the title of Farhat ul Mulk Rāsti Khān. Zafar Khān was appointed to succeed him on the 2nd Rabia I, 793 A.H. (21st Feb. 1931) (Bayley Hist. of Guf.), p. 58. Wajih ul Mulk was a Hindu called Sadhāran, converted to Islam and belonged, says the Mitat i Sikundari, to the Tānk caste, an onteast branch of the Khatris. One of them was expelled for his use of strong drinks and the name is said in Hindi to signify an outcast. The derivation is asserted to rest on some form of the Sanskrit tydga, meaning separation, divorce. See Bayley's note. 1bid, p. 67. Baber calls the race Tang. Memoirs. Erskine, p. 311.

1 It is commonly believed, says the Mirat i Sikandari that Tātār Khān placed his father in confinement and seated himself on the throne under title of Mhd. Shāh, whence the reprisal. 1bid., p. 81-82.

duties of his government and was filled with continual remorse, and to his last breath set himself to a just and

capable administration of the state.

When Daud Khan was deposed on account of his incapacity, Fath Khān son of Muhammad Shāh was raised to the throne and was proclaimed as Sultan Mahmud (I). He distinguished himself by his recognition of merit' and by his justice, and girt himself with the fence of munificence and liberality. Malik Shaban who held the title of Imad u'l Mulk was of the utmost service to him.' In the beginning of his reign some of the wealthy favourites conspired against the life of their lord and in the first instance plotted the overthrow of this judicious and sincere counsellor. Like intriguers as they were, they conveyed false allegations to the king, and as the worldly-minded are suspicious of each other, he imprisoned this peerless denizen of the world of faith and purposed putting him to death. He was on the point of being condemned when Malik Abdu'llah the superintendent of the elephants who had the royal ear, revealed the innocence of his faithful minister and the designs of the conspirators. The king skilfully contrived his escape and, the veil of their pretence being rent asunder, the miscreants took to arms. The royal guard and the slaves together with the officers in charge of the elephants made a stand against them, and the elephants themselves proved of service in chastising the rebels. Disgracefully routed, these disloyal subjects met with just retribution.. At Mahmud's death, his son Muzaffar Shāh, with the assistance of the nobles, ascended the throne and assumed the title of Sultan Muzaffar (II). His reign was beneficent. Shah İsmail of the Sufi dynasty of Persia sent him as presents the choicest goods of Iraq' and he in turn courteously reciprocated his acknowledgments. On his decease, his son succeeded him under the title of Sultan Sikandar. In a short time he was wickedly done to death by Imad u'l Mulk who raised his brother Nasir Khan to the throne. The nobles plotted to

The reader is referred to that work for details of this historical synopsis.

A turquoise cup of great value, a chest full fo jewels, many valuable tissues and 30 Persian horses. Bayley, p. 244.

And likewise by his enormous appetite. His daily allowance of food was one man Gujarat weight (equal to 15 Bahloli seers). He put aside 5 seers of boiled rice and before going to sleep, placed half on one side of his couch and half on the other, so that on whichever side he awoke, he might find something to eat. This was followed in the morning by a cup of honey, a cup of butter and 100 to 150 plaintains. After this, Abul Fazl's appetite sinks into insignificance. His allowance was 22 seers daily.

The whole account will be found in Bayley under this monarch's reign.

displace him. The king appealed for succour to His Majesty Baber and engaged to surrender to him the port of Dib (Diu) with its dependencies and several krors of tankahs, if he would advance in aid with his victorious troops. On account of his former ungrateful conduct, his offer was refused.1 At this juncture, Bahadur the son of Sultan Muzaffar came from Delhi at the invitation of the Bābrivas² and the nobles joined his standard. During his father's reign he was unable to remain at court through the envy borne towards him by his brother (Sikandar). He, therefore, betook himself to Sultan Ibrahim Lodi at Delhi and was received with favour. The nobles of Jaunpur invited him to be their king, and his intentions were inclined that way, when at this time his partisans wrote to him from Gujarat and entreated his acceptance of the throne. He willingly set out for the capital and being successful, he made his administration prosperous by his justice and liberality. Carried away by the intoxication of worldly success, he imprudently engaged in a war with Humayun, and being defeated, sullenly withdrew in discomfiture.3

At his death, Miran Muhammad ruler of Khandesh. his nephew, whom during his lifetime he had constituted his heir, was in his absence proclaimed in the khutbah by the nobles, but died shortly before reaching Gujarāt. Mahmud, grandson of Sultan Muzaffar, who was then in confinement, succeeded him. A miscreant called Burhan with some of his adherents put him to death4 and under pretence of

Ferishta says (Bayley, p. 519) that this letter never reached Baber, the

Rājah of Dungarpur having intercepted it.

*See Bayley, p. 35, n., and for his adventures after leaving Gujarāt, p. 321 et seq.

^{*}Baber says of him that he acted multly in enforcing the law of retaliation by patting to death Imal Mulk who had strongled his brother Sikandar, but besides this, he slew a number of his father's ..mirs and gave proof of a blood-thirsty and ungovernable nature

⁴ Bayley, p. 445, cf seq. Burban who had been a low favourite of the king, poisoned and stabbed his master and salled forth from the palace in the pomp of royalty when he was met and slain by Shiawan Khan Bhatti, adopted son of Afral one of the murdered nobles. Ferishta's account is that on the death of the king becoming known, finnad Khān with Changiz Khan, Ulug Khān, Habshi and others, came out to oppose him. Burhān was thrown at the first charge and killed by Shirwan Khān. His feet were tied to a rope the first charge and killed by Shirwan Khan. His feet were fied to a rope and he was dragged throughout the city. The Mirat-l-Sikandari gives the name of Razi al Mulk to one of the robles who was sent to bring the new king, Ahmad, to the capital, but Ferishta expressly states that this descendant of Ahmad Shah was named Razi al Mulk and was raised to the throne as Ahmad Shah II. He continues, that disgusted with his nominal sovereignty, after a 5 years' intelarge he took refuge with Miran Muharak Shah one of the principal nobles on whose death in the field, an accommodation was again effected with Itimad Khau, but having expressed himself too openly as desirous of death of that minister, he himself was found dead the next day,

establishing a rightful succession, massacred twelve of the nobles. Itimād Khān prudently absented himself on the occasion, and next morning collecting his followers, attacked him and put him to the death he deserved. He then set up one Razi u'l Mulk by name a descendant of Sultan Ahmad. I, under the title of Sultan Ahmad (II) as a nominal sovereign and took the government into his own hands. But when the boy grew to manhood, he altered his purpose and carrying him to the house of one of his adherents, he slew him and then leading some unknown minor by the hand, swore upon oath that he was the son of the last Sultan Mahmud (II). By fraudful allegations, he bestowed on him the sovereign authority and giving him the title of Sultan Muzaffar, he himself assumed the reins of power, until his present Majesty threw the shadow of justice over the province and annexed this prosperous country to the imperial dominions.

May it ever be adorned with perpetuity and high and low enjoy unfading blessings.

near the river opposite the house of Wajih ul Mulk and it was given out that, caught in a love intrigue in that nobleman's house, he had been unwittingly slain. The Mirat-i-Sikandari tells the story more in detail. On his death, Itimād Khān produced a boy (not named in Ferishta nor, I think, in the Mirat) whom he swore to be the son of Mahmud Shāh II, his mother's pregnancy not having been discovered till the 5th month when too late to check it. For Mahmud had unnaturally interdicted the fertility of his wives to avoid a disputed throne. The nobles accepted or feared to oppose the pretension, and the boy was placed under the control of Itimad Khān. The subsequent history may be read in Ferishta, or in Brigg's free but generally faithful rendering, but the events of his worthless life—it cannot be called a reign—are lost in the contests of the nobles for their share of short-lived power till the incorporation of the kingdom with the empire on the 24th Rajab A.H. 890 (Nov. 20th, 1572). Bayley's translation concludes with the death of Mahmud Shāh IV, but his original continues the history of Gujarāt to 1001 A.H. (1592-3) and the death by his own hand of the last of its sovereigns.

SUBAH OF AJMER

It is situated in the second climate. Its length from the village of Pokhar (Bhakar--Pushkar) and dependencies of Amber to Bikaner and Jaisalmir is 168 kos. Its breadth from the extreme limits of the Sarkar of Aimer to Banswarah is 150 kos. To the east lies Agra: to the north the dependencies of Delhi: to the south Gujarāt: to the west Dipalpur and Multan. The soil is sandy, and water obtainable only at great depth, whence the crops are dependent on The winter is temperate, but the summer intensely The spring harvest is inconsiderable. Jowari, Lahdarah and Moth are the most abundant crops. A seventh or an eighth of the produce is paid as revenue, and very little in money. The people dwell in tent-shaped bamboo huts. the south are the (Aravalli) mountains of which the passes are difficult to traverse.

This Subah is formed of Mewar, Marwar and Hadauti.1 The former possesses 10,000 (troops) and the whole of the Sarkar of Chitor is dependent on it. Its length is 40 kos by 30 in breadth. It has three famous fortresses, Chitor the residence of the governor, Kombhalmer and Mandal. In the village of Jawar, one of the dependencies of Chainpur is a zinc mine. In Chainpur and other dependencies of

Māndal are copper mines, which are extremely profitable.

The chief of the state was formerly called Rāwal, but for a long time past has been known as Rana. He is of the Ghelot clan and pretends a descent from Noshirwan the Just.⁵ An ancestor of this family through the vicissitudes of fortune came to Berar and was distinguished as the chief of Narnälah. About eight hundred years previous to the present time, Narnālah was taken by an enemy and many were slain. One Baba, a child, was carried by his mother

A.D. I. G.

It is asserted that a daughter of Noshirwan, whose queen was a daughter

The Marine and I family

of Maurice of Constantinople married into the Udaipur royal family.

Harowtee or Haracti, a tract formed of the territory of Kotah and Bundi,

and named after a dominant tribe of Rājjuts.

*Komulmir is a pass that runs through a series of rugged ravines in the Aravalli ranges and is defended by a fortress. In art. Udaipur, it is spelt Kumalmer.

I Jawar, 24 miles S. of I'daipur, is said to have possessed sinc mines now

The foundation of the Chelot dynasty in Rajputana was effected by Bappa Rawal who is said to have established himself in Chitor and Mewar in 728 I. G.

from this scene of desolation to Mewar, and found refuge with Rājah Mandalik,1 a Bhil. When he grew up to man's estate he followed the pursuit of a shepherd and was devoted to hunting in which his daring was so conspicuous that he became in favour with the Rājā and a trusted minister of state. On the death of the Rājā, his four nephews disputed the succession, but they eventually decided to resign their pretensions in favour of Bāpā and to acknowledge his authority. Bāpā, however, declined their offer. It happened one day that the finger of one of these four brothers began to bleed, and he drew with the blood the ceremonial mark of installation on the forehead of Bāpā, and the others concurred in accepting his elevation. He then assumed the sovereignty. To this day the custom continues of making with human blood this sign of investiture on any Rana who succeeds to the throne. The ungrateful monarch put the four brothers to death.. On a former occasion while passing through the wilds, mistaking one Marich [Rishi], a hermit, for a wild animal, he fitted an arrow to his bow. The hermit intuitively prescient of this action through his purity of heart, made himself known, and the Rājā repentantly excused himself and humbly visited him with assiduity. The hermit one day predicted his elevation, and marvellous tales are told regarding him. Having made his head quarters at Sisoda, the tribe is called Sisodiah and as a Brāhman, at the beginning of their history nurtured their house, they are accounted as belonging to this caste.

When Rāwal Rattan Si died, a relative named Arsi

When Rāwal Rattan Si died, a relative named Arsi was raised to the throne and entitled Rānā from whom the present Rāna Umrā is tenth in descent, thus; Hamir, Kaitā, Lākha, Mokul, Kombhā, Rāemal, Sangā, Udai

Singh, Partab, Umrā.

Ancient chronicles record that Sultan Alā ud din Khilji king of Delhi had heard that Rāwal Rattan Si prince of Mewār possessed a most beautiful wife. He sent to demand her and was refused, upon which he led an army to enforce compliance and laid siege to Chitor. After a long persistence in beleaguering the place in vain, he had recourse to artifice and proposed terms of peace and friendship. The Rājā readily acquiesced and invited him to an entertainment. The Sultan entered the fort with his chosen followers and the meeting took place amid festivity and mirth, and finding

Rao Mandalik says Bayley (Hist. of Gujarāt) is the title assumed by all the chiefs of Girnar.

his opportunity he seized the Rājā and carried him off. It is said that the Sultan's retinue consisted of a hundred men and 300 picked soldiers dressed as attendants. Before the Rājā's troops could assemble he was hurried away to the camp amidst the wailing of his people. The king kept the Rājā in close confinement with a view to extort compliance with his desire. The faithful ministers of the Raja implored the king not to injure him and promised to deliver up to him not only the object of his love but other suitable partners of his harem. They also sent a forged letter purporting to come from the virtuous queen and lulled his suspicions to sleep. The king was delighted and not only refrained from personal violence but treated the Rājā with cordiality. is related that 700 of the choicest troops dressed as women were placed in litters and set out for the king's camp and it was given out that the Rani with a large number of her attendants was on the way to the royal pavilion. When they approached the camp, word was sent that the Rani wished to have an interview with the Rājā previous to entering the king's quarters. Lapped in his illusive dream of security the king granted the interview, during which the soldiers seizing the opportunity, threw off their disguise and bore off their prince. Time after time the Rajputs stood to face their pursuers fighting manfully and many were slain before the Raja had gone far. At length the Chauhans, Gaura and Bādal made a stand fighting to the death enabling the Rāwal to reach Chitor in safety amidst universal acclamation. The king having endured great hardships during the siege and finding it to no purpose, returned to Delhi. After an interval, he set his heart again on the same project but returned discomfited. The Rawal wearied with these assaults, conceived that an interview with the king might result in an alliance and that he would thus escape this state of continual strife. Guided by a traitor he met the king at a place 7 kos from Chitor where he was basely slain. His relative Arsi, after this fatal event, was raised to the throne. The Sultan returned to the siege of Chitor and captured it. The Raja was slain fighting and all the women voluntarily perished by fire.

Hamir his son betook himself to the adjacent mountains. Sultān Muhammad Khuni made over the govern-

[&]quot;"The murderer," the special title to fame of Muhammad Tuglak, but this monopoly of the epithet is scarcely fair to many other members of the royal houses of Delhi.

ment of Chitor to Maldeva Chauhan ruler of Jalor. As this prince was unable to bring the province into order, he summoned Hamir, made him his son-in-law, and through his means restored its prosperity. At his death, Hamir made away with his sons and raised the standard of independence.

The present local militia consists of 16,000 cavalry and 40,000 infantry, but Mewār formerly controlled much more extensive territories, so much so that Rājah Sanka (Sanga) possessed a force of 180,000 cavalry and a numerous in-

fantry.

Mārwār is 100 kos in length by 60 in breadth, and it comprises the Sarkars of Ajmer, Jodhpur, Sirohi, Nagor, and Bikaner. It has long been the head quarters of the Rathor tribe. When Muizz ud din Sam had terminated his campaign against Pithurā (Prithwi Rājā, A.D. 1191-93), he resolved to turn his arms against Jaichand king of Kanauj. The Rājah in his flight was drowned in the Ganges.'. His brother's son Siha, who resided in Shamsābād was slain with a large number of troops. His three sons Sutik, Ashwatthama and Aj set out for Gujarat, and on their way rested at Pāli near Sojhat. In this city dwelt a number of Brāhmans who were much molested by the Minah tribe, some of whom at this period made a raid on the town. The exiles came out, attacked them valorously, and put them to flight. The Brahmans gave them great honour and treated them with every consideration and thus alleviated in some degree their distress of heart. As they acquired the means of worldly success they grew bolder and seized Kher [Kumbher] from the Gohel tribe and thus advanced their condition. Sutik independently wrested Edar from the Minahs, and Ai setting out for Baglanah, took that district by force from the Kolis. From that time their descendants have inhabited the The descendants of Ashwatthamā who remained in Mārwār gradually gained credit till eventually Maldeva his sixteenth descendant waxed so powerful, that Sher Khan nearly lost his life in his campaign against him."

he declared he had nearly lost the empire of India for a handful of millet,

¹ Other accounts assert that he was slain by an arrow from the bow of Outb-uddin the favorite general of the Muhammad Ghori, and the founder of the Dynasty of the Slave Kings. It is historical that his body was found and recognised by his false teeth, "a circumstance," says Elphinstone in the solitary instance of humour in his solemn history, "which throws grave light on the state of manners." One result of this defeat was the retreat of the greater part of the Rahtor clan from Kanauj to Mārwār.

Sher invaded Mārwār in A.D. 1544 and his camp was surprised by an atttack of 12,000 Rājputs who so nearly put an end to his campaigning that he declared he had nearly lost the empire of India for a handful of millet,

This territory contains many forts, but the most important are Ajmer, Jodhpur, Bikāner, Jaisalmir, Amarkot, Abugarh and Jālor.

 $H\bar{a}d\bar{a}oti$ is called also the $Sark\bar{a}r$ of Nāgor. It is inhabited by the $H\bar{a}d\bar{a}$ (Hara) tribe.

This Subah comprises 7 Sarkārs and 197 parganahs. The measured land is 2 Krors, 14 lakhs, 35,941 bighas, 7 Biswas. The revenue in money is 28 krors 84 lakhs, 1,557 dāms, (Rs. 7,210,308-14-9) of which 23 lakhs, 26,336 dams (Rs. 51,158-6-5) are Suyurghal. The local force is 86,500 cavalry, 347,000 infantry.

Sarkar of Ajmer.

Containing 28 Parganahs, 5,605,487 Bighas. Revenue in money, 62,183,390 Dams. Suyurghāl 1,475,714 Dams. Tribes, Kachhwāhah, Afghān, Chauhān.

			Bighas	Revenue D	Suyurghāl D.
Ajmer with dist. its fort on	a hill.	one of	795,335	6,214,731	D.
the most important in Ind	ia		1,135,095	12,256,297	802,440
Amber, has stone fort on	a hill		179,573	1,755,960	
Arāin	***		279-295	2,200,000	
Parbat [-sar]	***		90,488	486,161	
Phāgi			349,774	1,400,000	
Bhināi	•••		68,712	271,256	
Bharāna [Baghera]	***		168,712	749,733	
Bawāl [? Borach]	* * **		81,914-11	600,000	•••
Bāhal [Barl]	***	[15,522	435,664	15,674
Bāndar Sindri			24,220	270,000	
Sharondā	***	•••	351,779-12	3,300,090	•••
fusină [? Tilonia]	***		138,718	241,442	***
obner		***	27,092-18	501,844	***
hāk	***		49,065	1,200,000	***
Deogāon [Baghera]	a a ab	***	76,548	692,512	ARE 100
Koshanpur [> Kishanpur]		***	194,064	9,649,947	277,537
Sambhar, has a stone fort Sarwar, has a brick fort	***	***	245,136	1,616,825	16 027
sithlä [Setholao]	***	••• }	72,098	1,270,000	16,027
Zolani	***	***	147,923 50,640	1,860,015 1,808,000	•••
The assertation	***	***	71,356	7,020,347	***
/ Break	• • •	***	252,871	5,756,402	***
Auzābād			251,973	1,459,577	***
Iasaudābād [Masuda]	***		14,361	1,587,990	**1
Varaina	***		266,614	2,660,159	260,100
Iarsuli, has a brisk fort			163,273	1,200,926	926

Sarkar of Chitor.

Containing 26 Parganahs, 1,678,800 Bighas, 17 Biswas. Revenue, 30,047,649 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 360,737 Dāms. Tribes, Rājput Sesodia, Cavalry, 22,000 Infantry, 82,000.

	Bighas	Reveuue D	Suyurghāl D.
Islāmpur, known as Rāmpura Udaipur, here a large lake about 16 Kos	101,526	7,000,000	•••
Udaspur, here a large lake about 16 Kos in circumference; by its means wheat crops are grown	•••	1,120,000 in money	

MAHALS OF CHITOR

Sarkar of Chitor-contd.

		Bighas	Revenue	Suyurghāl D.
Uparmāl Arnod		27,805 44,720	280,000 2^0,000	<u></u>
Islampur, known as Mohan	- ::	**,720	126,600	***
prompted and the analysis of	1	*14	in money	***
Badnor, has a stone fort		113.265	4.311.551	59.815
Phulia do		257,481	2,843,470	43,470
Banerā		58,038	3,296,200	244,000
Pur		199,209	2,601,041	13,452
Bhainsror, has a stone fort		***	1,200,000	
Bāgor (Bāgol)]	1.744-17	39,550	
Begun	1	234,804	1,175,729	
Barsi [? Patti] Hājipur, has a stone	fori	35,098	1,375,000	
Chitor, with sub. dist 2 mahals, h	as a			1
stone fort, and is a frontier of Hir	idus-			
tān proper		451,118	800,000	•••
Jiran		39,218	1,985,250	
Sanwarghati			470,294	
Sādri, has a stone fort		5,991	400,020	***
Sembal [?Sanwad] with the cultiv	rated	!		ł
tracts	!	•••	100,000	•••
	1		in money	
Kosiänah [? Gosunda]		52,713	263,812	•••
Mändalgarh, has a stone fort on a hil	1	***	3,384,750	***
Ann 4 4 4 4 4 4	i		in money	
Mändal has a brick fort		13,848	447,090	•••
Mandariyā [Madri]	- ***	•••	160,000	•••
Nimach &c. 3 mahais		21,416	in money 719,202	•••

Sarkär of Rantambhor.

Containing 73 Mahals. 3,024,196 Bighas, 11 Biswas. Revenue, 89,824,576 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 181,134 Dāms. Rājput Hādā (Hara). Cavalry, 9,000. Infantry, 25,000.

			Bighas	Revenue D.	Suyurghāl D.
Alanpur Unārā Atādā [?Etawa] Āton	 ***	•••	18,481 57,308 45,349 14,584	1,562,239 1,237,169 770,525 600,000	20,209

Sarkār of Rantambhor—contd.

				1		1
				Bighas	Revenue D.	Suyurghāl D.
Islampur [=Alig	arhl			5,191	77,500	•••
Amkhorah	•••	***	•••	•••	160,000	***
Antardah		•••	•••	166,173	in money	
Awan Bosamir	•••	•••	•••	25,747	1,500,000	•••
Bundi, has a stor	ie fort on	a hill	***	33,161	1,200,000	22 747
Baonli, has a stor	ne fort	***	***	151,430	2,622,747	22,747
Baroda	* * *!	•••	•••	267,326	4,571,000 1,969,776	• • •
Jarwara	***	***	***	163,226 139,280	2,800,000	
Pātan [Kesorai] Bhadlāon	***	•,••	•••	96,895	2,686,389	•••
Baklant	•••	•••	•••	149,087	1,200,000	***
Palāita	***	•••		29,302	1,400,000	•••
Bhosor			•••	40,677	600,000	***
Banahta	• • •	***	***	21.257	524,356	•••
Bilona	•••	***	***	31,615	456,479	***
Bijari Bālākhatri	•••		***	15,594 33,930	334,800 300,000	•••
	Pahar)	***	***	16,845	110,000	144
Bārān		***	•••	242,107	880,000	•••
Tonk	•••	***	***	502,402	7,500,000	•••
Toda	•••	***		443,028	5,859.006	•••
Todri	•••	•••	***	400,768	5,456,840	***
Talad .	***	***	***	32,509	423,288	***
Jetpur	***	*- *	•••	23,014	928,500	• • •
Chātsu Jhalāwa (Jhalāi)	***	***	•••	516,525 13,180	7,536,829 500,000	•••
Thâin	•••	***	***	37,753	475 000	•••
Khilchipur	***	***		30,813	1,209,886	***
Dhari (? Darah)	***	***		97,861	1,800,000	***
				54,668	409,260	
Dablāna	***	***		•••	733.400	9,260
T) - 4 - 11 1.0			l	271 10	in money	
Rantambhor with		•••	••• [371-19 49,745	156,795	1,505
Rawanjna (Dunga) Sheopur	r)	•••	•••	494,070	430,354 5,041,306	6,292
Sārsop	•••	•••		36,636	1,058,876	***
Sahansāri	***	400		28,575	300,000	***
Kotā, has a ston	-		near			4
which the Chau	ibal flows	444		360,378	3,000.000	
Khandar, has a st	one fort o	m a hill	••• [90,246	400,000	•••
Khankra		***		220,350	1,511,994	11,994
Kheri Khātoli	***	***	•••	35,443 2,389	528,178 200,000	26,744
Gendawar	***	***		6,930-12	188,095	***
Karor, has a ston	e fort on	a hill		6,377	200,000	•••
Läkheri	do.			3,523	800,000	•••
Londa	•••	180		17,400	250,000	• • •
Loharwara	• •	***		20,334	250,000	•••
Luawad	Makala	***	•	3,678	125,000	***
Mau-maidana, 16 . Malārna		•••		172,693	4,100,000 3,299,241	•••
Mangrol	***	•••	• • •	140,799	1,004,348	•••
Nawai	***	•••		33,927	930,000	
Nāgar (Nāgor)	•••	•••		33,900	1,000,000	
-					1	

Sarkar of Jodhpur.

Containing 22 Mahals. Revenue 14,528,750 Dāms. Tribe, Rāthor, Cavalry 15,000. Infantry, 50,000.

	Revenue D.		Revenue D.
Asop has a brick fort	8,000,000 8,000	Jetāran, has a small fort on a hill	3,000,000
Phalodi, has a stone fort	640,000	Dunārā, has a stone fort	100,000
Palpārah (Pipar)	1,463,000 314,000	Sojat, has a stone fort on	2,812,750
Bilara Pāli &c., 3 Mahals, has a	314,000	Sāalmer do	560,000
small stone fort	250.000	Siwānā do, one of	555,555
Bahila	180,000	the most important	
Podhah has a stone fort	46,003	strougholds in India	1,200,000
Bhadrārjun, has a stone		Kherwā	220,000
fort on a plain	800,000	Khimwasar, has a stone fotr	172,000
Jodhpur with sub, dist.		Gandoj do	90,000
has a stone fort on a hill	280,000	Mahewah	960,000

Sarkār of Sirohi.

Containing 6 Mahals. Revenue 4,2,077,437 Dāms. Tribes, Rājput, Ghelot, Afghān. Cavalry, 8000. Infantry, 3,800.

	Revenue D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Tribe
Abugarh and Sirolii, 2 Mahals, the latter has a strong stone fort Bānswārah, a delightful country; has a stone fort Jālor, Sāncher, 2 Mahals; has a very strong stone fort Dungarpur	12,900,000 8,900,000 14,977,437 6,000,000	3,000 1,500 2,000 1,000	15,000 20,000 5,000 2,000	Rājput. Do. Afghān. Rājput Ghelot.

Sarkar of Nagor.

Containing 31 Mahals. 8,037,450 Bighas, 14 Biswas. Revenue, 40,389,830 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 30,805 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry, 4,500. Infantry, 22,000.

			Bighaa Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Castes
Amarsar		••		7,029,370	l		20,000	Kachhwā- hah.
ludāna	••	••	262,302	1,313,005	4/0			

Sarkār of Nāgor-contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
			70.460		}	
Bhadāna	544,340	2,271,960	70460			•••
Baldu	87,947	570,000	***	•••	•••	
Patoda	141,370	322,816	•••	•••		•••
Baroda	2,620	220.363	***	1	***	•••
Bārah Kāin	230,379	58,000			***	
Ţāel	293,069	955,273	3200			
Tārodah	141,592	874,284	2147			•••
Jakhara, surrounded by				i		į
a waste of sand		137,757			•••	
Khārij Khattu, has a		1	!	i	1	
stone fort, and a quarry	i			!		i
of white marble*	77,577	348,814	•••			· · · ·
Didwäna, has a brick fort	36,581	4,586,828	15215	i	4	
Dronpur	219,698	780.085				
Rewāsā	801,117	1,995,824				
Run	615,212	913,251				
Rasulpur	114.985	704,306		1		
Rahot	45,269	188.137				1
Sādela	153,032	1,262,930	***			
Fatchpur Jhunjhunu, has	***************************************	1,202,000	•••		***	
a stone fort	152,200	1,233,222	***	500	2000	Qiyam Khani.
Kāsli	28,740	1.587,157	•••	• • •	•••	
Khāela	114,955	558,560	••		***	• • •
Kuchera	270,490	466 890	444		***	•••
Kolewa [Kolia]	12,748	352,905		***		•••
Kumāri	469,881	435,604	8220		***	
Kheran	26,033	57,160	e		100	
Lādnu	149,760	780,842	4337		•••	
Merta, has a stone fort	2,114,773	7,701,522	45,433	•••	***	١
Manoharnagar	129.895	2,903,386			•••	
Nokhā	83,096	380,756	444		4	
Nagor with sub. dist. has						
a brick fort	57,755-14	813,581	114,440		***	•••

^{*} Khatu is 38 miles s.e. of Nagor.

'Sarkar of Bikanes.

Containing 11 Mahals. Revenue 4,750,000 Dāms.' Tribe, Bhāti. Cavalry, 12,000. Infantry, 50, 000.

			Tribe	i			Tribe
ikampur	•••			Bikaner	•••		Rāthor.
arsaipur		•••	***	Jaisalmir			Bhāti.
õharmei	(Barmer)		• -	Chhotan			
ungal	***			: Kotrā	•••		
arkal	***	•		Dewādawar	•••	•••	
okharan	***	1		!		•••	!

SUBAH OF DELHI.

It is in the third climate. Its length from Palwal' to Ludhianah on the bank of the Satlej is 165 kos. Its breadth from the Sarkar of Rewari to the Kumaon hills is 140 kos. and again from Hisar to Khizrabad is 130 kos. On the east lies2 the capital, Agra; on the north-east it marches with Khairābād in the Subah of Oudh; to the north are mountains; on the south the Subahs of Agra and Aimer; on the west is Ludhianah. The chief rivers are the Ganges and the lumna, and both these take their rise in this Subah. There are besides numerous other streams, amongst them the Ghaghar. The mountains principally to the north. The climate is nearly temperate. Much of the land is subject to inundation and in some places there are three The fruits of Iran, Turan and Hindustan are here grown and abundant flowers of various kinds. Loftv buildings of stone and brick delight the eye and gladden the heart, and it is scarce equalled for the choice productions of every clime.

Telhi is one of the greatest cities of antiquity. It was first called Indrapat and is situated in long. 114° 38′, lat. 28° 15′. Although some consider it as the second climate, making the southern mountainous system begin from this region they are certainly mistaken as the latitude shows. Sultāns Qutbuddin (1206-10), and Shamsuddin (Altmish, 1210-35) resided in the citadel of Rajah Pithura (Prithwi). Sultān Ghiyāsudain Balban erected another fort, intending it as a (10yal) cemetery. He also built a handsome edifice in which if any criminal took sanctuary, he was absolved from retribution. Muizz ud din Kai Kubād (1286-9) founded another city on the banks of the Jumna called Kelukhari. Amir Khusrau in his poem the 'Qirānu's Sadain' eulogises this city and its palace. It is now the last resting-place of

A town of undoubted antiquity, supposed to figure in the earliest Aryan traditions under the name of Apelava, part of the Pändava kingdom of Indra-

prästha.

The word 'Khāwar' like 'Bākhlar' is often misapplied and the two are interchangeably and incorrectly used for E and W. alike. Abul Fazl, however, invariably uses "Bakhlar" for W. and Khāwar for E., though with a southing tendency, as may be seen from his delimitations of other provinces. Hence Agra is certainly B. of Delhi in longitude, but it is almost south of t. See Cummingham's explanation of the anomalous use of 'Khāwar' and 'Dakkhin' in his Anc. Geog. of India, p. 94

See Journ. As. Soc. Bengal, 1860, p. 225, and Biliot, iii, 524.

Humāyun where a new and splendid monument has been erected. Sultan Ala ud din (1295-1316) founded another city and fort called Siri. Tughlaqābād is a memorial of Tughlaq Shāh (1321-24). His son Muhammad (1324-51) founded another city and raised a lofty pile with a thousand columns of marble and constructed other noble edifices. Sultān Firoz (1351-88) gave his own name to a large town! which he founded and by a cutting from the Jumna brought its waters to flow by. He likewise built another palace at a distance of 3 kos from Firozābād, named Jahānumā (the world-view). Three subterranean passages were made wide enough to admit of his passing along in mounted procession with the ladies of his harem; that towards the river, 5 jaribs in length; the second towards the Jahanuma, 2 kos, and the third to old Delhi, 3 kos. Humāyun restored the citadel of Indrapat and named it Dinpanāh (asylum of the faith). Sher Khan destroyed the Delhi of Ala ud din and built a separate town. Although the monuments of these cities are themselves eloquent and teach us the highest moral lessons, yet even is this latest Delhi now for the most part in ruins. The cemeteries are, however, populous. Khwājah Qutb ud din Ushi lies here and Shaikh Nizām ud din Aulia, and Shaikh Nasir ud din Mahmud, the Lump of Delhi, and Malik Yār-i-Pirān, and Shaikh Salāh, and Mālik Kabir-i-Aulia, and Maulana Muhammad, and Haji Abdul Wahhab and Shaikh Abdullah Quraishi, and Shaikh Shams Tark-i-Biyābāni, and Shaikh Shams-i-Autād and Amir Khusrau2 with many other servants of God instructed in Divine knowledge who in this spot repose in their last sleep. Here too lie Sultan Shahab ud din Ghori, and Sultan Shams ud din, and Nāsir ud din Ghāzi, and Ghiyās ud din, and Alā ud din and Qutb ud din, and Tughluq, and Muhammad Aādil, and Firoz and Bahlol, and Sikandar Lodi. now living, likewise, have laid out pleasant spots and groves for their final resting-place—to the introspective a source of blissful ecstasy, to the wise an incentive to watchfulness.

In the hill of *Islāmābād* is a very deep spring called *Prabhās Kund* from which warm water continually bubbles up, and which is a great place of worship.

It is supposed to have occupied the ground between Humayun's tomb

and the Ridge. I. G.
Of these personages the last is sufficiently famous. The second and third and last on the list will be found in Perishta's lives of the saints at the close of his History. Also Ency. Isl.

Biswamitra Rikhesar [Rishishwar] made a deep excavation of three bighas of this hill and devoted it to purposes of worship, and to this day it testifies to the antiquity of this construction.

Badāon is conspicuous amongst ancient cities and a great many holy religious are there buried.

A part of the northern mountains of this Subah is called Kumāon. Here are mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, copper, orpiment and borax. Here also are found the musk-deer and the Qutās cow, as well as silk-worms, hawks, falcons and game of various kinds, and honey in abundance and the species of horse called Gut (Gunt).

There is game in plenty in the Sarkār of Sambal (Sambhal), where the rhinoceros is found. It is an animal like a small elephant, without a trunk, and having a horn on its snout with which it attacks animals. From its skin shields are made, and from the horn, finger-guards for bowstrings and the like. In the city of Sambal is a temple called Hari Mandal (the temple of Vishnu) belonging to a Brāhman, from among whose descendants the tenth avatār will appear in this spot. Hānsi is an ancient city, the resting-place of Jamal the successor of Shaikh Farid-i-Shakar-ganj.

Near the town of Sahnah* is a hot spring on the summit of a hill, the peculiarity of which is undoubtedly due to a sulphur mine.

Hisār (Hissār) was founded by Sultan Firoz who brought the waters of the Jumna to it by means of a cutting. A holy devotee predicted his accession to the throne and at his request the canal was made. Strange to say, it enters a pool named Bhadrā near the town of Sirsā, and there loses itself. Wonderful stories are related regarding it. There are few rivers in this district, and wells have to be dug to a considerable depth.

Visyamitra is the name of a velebrated Kshatriya deriving his lineage from an ancestor Kusik of the lunar race: he was king of Kanyā-Kuhjā or Kananj. His famous quarrel with the rival sage Vasishtha to perform the great tribal sacrifice, runs through the Rig Veda and he succeeded in raising himself to the rank of a Brāhman by long and plainful austerities. According to the Rāmāyan he became the companion and counsellor of the young Ramachandra. He was the father of Sakuntalā by the nymph Menakā whom the gods, jealous of his increasing power, sent to seduce him from his passionless life

* Sohna, 15 miles S. of Gurgaon City.

Sahrind (Sirhind) is a city of note. Here are the gardens of Hafiz Rakhnah, the delight of all beholders.

Thanesar is accounted one of the most sacred places of pilgrimage. The Saraswati flows near it for which the Hindus have great veneration. Near it is a lake called Kurukshetra,² which pilgrims from distant parts come to visit and where they bathe, and bestow charitable offerings. This was the scene of the war of the Mahābhārat which took

place in the latter end of the Dwapar Yug.

In the city of Hastinapur reigned Raja Bharat who by his justice and consideration for his people gathered a fitting reward of happiness, and his virtues and good deeds confirmed for a long period the succession in his family, and fortune favoured son after son. The eighth in lineal descent from him was Rājā Kuru from whom Kuru-Kshetra received its appellation. After six intermediate progenitors, an heir was born named Vichitravirya,3 who had two sons, one of whom was Dhritarāshtra. He was the father of 101 children, the eldest of whom was Rājā Duryodhana, and they are called the Kauravas. The other was Pandu. Although the first mentioned was the elder son yet on account of his blindness, the succession fell to his brother who obtained the sovereignty. His sons are called the Pāndavas. They were five, namely, Yudishtir, Bhimsen, Arjuna, Nakul and Sahadev. On Pandu's death the kingdom reverted to Dhritarashtra, but although the nominal sovereignty was his, the real power was possessed by Duryodhana. Since to crush their enemies is the way of the princes of the earth, Duryodhana was ever in fear of the Pāndavas and sought their destruction. When Dhritarāshtra observed the growing feud, he resolved to establish his nephews in the city of Vāranāvatra, and sent skilled artisans with instructions to build their residences. The

^{&#}x27;Genl, Cunningham says (p. 145) that the name of Sarhind or 'frontier of Hind' was popularly given to the city at an early period when it was the boundary town between the Hindus and the later Muhammadan kingdom of Ghazni and Lahore, but the name is probably much older as the astronomer Varaha Mihira mentions the Sairindhas immediately after the Kulutas or people of Kullu and just before Brahmapura which was the capital of the hill

people of Kullu and just before Brahmapura which was the capital of the hill country N. of Hardwar.

It is an oblong sheet of water, 3,546 feet in length by 1,900. During eclipses of the moon, the waters of all other tanks are believed to visit this, so that the bather is blessed by the concentrated virtues of all other ablutions. The right ankle of Durga is said to have fallen here on her being cut to pieces and her limbs scattered over the earth by Vishnu.

If died childless, but at the request of his mother Satya-vati, the Riski Dwaipayana raised up three children to him, viz., Dhritarāshtra, Pāndu and Vidura. Vishnu Purāna.

workmen at the instigation of *Duryodhana* constructed a secret chamber of lac and pitch, in order that at a fitting opportunity the *Pāndavas* might be destroyed in a flaming conflagration. But whom the Lord defends by his protection, what avails against him the striving of the impotent? When the *Pāndavas* accepting their exile, settled in this spot, they became aware of the design. By chance a woman with five sons dwelt hard by. The *Pāndavas* set the house on fire and set out for the wilds with their mother, while their neighbours were consumed in the flames.

Duryodhana believing that the Pandavas were destroyed, held a festival of rejoicing. The Pandavas after many adventures came forth from the wilds to the inhabited country and settled in the city of Kampilā [Panchāl]. In a short time, the fame of their valour, skill and open-handed munificence filled the world, but none knew their name or lineage, till Duryodhana himself awaking from his dream of security suspected that the burning of the Pandavas was a fable. After prosecuting inquiries, his suspicions were confirmed, upon which he had recourse to entreaty, and recalled them with protestations of friendship, hoping thus to secure his aim. He bestowed Delhi (Indraprastha) upon them with half his kingdom and retained Hastinapur with the other half. Yudhishthira by his prudence and good fortune aided by the divine favour rose to greatness and his administration advanced his power. The Kauravas flocked to his service, and in a short space he acquired universal sway. The other brothers likewise reduced many princes to their obedience. Duryodhana was beside himself at the sight of their sovereign splendour, and the pangs of envy drove him more distraught. With deceptive intent, he held a restival and invited the Pandavas and proposed a game of chaupar, playing himself, with cogged dice. By this means he won all they possessed. The last stake was made on the condition that if the *Pāndavas* won, they should recover all that they had lost, but if otherwise, they were to quit the royal dominions and wander in the wilds for twelve years in the garb of mendicants after which they might return to civilised life for a year, and so conduct themselves that none should know them. If this last particular were infringed, they would have to pass a similar period of twelve years in the forests. Unsuspecting foul play, their uprightness brought them to ruin. Elated by the success of his device, Duryodhana was lulled into the slumber of a false security while the Pāndavas under the divine direction accomplished their part of the agreement. Duryodhan now began to treat them with severity. Much altercation followed till the Pāndavas consented to accept five villages if peacefully surrendered to them. Duryodhana in his pride refused and rose in arms. The scene of the conflict was in the vicinity of Kuru-kshetra. But as the end of the fraudful is disaster, Duryodhana, and his, companions were totally destroyed and Yudhishthira was victorious after eighteen days of successive engagements.

Towards the close of the Dwapar Yug, 135 years before the beginning of the Kali Yug, and 4,831 years anterior to this the 40th of the Divine Era,* this event rose into fame and was left to posterity as a record of portentous warning.

It is said that in this mighty war, the army of the Kauravas consisted of 11 achhauhini, and that of the Pandavas of 7. An achhauhini consists of 21,870 men mounted on elephants, the same number in chariots, and 65,610 cavalry; and 109,350 infantry. Marvellous to relate but 12 individuals of both armies survived this war. Four of the army of Duryodhana, escaping with their lives took refuge with Yudhishthira, viz., Kripāchārya Brahman who had been preceptor to both families and was renowned for wisdom and valour; Ashwatthaman who was celebrated for the same qualities; Kritvarmān Yadu, a brave champion; and Sanjaya who, together with his reputation for wisdom, acquired renown as the charioteer of Dhritarāshtra. On the side of the Pandavas, eight survived, viz., the 5 brothers; Satyaki Yadu famous for his bravery and sagacity; Yuyutsa brother of Duryodhana by another mother, and Krishna. After this Yudhishthira reigned supreme for 36 years, and his happy destiny and virtuous disposition discovering to him the vanity of mundane things, he sought retirement and resolutely forsook a world that oppresses the weak. Together with his brethren he chose the path of renunciation and played the last stake of his life.

This great war has been related in the Mahābhārata with numerous episodes in a hundred thousand couplets, and has been translated into Persian by command of His Majesty under the title of Razmnāma (History of the War).

^{*}See p. 15 where it is stated that from the era of Rāja Yudhishthira to the 40th of Akbar's reign (A.H. 1003, commencing 5th Dec. 1594 and ending 25th November, 1595 A.D.) there had chapsed 4,696 years, making the commencement of the Kali Yuga 3,101 B.C. T this period an addition of 135 trings the figure to 4,831.

It is set forth in eighteen Parba or books. The first part is an account of the Kauravas and Pandavas and a list of contents. The second; Yudhishthira sends his brethren to conquest-his supreme monarchy-the gambling feast held by the Kauravas, &c. Third, the departure of the Pandavas into the solitude of their exile and other events. Fourth. the coming of the Pandavas from the wilds to the city of Virāta and remaining unknown. Fifth, the Pandavas discover themselves; the mediation of Krishna and his rejection; the gathering at Kura-kshetra and disposition of the armies. Sixth, the opening of the combat, the wounding of Bhishma, the slaughter of many of the sons of Dhritarashtra, and the events of the ten days' engagement. Seventh, the council of war held by Duryedhana; the appointment of Drona to the general command, his death and other events during five days. Eighth, description of the two days' battle; Duryodhana names Karna to the command, his exploits—the flight of Yudhisthira before him-the death of Karna at the hand of Arjuna on the second day. Ninth, Shalya is appointed general on account of his heroism-his death-Duryodhana conceals himself in a tank--his end and that of many champions. Tenth, the conclusion of the war, the coming of Kritvarman, Ashwatthaman, and Kripacharya to Duryodhana on the field of battle while still breathing and his advice of a night attack &c. Eleventh, the lamentations of the women on both sides-Gändhäri mother of Duryodhana curses Krishna. Twellth, account of Yudhishthira after the victory—his desire to resign his kingdom. Byas and Krishna comfort him by their counsel. Bhishma delivers many admirable and instructive maxims setting forth the duties of sovereign administration. Thirteenth, the advice tendered by Bhishma. In my judgment, the 12th and 13th books should be comprised in one as they both contain the counsels of Bhishma, and the 9th divided into two, the one dealing with the episode of Shalya and the other with the death of Duryodhana. Fourteenth, the great horse-sacrifice (ashwa-medh). Fifteenth, the retirement to a hermitage of Dhritarāstra, Gānahāri, and Kunti mother of Yudhishtira. Sixteenth, the destruction of the Yadu tribe. Seventeenth, Raja Yudhishtira retires with his brethren who all perish in a snow-drift. Eighteenth, Yudhishtira in his own body mounts to the upper world; the dissolution of the mortal remains of his brethren. The conclusion called Haribans, contains the history of the Yadus.

In this work, although there are numerous extravagant tales and fictions of the imagination, yet it affords many instructive moral observations, and is an ample record of felicitous experience.

This Subah contains 8 Sarkārs subdivided into 232 parganahs*—the measured land consists of 2 krors, 5 lakhs and 46,816 Bighas 16 Biswas. The revenue is 60 krors, 16 lakhs 15,555 Dāms (Rs. 15,040,388-14) of which 3 krors, 30 lakhs, 75,79 are Suyurghāl (Rs. 8,26,893-7-7). The local force is 31,490 Cavalry, 242,310 Infantry.

The eight Sarkärs comprise 232 mahals, if we omit the five unsettled mahals of Kumaon. The Suyurghāl total is incorrect, because by adding together the Suyurghāl for 7 Sarkārs only (that of Kumaon not being given), we get a totalof 3,31,75,437 dāms. [7. S.]

Sarkar of Delhi.

Contains 48 Mahals, 7,126,107 Bighas, 17 Biswas. Revenue 123,012,590 Dāms. Suyurghāl 10,990,260 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry, 4,000. Infantry 23,980.

		1				,
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes.
			·		!	
Islāmābād Pākul, has a			!		,	1
stone fort on a hill	970,67-19	1,779,407				Käjput Sänd
Adhah [?Odhan]	14,912-8	513,081	45,420	20		Ahir
Pānipat, has a brick fort	568, 444	10,756,647	3,540,632	100	2000	Afghēn, Gu jar, Rang- har
Pālam	245,240	5,726,787	1,231,880	70	1000	
Baran, has a brick fort	i		.,,	•••	,	
on the Kall Nadi	171,160	3,907,928	153,190	20	300	
Baghpat, on the Jumna,			100,100	-	1	[Brāhman
between two streams Palwal, has a brick fort	200,515	3,582,868	180,159	20	200	Chauhān
and it stands on a			i I			Rājput, Gu-
mound	234,783	1,769,493	218,225	25	500	jar
Barnāwalı	145,000	1,879,125		25	200	Shaiktza-
		•				dah
Pāth, has a brick fort	48.191	621,749	7.243	60	600	Tonwar
·				i		(Tuar)
Beri Dobaldhan	119,002-19	1,404,225		40	800	Jat
Tilpat, has a brick fort	119,578	3,077,918	92,583	10	400	Brāhman, Rajput, Gujar
Tandah Phuganah on						' Afghān
the Jumna	51,669	1,289,306	11,366	25	200	Jat
Tilbegampur	14,237.7	370.874	15.754	10	100	
Jhajhar	128,417	1,422,451	306,461	60	1000	•
Harsia, has a stone fort in the village of	!	1	:	•	1	
Dhanah (cor. Dhaulri)	i	1	!	1		
built by Sultan Piroz		1	1	•	-	
ou the banks of the			1		1	1 .
Hindan	87,923	3,66528				Badgujar
Jewar	133,746	1,878,378	85,439	1 40	400	Rajput,
		1	1			Chhokar
Jhinjhānab	57,923-16	1,700,250	100,250	?0	300	; Jat
Chaprauli, stands be-				i	:	
tween two streams	32,701-12	1,138,759	5,719	20	300	Do.
Jalalabad, stands be-				}	ì	
tween two streasm	İ	1	1			1_
amid much forest	96.189	1,333,711	9,099	50	600	Do.
Jalalpur Barawat, much		1		1	1	1_
forest	42,061-17	1,001,875	1,775	. 00	1 400	Do.

Palwai.—This mound stands to this day considerably above the surrounding level and consists entirely of ancient remains crumbling to decay. It is a town of undoubted antiquity and supposed to figure in the earliest Aryan traditions under the name of Apelava, part of the Pandava Kingdom of Indraprastha. Baran is the mod. Bulandshahar.

Sarkar of Delhi-Contd.

			,	,		
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Castes
The old suburban dis-	100 417	4 400 451				
trict	128,417	1,422,451	306,460	10	40	Jat, Chau- hān.
The new do. do	36,447	3,635,315	595,984	25	800	Gujar, Jat, Ahir.
The metropolis of Delhi Dasna between Ganges	971	736,406	18,783	185	1,500	mus.
and Jumna	282,777	4,933,310	162,535	60	800	Ghelot (here some illegi ble words).
Dādri Tāhā	179,789	4,326,059	118,577	20	400	Afghān, Jat.
Dankaur, on the Jumna Rohtak, has a brick	128,523	1,016,682	4,840	20		Gujar.
fort Sunipat (Sonpet) has a	636,835	8,599,270	428,000	100	2,000	Jat.
brick fort Safidun, has a brick	283,299	7,727,323	775,105	70	1,000	Afghān, Jat.
fort	81,730	1,975,596	99,647	60	600	Rājput Ran-
Sikandarābād	66,907-15	1,259,190	17,844	50	400	ghar, Jat. Bhāti, Guiar etc.
Sarāwa, has a brick	42,387-12	1,583,899	31,914	40	300	
fort Santha Siyāna, between two	89,147-9	854,191	48,207	80	300	Chauhān.
Siyāna, between two streams	166,407-17	849,090	4.959	50	400	Taga.*
Shikarpur Karnāl, the stream Sānjauli flows below	52,139	2,111,996	780,305	70		Chauhān.
the town	540,444	5,678,242	207,999	50	800	Ranghar Chauhan
Ganaur, has a brick fort Garh Muktesar, has a brick fort on the Jumna, a Hindu place	40,990-16	1,718,792	88,390	20	400	Tagā.
of pilgrimage	101,840-10	1,591,492	41,490	40	400	Musalmān, Hindu.
Kutāna	91,706-18	1,423,779	892	20	150	Jat.
Kāndhla	68,934-5	1,874,430	37,930	20	80	Gujar.
Kāsna, on the Jumna Kharkhanda	104,021-19 51,995-15	1,522,315 1,105,856	149,250 4,958	40 50	600	Do. Afghān, Jat.
Gangeru Kherah, has a brick fort between	31,	-,200,000	2,000		330	l Jaco
two streams Loni, has a brick fort	11,062-15	316,405	13,830	40	300	Sayyid.
between two streams	75,863	3,278,878	148,445	20	200	

^{*}Sir H. Elliot has an interesting discussion on the Gaur Tagas, an important tribe of Brahmanical descent in the N.-W. of India extending over a great part of upper Rohilkhand, the upper Doab and the Delhi territory. Sharring's Hindu Tribes and Castes should be consulted in elucidation of the doubtful readings of the text.

Sarkar of Delhi-Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sugur- Snyur- D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Mirath (Meerut) has a brick fort between two streams	610,422	4,301,995	881,096	100	300	Tagā, Ran- ghar, Chandrāl.
Mändäuthi, the autumn harvest abundant: near the town a tank which is never dry						
throughout the year Masaudābād, has an	90,464	2,858,223	2,984	30	500	Jat.
old brick fort Hastinapur, on the Ganges: an ancient	i	2;809,156	269,315	30	30	Do.
Hindu settlement Hāpur, on the Kāli Nadi between two	176,840	4,466,904	86,291	20	300	Tagā.
streams	239,845	2,103,589	5,229	. 4	300	Do.

Sarkar of Badaon.

Containing 13 Mahals. 8,093,850 Bighas, 10 Biswas. Revenue 34,817,063 Dāms. Suyurghāl 457,181 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry 2,850. Infantry, 26,700

			Suyur-			
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Ajāon [Rajwan] Aonia	82, 467-17 14,701	1,362,867 690.626		500 50	3000 400	
Badāon with suburban district	658,320-5	7,357,571	287,986	50	5000	Shaikhzā- dah, Kāys ath.
Bareli	661,227	12,507.434	91 320	1000	10,000	Rajput.
Barsar [? Paraur]	196,700	2.147.824			500	
Paund [Riliot Punar]	5.749	260,840		50		Kahor
Talhi (Balhati)	25,982	1,077,811		1	1000	
Sanās Mandali (B. Satāsi	253,120	2,493,896	15,444	100	2000	Taga, Brah-
Mundiyā)	50,110	795,815	8,471	50	500	man.

Sarkar of Badaon-Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Suneyā Kānit [=Kānt] Kot Sālbāhan has a fort Golah	29,753 55,584 227,500-8 24,540	1,815,725 2,439,369 1,219,165 1,196,931	48,444	50 900 50 100	500 2000 500 1000	Ulus ? Bāchhal, Kanwār, Dewak, Bāchhal.

Sarkār of Kumāon.

Containing 21 Mahals. The revenue of 5 Mahals undetermined. 16 Mahals, in money. 40,437,700 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry, 3,000. Infantry, 50,000.

	Revenue D.	1	Revenue D.
Mahals Bastwah Pachotar Bhikan Diwar	2 400,000 200,000 400,000 200,000 11,000,000	Jakrām Jariyah Jāwan Chauli, Sahajgar, Guzar- pur, Dwārakhot [Kot Dwara]* Malwārah Malāchor, Sitachor, Ke- mus, 3 Mahals	5,000,000 3,000,000 2,500,000

^{*} Sahajgar is now Jaspar, Guzarpur is Gadarpura; Malwara may be Talwara.

Sarkār of Sambhal.

Containing 47 Mahals. 4,047,193 Bighas, 2 Biswas, Revenue 66,941,431 Dāms. Suyurghāl 2,892,394 Dāms. Castes various. Cavalry, 4,375. Infantry, 31,550. Elephants, 50.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Klephants	Casten
Amrobah Islāmpur Bharu	820,654 55,467 66,096	6.842,000 2.889,478 1,370,640	137,544	1000 30 100	5000 300 200	50	Sayyid. Taga. Baishnavi.

MAHALS OF SAMBHAL SARKAR

Sarkār of Sambhal—Contd.

		was non to when manifestable	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Ujhāri		••	125,221	697,609	2,788	20	363		Jat.
Akbarābād			58,790-14	640,264	27,860	50	200		
Islāmpur Dar	gu	••	11,217-10		675	20	200		
Islāmābād		••	25,261-10	346,348	6,394	50	500		Jat.
Pijnaur	••	••	60.362	3,855,465	18,154	60	500	•••	Tagā, Brāis- man.
Bachharāon			115,226-12	828,322	8.632	50	200		Tagā.
Biroi	••	••	15,027-12		.,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	25	100		Kohi
Bisārā		••	8,008-7	200,000		25	100		Khasia.
Chāndpur		••	87,278	431,071	259,959	50	200		Tagā, Jat,
Telālābād			49,398	1,470,072	12,263	25	100		&c. Jat.
Chaupalah	• •	••	1,016,199	1,840,812		100	500	.:	Gaur.
Thala	••	**	26,795	237,809	84,916	50	400	1 !	Tat.
Tadwār	••	••	76,757-19			50	200	•••	Badgujar.
7	stri	et of	10,101-10	020,010	•••		400	•••	
Sambhai			206,450	8,822,448	148,739	100	500	•••	Tagā, Brāh- man &c.
Deorah			96,965	1,924,887		25	200		and ac.
Dhaka	• •	**	130,158-16	670,364	6,487	25	200	• • •	Rahes.
Dabhārsi		••	82,692-11	280.306	0,107	25	200		
Dudilah	**	••	80,180-15	210,000		20	100		Kohi
Räjpur	••		189,890	700,000		50	400		Rājput.
Rājabpur		••	40,846-9	612,977		25	100		Kokar,
Sambhal, has	a	brick							Shaikhzādah
fort		••	42,400	850,958	63,404	50	400		Khokhar.
Seohārah	••		27,945	1,833,782	1,418	50	800		Tagā.
Sirsi		••	52,400-11	958,769	152,814	20	200	•••	Sayyid, &c.
Sahanspur		••	54,844-10		1,088	50	400		Tagā.
Sursāwah	••	••	87,502	808,065		15	400	•••	Kaurawah.
Sherkot	• •	**	19,870	4,921,051	1	100	1000	•••	
Shāhi	••	••	80,417	500,496	478	20	200	••	Gaur.
Kundarki	• •	• •	86,164	674.986	74,936	50	400		Kāyath.
Kiratpur			80,978	2,419,609	166,218	100	500	•••	Tagā, jat.
Kachh	••	.**	29.868	1,248,995	5,765	20	200	***	W
Gandaur	••	••	18.576-17	/51,520	34,270	30	200	***	Tagā.
Kābar	• •	**	83,232-7	566,839	16 019	50	400	***	Chauhān. Musalmān
Ganaur Phankari	• •	**	51,005-1	267,919	17,719	10	100	1	M NSTITISON
Khānkari	••	**	31,546-7	200,000	82,983	1000	5000	1	Gaur.
	• =	•-	246,440	2,499,208 100,000	02,503	10	100	1	Juli.
fakhnor Literah			1,871	3,580,800	80,800	100	500		Tagā.
Liswah	••		116636 9274 1				200		1 4 4 5 4 4 4
Liswah Mughalpur		**	168,374			400	2000		
Liswah Mughalpur Majhaulah		••	142,461	1,737,556	6,970	400	8000		Bedgujar.
Liswah Mughalpur					6,970 20,455	400 25 50	8000 300 500		

Sarkar of Sambhal-Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Elephants	Castes
Nahtaur, in this par- ganah, the mulberry grows in great per- fection of size and sweetness—a span in							
length*	85,974-12	1,788,160	4,675	50	300		Tagā.
	209,620-10	904,675	•••	100	500		Gaur.
	181,621	1,408,093	48,212	50	400		Badgujar.
Hatamnah	5,706-14			50	400		Kodar.

^{*} Probably, according to Dr. King, the Morus laevigata, a long thin berry with a mawkish, sweet taste.

Sarkar of Saharanpur.

Containing 36 Mahals. 3,530,370 Bighas, 3 Biswas. Revenue, 87,839,659 Dāms. Suyurghāl 4,991,485 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 3,955. Infantry, 22,270.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D	Cavairy	Infantry	Rlephants	Castes
Indri, has a brick to near the Jumna	ort 143,900-28	7,078,326	691,203	50	1000		Kanghar, Tagā.
Ambihta	17,784	324,560	•••	20	300		Gujar, Aawān?
Budhāna Bidauli	155,633 111,226	3.698,041 3,115.125	131,780 1,400,255		300		
Bhatkenjāwar	178,471	2,676,407	146,749		500		Tagā, Bārhai.
Bhogpur, has a br fort on the Gang a Hindu place	ick ces, of			! : !			
worship	94.428	2,338,120	6,941	100	1000		Rājput
Purchapar	86,949	2,191,460	120,438	20			Sarir.
Bhumah	67,451	2,135,496	28,458	2000	7000		Sayyid.
Baghrā	50,390	1,918,196	74,840		200		Jat.
Bhanāth	49,288	1,321,440	8,650	20	200		Taga.
Thanah Bhim	281,377	3,578,540	317,260	20	500		Rājput, Sedbār.

Sarkār of Sahāranpur—Contd.

	1			, ,			
	Biglias Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Castes	
Tughlagpur Jaurāsi Jauli	81,856 211,751 45,653	222,277 2,471,277 1,310,057	128,853 71,297 152,396	20 20 	37 200	Jat. Bidar. Sayyid (Cavalry	,
Charthāwal Suburban district of Sahāranput, Ilas a brick fort, cloths of the kinds Khasa and Chaular (Vol. I, p.	5 5,916	1,668,882	68,872	26	200	under Sarot). Tagā.	
94) are here made in perfection	212 335-16 335 861	6,951,545 6,477,977	706,448 641.946	i00 60	800	Afghān. Kulāl Tag Gujar, Tag	i.
Rāmpur		1,777,908	78.597	50	400	Sadbār, Tagā.	,
Rurki	2,768	1,628,860	8,361	25	200	Rājput, Sadbār, Tagā,	
Rāepur Tātár Sikri Bhukarheri Sarsāwah, has a brick	4,688-8 188,211	369, 980 5,9 0 8,611		10 40		Brāhma: Tagā. Jat.	12.
fort Sarot	106,800 90,617 113,780	2,516,125 2,207,779 1,590,006	51.571 43,842	90 50 30	200 1000 800	Tagā Do. Tagā, Ah	
Sambalherā	31,963	1,011,078	11,078	•	•••	Sayyid (C entered under Bhons)	•
Soranpalri	10,648	574,320 8,624,588		40 40 50	250 800 400	jat. Tagā, Kt Jat, Tagi	اخاد
Khodi	25.618 71.245	2.514,673 2.025,238	58 906 223,579	20	200	Gujar.	
Gango		2 729,032	322,516	800	2000	Turkomi Do.	m.
Lakhnautt	79,694 81,305-15	1,796,058 4,074,064	76,602 71,899	300 20		Ranghar Sander	
Manglaur, has a brick fort	40 007	2,850,31	197,216	40	800	(?Pundi Brähmas Badgui	n,
Malhaipur	81,010	2,244,070	23,077	190	500	Afghān, Tagā,	
Nakor	65,612-10	1,887,970	26,104	40	300	Brāhm Afghān Brāhm	
Nānauta	39,224	724,150	18,684	40	800	Afghãa	

Sarkār of Rewāri.

Containing 12 Mahals. 1,155,011 Bighas, 10 Biswas. Suyurghāl, 739,268 Dāms. Revenue† * * *. Cavalry, 1,175. Infantry, 14,600.

	-	,	1	•	1
Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavulry	Infantry	Castes
110,375	4,114,753	16,274	100	2001	Rājput, Ahir, Jat.
61 970	2,270,080	5,260	50	500	Do. Do.
	755,543	345	100	1000	Ahir.
85,858	986,228	11,578	50	500	Musalmān, Khaildār(?)
405,108	11,906,847	404,190	400	2000	Thathar, Ahir, Jat.
50 190	289 603	523		400	
80,410					Rājput, Ahir.
27,270-10	656,688	***	700	2000	
15,264	421,440		50	500	Do. Do.
251,738	3 928.364	150,568	200	2000	Do. Do.
85,047	682,259	:	500	4000	Various.
	110,375 61,970 38,547 85,858 405,108 52,120 80,410 27,270-10 15,264 251,738	Bighas Biswas D. 110,375	Biswas D. D. 110,375 4.114,753 16,274 61,970 2,270.080 5,260 38,547 755,543 345 986,228 11.578 405,108 11,906,847 404,190 52,120 289,603 523 80,410 3,857,930 110,330 27,270-10 656,688 15,264 421,440 251,738 3 928.364 150,568	Bighas Biswas D. ghāi	Bighas Biswas D. ghāi

[†] By deducting the revenues of the other 7 Sarkars from the total revenue the Subah (given on p. 290), we get 35,222,658 ddms as the revenue of wāri. [J. S.]

Sarkar of Hisar Firozah.*

Containing 27 Mahals. 3,114,497 Bighas. Revenue, ,554,905 Dams. Suyurghal, 1,406,519 Dams. Castes, rious. Cavalry, 6,875. Infantry, 60,800.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyure ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
rowa (var. Agrohah). jame of all kinds poands. Sport chiefly awking oni	45,717	1,748,970	6,654	200	200 0	Jātu, Jat.
	19,537	857,357	160,038	100	1000	Gujar, Jat.

^{*} Called after the Emperor Firoz Shah Tughlaq who founded the town hat name about 1354 A.D.

HISAR MAHALS

Sarkār of Hisār Firozah—Contd.

	1	,	1 1	-		
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Atkhera, has a brick fort, and a Hindu temple call- ed Govardhan.	82,991	1,576,200		200	2000	Jat,
Bhangiwal	•••	1,800,000	i	200	2000	Tonwär. Räjput, Räthor,
Puniyān Bhārangi Barwāla	136,799	1,200,000 880,882 1,097,807	1	150 200 100	2000	Jat, Punya (Jat). Jat, Punyan Rāthor, Jat. Sayyid,
N		440,280	100,002	50		Malikzādah, Bakkāl. Jat.
Barwa Bhatner, has a brick fort	6,254 15,688	64,680 933,042		25 500	300	Jātu, Jat. Rāthor, Rāj- put.
Tohānah, Do	180,744	4,694,354	150,880	400	3000	Afghān, Lohāni.
Toshām	511,075	1,068,548	2,696	200	1000	Räthor, Räj put, Jat.
Jind, 3 miles from the town in the village of Pandārah, is a Hindu temple	281,584	5,401,749	128,090	500	4000	-Sālār, Rāj- put, Jātu.
Hisar (Hissar) with sub.	142,455	4,277,261	81,461	700	400	Tonwar, Jat
dist. has 2 forts, one of brick, one of stone	176,512-18	4,039,895	183,879	500	2900	Jātu, Ranghar, Sowārān (Sheoram),
Dhātarat, has a brick fort Sirsā, Do	29,207-18 258,855	978.007 4,361,368	45,556 168,104	100 500		Sängwän. Jät, Afghän. Junah (note Johiya).
Seorān	•••	469,000	***	100	1000	Jat, Seoram (Sheoram).
Sidhmukh, soil mostly sand		171,872		50	1	Rājput, Rāthor, Jat.
Sewāni Shānzdah Dihāt (sixteen	48,512	76,750	•••	100		Rājput, Jātu
villages)	29,740	960,111	12,506	200	1500	Räjpet, Tonwer.

Sarkar of Hisar Firozah—Contd.

Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Snyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
83,661	1,184,392	81,867 2	200	3000	Rājput, Rāthor,
68,951	2,876.115	16,146 3	900	8000	Gujar, Jat. Jat, Dād- balāsa Duhna?
19,438	1,119,364				Jat, Gadî (var. Kari).
188,080	4,958,613	84,202 7	700	2000	Rājput, Tonwar, Jat.
886,115	5,434,438	180.056 5	00 ;	7000	Rājput, Multāni, Jātu, Jat.
	83,661 68,951 19,438 188,080	Biswas D. 93,661 1,184,392 68,951 2,876,115 19,438 1,119,364 188,080 4,958,613	Bighas Revenue ghāl D. 33,661 1,184,392 8i,867 2 68,951 2,876,115 16,146 3 19,438 1,119,364 47,978 1 188,080 4,958,613 84,202 7	Bighas Revenue ghāl D. 33,661 1,184,392 81,867 200 68,951 2,876,115 16,146 300 19,438 1,119,364 47,978 100 188,080 4,958,613 84,202 700	Bighas Biswas D. ghāl

Sarkar of Serhind.

Containing 33 Mahals. 7,729,466 Bighas, 7 Biswas. Revenue, 160,790,549 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 11,698,330. Castes, various. Cavalry, 9,225. Infantry, 55,700.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	ghāl D.	Cavairy	Infantry	Castes
Ambāla Banor	154,769 420,337	4,198,094 12,549,953	321,488 1,087,209	100 700	1000 8000	Ranghar, Afghān
Päel, has a brick fort	525,932	7,322,260	162,267	200	2000	Ranghar,
Bhader	86,877	3,103,269	1,406,106	50	700	Jat. Jat, <i>Dāh-</i> surati?
Pāndri Thāra, has a brick fort	34,190	3,125,000 686,870		400 20		
on the Sutlej	273,966	7,850,809	2,8 6 9.841	150υ	1,000	Munj (or Shaikh). Jat.

Sarkār of Sirhind-Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Thünesar, has a brick fort	228,988-17	7,850, 80 8	2,069,841	50	1500	Ranghar,
Chahat on the Ghaggar	158,739	750,994	49,860	650	1100	Afghān, Rājput.
Chark	68,688	1,538,090		20	800	Tat.
Khizrābād, has a brick fort		12,059,918		200	3000	Bhatti, Jat.
Dorāla	65,768	2,188,443		50	300	Ranghar.
Dhota	71,357	1,601.846			1500	Rājput.
Deorāna	12,389	580,985		20	200	Jat.
Rupar, has a brick fort	66,144	5,005,549	26,084	200	1000	Rajput &c.
Sirhind with sub, dist, has		100 000 000				
a brick fort	828,458	12,082,690	608,536	1700	2000	Rājput, Barāh, Khauri, Dādah (Dādu?), Iat.
Samāna		12,822,270			2000	
Sunām, has a brick fort	988,562	7,007,698		500	2000	Ranghar.
Sadhuna, has a brick fort	34,861	4,298,064	278,265		5000	
	1					Ranghar.
Sultänpur Bārha	13,736	427,085	82,759	20	100	Do. Rajput.
Shāhābād	184,146	6,751,468	761.587	200		Chruhan,
			1	i		Rājout,
	1		i	į .	1	Brähmen.
Fathpur	50,931	684,370	15,440	25	400	Rajput,
•				1		Pundir.
Karyāt Rāe Samu	28.099	1,220.090	5.374	40	900	Ranghar, Jat, Barāh, (var. Bārah).
Kaithal, has a brick fort:						
here Hindu shrines	918,025	10.688,690				Räjput.
Guhrām, Do	188,574	6,188,690	1,058,982	50	100	
	1					Jat, Khauri.
Ludhiana, has a brick fort	1		1	1		
on the Sutlej	43,469	2.294.688	44,688	100	700	Awān,* Khauri, Ranghar.
Mustafābād	271,899	7,496,691	570,976	200	1000	Chauhān, Ranghar.
Masengan	204,877	7,058,259	626,690	200	1000	
Mansurpur	116,242	1,830,025	326,690	200	1000	
Måler	103,444	280,583		100	500	
Māchhiwāra, has a brick	i		-	1		
fort	17,272	250,556	250,552	100	500	Khanri, Wāh (var. Wārah)
Hāperi	93,756	1,145,118	***	80	300	Ranghar, Jat.

^{*} See—Biliot, I, 113. Extract from Canningham who gives the possession of Taxila to this people before Alexander's invasion.

Sovereigns of Delhi.

I.

Twenty princes reigned 437 years 1 month 28 days.*

			Ys.	M.	D.
Anangpāl, Tonwar		•••	18	0	0
Bāsdeva			19	1	18
Ghangnu (var. Khanku,	Kanaknāl	Gangu)	21	3	28
Pirthimal (var. Pirthipal)	zzuzuz puz	8)	19	6	19
Jaideva	•••	• • •	20	7	28
Nirpāl (var. Hirpāl)	•••	• • •	14	4	9
Adrah (var. Andiraj and	26 Q 15)	***	26	7	11
Bichhrāj	20-0-10)	***	21	2	13
Bik, (Anangpāl, Anakpāl)	•••	• • •	22	3	-
Raghupāl		• • •			16
	• • •	• • •	21	6	5
Nekpāl (Rekhpāl)	• • •	• • •	20	4	4
Gopāl		•••	18	8	15
Sulakhan		***	25	2	2
Jaipāl		• • •	16	4	13
Kanwarpāl	•••	•••	29	8	11
Agnipāl	• • •	•••	29	6	18
Bijaipāl (var. Tajpāl)	***		24	1	6
Mahipāl	•••	***	25	2	13
Aknepāl [Anangpāl]	***		21	2	15
Prithiraj		•••	22	$\bar{\mathbf{s}}$	16
•	• • •			U	

II.

Seven princes reigned 94 years and 7 months.

D:14 (1 1 #				Ys.	M.	D.
Bildeva Chauhān		• • •	• • •	6	1	4
Amr Gangu			• • •	5	2	5
Khiroal	• • •	• • •		20	1	5
Sumer	***	• • •	***	7	4	2
Jāhir	***	•••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	4	4	8
Nāgdeva	•••	• • • •		8	ī	5
Pithaura (Prithwi	Rāe)	•••	•••	49	5	ĭ

This number does not accord with the totals. It would be as unprofitable as it is hopeless to attempt to digest or reconcile the order, number and length of these reigns among various authorities, when dates are unknown or conjectural, the names of the princes disputed and their existence mythical. After this, the minute exactness of their duration of reigns would be ridiculous.

III.

Eleven princes of the Ghori dynasty reigned 96 years 6 months and 20 days.

A.H.	A.D.					
588	1192	Sultān	Muizzu'ddin Muham-			
			mad Sām Ghori	14	0	0
602	1206	,,	Qutbuddin Eibak	4	0	0
607	1210	,,	Ārām Sāh, his son	1	0	()
607	1210	,,	Shamsuddin Altmish	26	0	0
633	1235	,,	Ruknu'ddin Firoz Shāh,			
			his son	0	6	28
634	1236	,,	Raziah, his sister	3	6	6
637	1239	,,	Muizzu'ddin Bahrām			
			Shāh, his brother	2	1	15
640	1242	,,	Alāu'ddin Masaud Shāh,			
		• •	his nephew	4	1	1
643	1245	,,	Nāsiru'ddin Mahmud			
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Shāh, his uncle	19	3	0
664	1265	,,	Ghiyāsu'ddin Balban	20 a	and s	ome
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•		mor	iths
685	1286	• • •	Muizzu'ddin Kaikubād,			
		,,	his grandson	3	Do) .

IV.

Thirteen princes of the Khilji dynasty reigned 129 years 10 months and 10 days.

А.Н. 688	A.D. 1289	Sultan	Jalálu'ddin	Khilji	•••	Ys.	Md. D. some months
695	1295.	••	Alāu'ddin nephew	Khilji,	hie	20	
716	1316	,,	Shahabu'dd son	in Omar, 	his	0	3 some
717	1317	,,	Qutbu'ddin Shāh his	Mubā elder bro	rak her	14	4 0*

^{*} All the MSS, concur in this glaring error, an evident slip of a copyist of 14 for 4. He was raised to the throne on the 7th Muharram A.H. 717 (22nd March 1317) and was killed 5th Rabii I, A.H. 721 (5th April 1321).

72	1 1321	,,	Nāsiru'ddin	Khu	srau			
			Khān			0	6	0
72 :	1 1321	,,	Ghiyāsu'ddin	Tug	hlaq			
			Shāh			4	SO1	ne
							moi	nths
725		,,	Muhammad, hi	s son		27	0	0
752	2 1351	,,	Firoz Shāh, so	n of	his			
			paternal unc	le	•••	38	SOT	ne
							moi	iths
790	1388	,,	Tughlaq Shah, 1	his gr	and-			
			son	_	• • •	0	5	3
791	13 89	,,	Abu Bakr Shāl	ı, son	of			
_			his paternal	uncle		1	6	0
793	1391	• , ,	Muhammad Sh	ıāh.	his			
_			paternal unc	le		6	7	0+
796	1393	,,	Ala'uddin Sikar	ıdar,	his			• 1
			son		• • • •	0	1	11
796	1393	* *	Mahmud, his br	other		20	2	0
			v.					
817	1414	771. 1	771	(3				
011	1414	Khizr		Say	yid	_	_	_
824	1401	36.42	Dynasty		• • •	7	2	2
837	1421	Mubar	ak Shāh		• • •	13	3	16
001	1433	Muhar	nmad Shāh			10	son	ne
850	1440	0.1	A1=+ +4+ A==				mon	ths
090	1446	Sultan	Alā'uddin Aālan	m				
OE 4	1450		Shāh		• • •	7	do	
854	1450	"	Behlol Lodi			38	8	8
894 923	1488	,,	Sikandar, his so	n	• • •	28	5	0
923	1517	**	Ibrahim, his son	ı		7	son	1e
			Wa - 4				mon	ths
		3.5	Bābar		•••	5	0	0
0.477	3 2 40	9.2	Humayun		• • •	9	8	1
947	1540	,,	Sher Khan Sur			5	0	0
952	1545	2 5	Salim Khān, his	son	• • •	_	and o	
960	1552	11	Mubariz Khan A	Adali.				
961	1553		Ibrahim			some	mor	iths
962	1554	"	Sikandar		•		do.	
		95	Humāyun			1	3	0
~				`		-	-	-

[†] Thus in all MSS., but Ferishta discovers the method of computation by dating this reign from the abdication of his father Firoz Shāh in his favour on the 6th Shabān 789 A.H. (21st August 1387) to his death on the 17th Rabii I 786 (29th January 1393) disregarding the two intermediate reigns.

In the year 429 of the era of Bikramājit (A.D. 372) Anangpāl¹ of the Tonwar tribe reigned with justice and founded Delhi. In the year 848 of the same luni-solar era (A.D. 791) in the vicinity of that renowned city, a hotly contested battle was fought between Prithirai Tonwar and Bildeva Chauhān, and the sovereignty was transferred to this latter tribe. During the reign of Rājā Pithaura (Prithwi Rājā) Sultān Muizzu'ddin Sām made several incursions into Hindustan without any material success. The Hindu chronicles narrate that the Rājā engaged and defeated the Sultan in seven pitched battles. In the year 588 A.H. (A.D. 1192), an eighth engagement took place near Thanesar and the Rājā was taken prisoner. One hundred renowned champions (it is related) were among his special retainers. They were severally called Samant and their extraordinary exploits cannot be expressed in language nor reconciled to experience or reason. It is said that at this battle none of these champions was present, and that the Rājā kept to his palace in selfish indulgence, passing his time in unseemly pleasure, heedless of the administration of the state and of the welfare of his troops.

The story runs that Rājā Jaichand Rathor, who held the supremacy of Hindustān was at this time ruling at Kanauj, and the other Rājās to some extent acknowledged his authority and he himself was so liberal-minded that many natives of Irān and Turān were engaged in his service. He announced his intention of celebrating the great sacrifice symbolic of paramount supremacy and set about its preparations. One of its conditions is that all menial service should be performed by princes alone, and that even the duties of the royal scullery and the kindling of fires are directly a part of their office. He likewise promised to bestow his beautiful daughter on the bravest of the assembled chivalry. Rājā Pithaura had resolved to attend the festival, but a chance speech of some courtier that while the Chauhān sovereignty existed, the great sacrifice could

Another name for Raya-Sena. Wilford ays that he was called Anangpala or befriended by love probably for his success in his amours, which he displayed by carrying off his brother's wife. Tieffenthaler calls him Rasena and credits him with the building of Delhi, which is confirmed by the Agnipurana.

³ I learn from Professor Cowell that the primary meaning attached to this term in the St. Petersburg Dict. is 'neighbour', and the second signification, 'vassal', in which sense it often occurs in Sanskrit poetry. Monier Williams defines it as "a neighbouring king—a fendatory or tributary prince" and adds a third meaning 'a leader, general, champion' which applies to the fext.

not legitimately be performed by the Rathor chief, inflamed his ancestral pride and he held back. Rājā Jaichand proposed to lead an army against him, but his counsellors representing the duration of the war and the approach of the appointed assembly, dissuaded him from the enterprise. To carry out the integrity of the festival, a statue of Rājā Pithaura was made in gold and placed in the office of porter at the royal gates. Roused to indignation at this news. Rājā Pithaura set out in disguise accompanied by 500 picked warriors and suddenly appeared at the gathering and carrying off the image, he put a great number to the sword and hastily returned. The daughter of Jaichand, who was betrothed to another prince, hearing of this adventurous deed, fell in love with Pithaura and refused her suitor. Her father, wroth at her conduct, expelled her from her chamber in the palace and assigned her a separate dwelling. Pithaura, distracted at the news, returned with a determination to espouse her, and it was arranged that Chanda a bard, a rival in skill of Babylonian* minstrelsy, should proceed to the court of Jaichand on the pretence of chanting his praises, while the Raja himself with a body of chosen followers should accompany him as attendants. Love transformed the intention into act, and by this ingenious device and the spell of valour, he carried off his heart's desire, and after prodigies of bravery and heroism reached his own kingdom. The hundred Samants (above mentioned) accompanied him under various disguises. One after the other they covered his retreat and defeated their pursuers. Gobind Rae Gehlot made the first stand and bravely fighting, fell. Seven thousand of the enemy sank engulfed in death before him. Next Narsingh Deva, Chanda, Pundir, and Sārdul Solanki, and Pālhan Deva Kachhwāha with his two brothers, during the first day's action, after performing feats of astonishing heroism sold their lives dearly, and all these heroes perished in the retreat.

The Rājā, with the bard Chāndā and two of his brothers, brought his bride to Delhi amid the admiration

of a wondering world.

Unfortunately the prince was all engrossed by his affection for his beautiful wife and neglected all other affairs.

The text here is corrupt, and the variants printed give no help. Jarrett made the above translation with the warning that he was not satisfied with it. I suggest the emendation—"Chand the bard, who was a clever confidant [of Prithvi Raj]," as damsazan-i-māhir-ash ast. [J. Sarkar.]

After a year had thus passed, Sultan Shahabu'ddin bv reason of the above events, formed an alliance with Rājā Jaichand, and assembling an army, invaded the country and captured many places. But no one dared even to represent, not to say, remedy this state of affairs. At last, the principal nobles meeting together, introduced Chanda through the seven gates of the palace, who entering the women's apartments, by his representations somewhat disturbed the Rājā's mind. But in the pride of his former victories, he marched to battle with but a small army. his brave champions were now no more, his kingdom fallen from its ancient renown, and Jaichand his former ally, reversing his past policy, in league with the enemy, the Rājā in this contest was taken prisoner and carried by the Sultān to Ghazni, Chāndā in his fidelity and loyalty hastened to Ghazni, entered the Sultān's service and gained his favour. By his address, he discovered the Rājā and comforted him in his prison. He proposed that he should praise his dexterity with the bow to the Sultan who would desire to witness it, and that then he might use his opportunity. The proposal was carried out and the Raja pierced the Sultan with an arrow. His retainers fell upon the Raja and Chanda and cut them to pieces.

The Persian historians give a different account and

state that the Rājā was killed in battle.

Fate discloses many such events from its treasurehouse of wonders. But where—and blessed is he—who will

take warning thereby and act on the lesson?

When the Chauhān dynasty fell, the choicest portion of Hindustān passed into the hands of Sultān Muizzu'ddin Ghori. Leaving Malik Qutbu'ddin (Eibak) who was one of his slaves, at the village Guhrām, [Ghuram in Patiala] he himself returned to Ghazni, laying waste the hilly country on his northern march. Qutbuddin in the same year possessed himself of Delhi and many other places and followed up his successes with remarkable ability. On the death of Muizzu'ddin, Ghiyāsu'ddin Mahmud son of Ghiyasu'ddin Muhammad sent from Firozkoh (his capital) the umbrella and insignia of royalty to Malik Qutbu'ddin. Qutbu'ddin was enthroned at Lahore and exalted his reputation by his justice, munificence and valour. He lost his life while playing at chaugan [polo.]

The nobles raised his son Aram Shah to the throne, but a strong faction set up Malik Altmish, who had been a

purchased slave, and was the son-in-law and adopted heir of Qutbu'ddin. Aram Shah was defeated and retired into obscurity, and Altmish assumed the title of Shamsu'ddin. It is said that his father was chief of some of the Turkish tribes. His brethren and cousins distracted by envy, sold. like Joseph, this nursling of intelligence, into slavery. Through the vicissitudes of fortune, he had various changes of masters until a merchant brought him to Ghazni. Sultān Muizzu'ddin Sām proposed to purchase him, but his owner chaffered for his value and placed an exorbitant price on him. The Sultan enraged, forbade any one to purchase him. Qutbu'ddin on his return to Ghazni after the conquest of Gujrāt, having obtained permission, bought him for a large sum and adopted him as a son. Khwājah Qutbu'ddin Ushi* was his contemporary and edified the world by his outward demeanour and the sanctity of his interior life. When Altmish died, his son (Ruknu'ddin Firoz Shāh) succeeded him who regarded wealth as a means of selfindulgence and thought little of winning the affections of his people. He made over the control of affairs to his mother Shāh Turkān. The nobles withdrawing their allegiance raised Raziah the daughter of Sultān Shamsu'ddin to the throne. The Sultān himself had previously made her his heir. Some of his courtiers asked him the reason of his doing so while he had sons still living. He replied that his sons, addicted to drinking were unfitted for the dignity. During the reign of Muizzu'ddin Bahrām Shāh, the Mughal troops devastated Lahore. A disloyal faction imprisoned the king and put him to death. In the reign of Sultan Alau'ddin Masud Shah occurred an irruption of the Mughals into Bengal, entering by way of China or Tibet, but his troops defeated them. Another body advanced from Turkistan to Uch. The Sultan set out to engage them, but on reaching the banks of the Biah, intelligence reached him that the enemy had retreated. He returned to Delhi and there affected the company of low and base flatterers and ended his days in prison.

Nasiru'ddin Mahmud ruled with capacity and muni-ficence In his time also, the Mughals entered the Panjab

but retreated on hearing of his approach.

^{*} Ush is in Fransoxiana and his hirthplace. He is also known as Kāki from the miraculous production of bread cakes of the kind called in the vernacular kāk applied by the prophet Khizr for the needs of his family whose sustenance his meditations gave him no leisure or occasion to provide.

The Tabagāt i Nāsiri takes its name from him. had many excellent qualities. Ghiyasu'ddin Balban who had been the slave and son-in-law of his father, he raised to the rank of chief minister and gave him the title of Ulugh' Khān. This minister filled his high office worthily and

sought the divine favour in watchfulness over his people.

Nāsiru'ddin dying without children, the faithful minister was raised to the sovereignty. Clemency and solid gravity of character added fresh lustre to his dignity, and far from spending his precious hours in unworthy pursuits, he gladdened his kingdom by his appreciation of merit, his knowledge of men and his devotion to God. Those of ill repute and the wicked were banished into obscurity, and the good happily prospered under his encouragement. He conferred the government of the Panjab on his eldest son Muhammad, commonly known as Khān i Shahid² through whose valour and vigilance the province rested in security. Mir Khusrau and Mir Hasan were in his suite. returning from a visit to his father unprepared for hostilities, when he encountered some Mughal troops between Dipalpur and Lahor and lost his life in the action. Mir Khusrau was taken prisoner but contrived to escape. The province of Bengal had been bestowed by Ghiyāsu'ddin on his youngest son Bughra Khān.

On the death of Ghiyasu'ddin, the nobles despatched Kai Khusrau the son of Khan i Shahid, who had been nominated heir, to (his father's government of) Multan, and bestowed the title of Sultan Muizzu'ddin Kaikubad on the son of Bughra Khan who thus acquired the sovereignty of Delhi. His father in Bengal, assuming the title of Nāsiruddin marched to Delhi whence Kaikubād advanced with a force to encounter him. The armies met on the banks of the Sarju (Gogra) near the town of Ajodhya, and through the conspiracy of disloyal and evil counsellors, the father after the interview returned to Bengal and the supreme sovereignty rested with the son. It is strange that Amir Khusrau should have chosen such a subject as this interview for encomium in his poem the Qiran us Sa'dain.

¹ Ulugh is a Tartar word and signifies 'great', and used often as a proper name as in the case of Ulugh Beg grandson of Timur.

² Or the martyred prince. Abul Fazl's assertion of the prince's unpreparedness is not confirmed. It was in the parsuit of the flying Mughals that he was surprised by an ambush while he halted by the banks of a stream to drink and to return thanks to God for his victory. Amir Khusrau alludes to his escape in his well-known poem, the Khizr Khāni.

The fortunes of this thankless unfilial son through his insobriety fell into decay. A faction set up his son, under the title of Shamsu'ddin to remedy the disorder, and the body of the wretched Kaikubad was flung into the waters of the Jumna. Shamsuddin was set aside and the sovereignty. by assent of the ministers, conferred on the Khiljis.

Jalalu'ddin who was paymaster of the Imperial forces, ascended the throne and by his simplicity of character lent no favour to the designs of the factious. His nephew Malik Alau'ddin who had been brought up under his care, went from Karrah to the Deccan and having amassed great booty was inflated by its possession and proved rebellious. The Sultan by the persuasion of intriguers advanced from Delhi to Karrah, where the traitor slew him and assumed the title of Sultan Alau'ddin. Thus by a marvel of Fate did the empire devolve on this miscreant, yet he accomplished some excellent reforms. On several occasions he encountered and defeated the Mughals. Mir Khusrau dedicated to him his Khamsah1 and the story of Dewal2 Rani to his son Khizr Khan. Unfortunately he abandoned his usual prudence and fell under the influence of a eunuch (Kāfur) on whom he conferred the conduct of the administration. Through the suggestions of that wretch, his three sons Khizr Khān, Shādi Khān and Mubārak Khān were imprisoned, and on his own death, by the same instrumentality the youngest son was raised to the throne under the title of Shahabuddin. He destroyed the sight of two of his brothers, but Mubarak Khān providentially escaped. A few days later the wretch (Kāfur) was himself assassinated and Mubarak Khān who was in prison became chief minister.

Or five poems, viz., the Hasht Bihisht, Sikandar Nāmah, Panj Ganj, Laila wa Majnum, and Shirin wa Khasran.

The story will be found in Briggs, Vol I, pp. 327-366. Kaunla Devi her mother, the wife of Karan Rāe of Nahrwāla had been taken captive in the wars against that prince (1297) and placed in the royal haren. In 1306 an expedition proceeding to the Deccan under Kāfur, Kaunla Devi represented to the king that she had borne two daughters to her former husbaud, that one had died, but the other Dewal Devi was still alive and she desired to ecover her. Passing through Mālwah, Kāfur demanded her of Karan Rae without success. Shankar Deva Rāe, prince of Deogarh had long sought to the up-tart Mabratta. The desire to gain his aid in the war against the king's troops secured his consent and he despatched her under an escort of Ellors. An engagement resulted in the capture of the princess and her the king's son and the rough course of their love with its hapless termination is calebrated in the Khizr Khān. When they first met these processous lovers were respectively ten and eight years of age. lovers were respectively ten and eight years of age.

Subsequently he deposed his younger brother, and assumed the title of Sultan Qutbuddin. He reduced Gujarat and the Deccan. Through his incapacity and licentious disposition he chose a favourite of the lower orders named Hasan for the comeliness of his person, and bestowed on him the title of Khusrau Khān. Although the faithful ministers of the Crown represented the man's unworthiness and infamy, the king regarded their honest advice as the suggestions of envy, till Khusrau Khan, plotting secretly, dared to assassinate his master and assumed the sovereignty under the title of Nasiru'ddin. He put to death the surviving members of the family of Alāu'ddin and perpetrated the greatest cruelties. Malik Ghāzi who was one of Alāu'ddin's chief nobles, defeated and slew him and with the concurrence of the nobles, ascended the throne with the title of Sultan Chiyasu'ddin Tughlaq Shah. After settling the affairs of Bengal, he returned to Delhi. His son Muhammad Khan erected a pavilion at the distance of 3 kos from Delhi, in the space of three days and with much entreaty invited the king to enter it. The roof of the building fell in and the king perished in the ruins. Although (Ziauddin) Barni' endeavours to substantiate the innocence of Muhammad Khān, the haste with which the pavilion was erected, and the eagerness to entertain the king therein, have all the appearance of guilty design.

When Sultān Muhammad died, Firoz the son of (Sālār) Rajab his paternal uncle was, according to the will of Muhammad, raised to the throne. He ruled with capacity and prudence and left many useful works as memorials of his reign. At his death anarchy to some extent prevailed in the empire. A faction set up his grandson (Ghiyāsuddin) Tughlaq Shāh (II) but in a short space he was sent to his last sleep by the hands of traitors and Abu Bakr¹ another grandson succeeded him.

In the reign of Sultān Mahmud, the direction of affairs devolved on Mallu Khān who received the title of Iqbāl Khān, but his incapacity and ill-fortune were unequal to the burden of state guidance. Internal disorders arose. A grandson of Firoz Shāh was acknowledged by some, under the title of Nasrat Shāh and increased the anarchy. Constant struggles took place in the vicinity of Delhi till in the

¹ The well-known author of the Terikh & Firoz Shāhi, ² Son of Zafar Khān, son of Firus Shāh.

year 801 A.H. (A.D. 1398) Timur invaded the country. Sultān Mahmud fled to Gujarāt and every competitor for power was crushed.

When Timur was on his return march, he left Khizr Khān, whom he had met during his invasion, in the government of Multān and Dipālpur. For two months Delhi was a waste. Nasrat Shah who had fled into the Doab, took possession of the throne. Igbal Khan then marched on Delhi and seized it and the other fled to Mewat. Mahmud Khān now came from Gujarāt and Igbāl Khān feigned acceptance of his service. One night the Sultan. in desperation of his affairs departed alone to the court of Sultan Ibrahim of the Sharqi dynasty (of Jaunpur) but met with no encouragement nor assistance. He was compelled therefore to return and Igbal Khan now opposed him but without success, and subsequently was taken prisoner in an action against Khizr Khan and was slain. Sultan Mahmud now took possession of Delhi, and was for some time occupied in hostilities, till he was carried off by an illness. and the Khilji dynasty terminated with him.

For a short period allegiance was paid to Daulat Khān (Lodi) Khāsah Khail, till Khizr Khān marched from Multān and took possession of Delhi. Malik Mardān Khān, one of the nobles of the Court of Sultān Firoz, had adopted Sulaimān the father of Khizr Khān as his son who subsequently, in default of recognised heirs, succeeded to his government. Khizr Khān in gratitude (to Timur) did not assume the regal title but styled his Court "The Sublime Standards," and adorned the Khutbah with the name of that illustrious monarch and afterwards with that of Mirzā Shāh Rukh, but it concluded with a prayer for himself. His son Mubārak Shāh succeeded him in accordance with his will. Sultān Ibrahim Sharqi and Hoshang (of Maiwah) being engaged in hostilities, Mubārak intended an attack

The obscurity of this sentence in the original lies in the eliptical style of Abul Fazl. The sense I have given is in accordance with the facts of Perishta who says that Malik Marwān Daulat had adopted Sulaimān, and being houself appointed to the government of Multān, was succeeded at his death by his own son Malik Shaikh. The latter dying, made way for Sulaimān who was in turn succeeded by his son Khizr Khān. Ferishta makes the name Marwān and not Matdān.

The MSS omit the negative, but the text supplies it. Ferishta is clear on the point. "He did not take the name of king nor assume any regal epithet." The title in the text is not mentioned by him, which, however, is somewhat analogous to the Ottoman style of the 'Babi Aāli' or Sublime Porte, though in the latter it is absolute, and in the former vicerious.

on Kālpi and the adjacent territories, but he was perfidiously set upon by a band of traitors and slain. Muhammad Shah, who according to some was the son of Farid the son of Khizr Khan, while another account makes him the son of Mubarak, was raised to the throne. Sultan Alau'ddin

(his son and successor) possessed no share of rectitude and abandoned himself to licentious gratifications.

Bahlol (Lodi) now aspired to greatness. He was the nephew of Sultan Shah Lodi of the Shahu Khel tribe (of Afghans). His father Bahram in the time of Sultan Mahmud, came with five sons from the borders of Balot to Multan and subsisted with some difficulty by traffic. Sultān Shāh² obtained service under Khizr Khān. He received the title of Islām Khān, and the revenues of Sirhind were assigned to him. Bahlol, the son of his nephew on his brother's side was prospering ill in Sirhind, but was received into favour by him and adopted as a son. Bahlol was born in Multan and during the month in which his birth was expected, a beam of the house fell and killed his mother. He was extracted by the Caesarean operation and his destiny proved fortunate. Although he allowed his sovereign (Alau'ddin) who lived in retirement (at Badaon) to retain nominal power, he boldly assumed the supreme authority.3 His reign showed some capacity and his conduct was marked by intelligence and recognition of merit. He was carried off by an illness in his 80th year. It is said that he once happened to meet with a darvesh, having at the time with him but a trifling sum of money. The spiritually enlightened recluse called out, "Who will buy the kingdom of Delhi for such a sum of money?" His companions laughed in mockery at the man, but Bahlol frankly gave him all he had, and paid him reverence and eventually fulfilled the prediction. carried on wars with the Sharqi kings which continued with varying successes, until he took Jaunpur and this dynasty was overthrown. He left his son, Bārbak at Jaunpur and returned to Delhi. As he was returning to Delhi from an

¹ He had laid the foundations of the city of Mubarakābād on the Jumna and was in the habit of visiting it to inspect the progress of the buildings. It was in one of these that he was assessinated at the instigation of the Wasir Sarwar ul Mulk on the 9th Rajeb 837 (A.D. 1433). Feriahta.

² His eldest son, the others were Malik Kālā, Malik Firoz, Malik Muhammad and Malik Khwājah. Feriahta.

³ Removing the name of Alāu'ddin from the Khulbak, and assuming the insignia of royalty. Feriahta

insignia of royalty. Ferishts.

expedition against Gwalior he died near the town of Saketh. His son Nizām Khān with the concurrence of the nobles, assumed the sovereignty and was styled Sultān Sikandar. He ruled with sagacity and appreciation of character and transferred the capital to Agra. In the year A.H. 911 (A.D. 1505), a great earthquake occurred and many lofty buildings were levelled. Sikandar was of comely person and mild disposition and popular from his liberality and

open-handedness.

On his death, his son Sultān Ibrahim ascended the throne of Delhi and his authority was recognised as far as the confines of Jaunpur, the nobles conferring upon Jalāl Khān, another son of Sikandar's, the sovereignty of Jaunpur. Dissensions followed between the brothers, and Jalāl Khān abandoned his government and took refuge with the governor of Gwalior, but meeting with no success, fled to the court of Sultān Mahmud of Mālwa and succeeding as little there, he set out for Gondwāna. There the royal partisans seized him and carried him to the king by whom he was put to death. During his reign various chiefs revolted, such as Daryā Khān Lohāni viceroy of Behār, and his son Bahādur Khān had the Khutba read and the coin minted in his own name. Daulat Khān Lodi fled at Kabul and sought protection at the court of Babar, whom he led to the conquest of Hindustān while affairs resulted in a prosperous issue.

¹ Suketa or Saketa according to the I. G. is one of the classical names borne by Ajodhya, the ancient capital of Oudh. Abul Fazl places Saketh in the Sarkär of Kanauj.

SUBAH OF LAHOR.

It is situated in the third climate. Its length from he river Satlaj (Sutlej) to the Sind river is 180 kos. Its breadth from Bhimbar to Chaukhandi one of the dependencies of Satgarah, 186 kos. It is bounded on the east by Sirhind: on the north by Kashmir; on the south by Bikaner and Ajmer; on the west by Multan. It has six principal rivers which all flow from the northern mountains.

- (1.) The Sutlej the ancient name of which is Shattudar' and whose source is in the Kāhlor hills. Rupar, Māchhiwarah and Ludhianah are situated on its banks, and it receives the Bial at the Bauh ferry.
- (2.) The Biāh (Beās) was anciently called Bipāsha, (Sansk. Vipasa Gr. Hyphasis). Its source is named Biahkund in the Kullu mountains in the vicinity of which the town of Sultanpur' stands above the river.
- (3.) The Ravi, the ancient Irawati, rises in the Bhadrale hills. Lahor the capital, is situated on its banks.
- (4). The Chenāb, anciently Chandarbhāgā. From the summit of the Kishtawar' range issue two sweet water streams, the one called Chandar, the other Bhaga which unite near Khatwar and are known by the above name whence they flow by Bahlolpur, Sudharah and Hazarah.

The Sydrus or better reading, Hesidrus of Pliny. It rises like the Indus on the slopes of the Kailas mountains, the Siva's paradise of ancient Sanskrit

on the slopes of the Kailas mountains, the Siva's paradise of ancient Sanskrit literature, with peaks 22,000 feet high. The twin lakes of Mānasarowar and Rakas-tal, united with each other, are its direct source. See I. G.

In the maps, according to the text note, Baupur. The junction is at the south boundary of the Kaparthala state.

It is in Kullu proper on the right bank of the Beas in lat. 30° 58' N. and long. 77° 7' E., at an elevation of 4,092 feet above sea level. It is perched on a natural eminence, once surrounded by a wall. Only two gateways remain of the ancient fortifications. I. G.

Hydraotes of Arrien

Hydraotes of Arrian.

Var. Bhadrā. It rises in the northern half of the Bangahal valley in Kangra dist.

The I. G. places Kistawar in the Kashmir state, lat. 33° 18' 30" N., long. 75° 48' E. near the left bank of the Chenab which here forces its way through a gorge with precipitous cliffs 1,000 feet high. The Chenab is called Sandabad by Ptolemy but the Greek historians of Alexander named it Akssines because its proper name was of ill omen, from its similitary thinks Bishop Thirlwall to Alexandron-phagos 'devourer of Alexander.' Ladak, pp. 118, 352.

^{&#}x27;Satgarha is situated 13 miles east of Gugaira on one of the projecting points of the high bank which marks the limits of the windings of the Ravi on the east. The name means 'seven castles' but these no longer exist. There is an old brick fort and several isolated mounds which mark the site of an ancient city. Cunningham, p. 212.

(5.) The Bihat (Jhelum), anciently called Bidasta,1 has its rise in a lake in the parganah of Ver in Kashmir, flows through Srinagar and enters Hindustan. Bherah lies on its (left) bank.

(6.) The source of the Sindh (Indus) is placed by some between Kashmir and Kāshghar, while others locate it in China. It flows along the borders of the Sawad territory by

Atak Benares² and Chauparah into Baluchistan.

His Majesty has given the name of Beth Jalandhar to the valley between the Biah and the Satlaj; of Bari, to that between the Biah and the Ravi; of Rechna to that between between the Ravi and the Chenab; of Jenhat's to the valley of the Chenāb and the Bihat, and Sindh Sagar to that of the Bihat and Sindh. The distance

between	the	Satlaj ar	d the	Biāh	is	50	kos.
,,,	2,3	Biāh	"	Rāvi	,,	17	
3.1	,,	Rāvi	"	Chenāb		30	
"		Chenāb	"	Bihat	,,	20	33
,,	**	Bihat	,,	Sindh	,,	68	9.2

This province is populous, its climate healthy and its agricultural fertility rarely equalled. The irrigation is chiefly from wells. The winter though not as rigorous as in Persia and Turkestan, is more severe than in any other part of India. Through the encouragement given by His Majesty, the choicest productions of Turkestan, Persia and Hindustan are to be found here. Musk-melons are to be

Under list of Sarkdrs Chenhat, more commonly known as the Jech or Jechnā Doāb

Bidasta and Bihat are corruptions of Sansk. Vilusta, the Hydaspes of Horace, and the more correct Bidaspes of Ptolemy. The pool of Vira Nag was walled round by Jahangir, but the true source of the river is more to the S.-W. in N. lat. 33° 30′ and E. long. 75° 25′. Bherah is in the Shahpur dist. lat. 32° 29′ N., long. 72° 57′ R. The ruins of the original city known as Jobnathnagar are identified by Genl. Cunningham with the capital of Scansifest contemporary of Alexander the Greece.

Sopheites, contemporary of Alexander the Greeat.

It is so called by the Muhammadan historians in contradistinction to "It is so called by the Munammadan instorians in contradistinction to Katak Benares in Orissa at the opposite extremity of the empire. I. G. On his return from Kabul, on the 14th Safar 989 A.H. (20th March 1581), Akbar crossed the Indus at Attock and ordered the building of the fort, of morfar and stone in order to control that part of the country and called it Atak which significe in the vernacular 'hindrance' or 'prohibition', it being forbidden to the Hindus to cross the Indus. Ferishta. The Swat territory is here meant, the river of that name, the Swattos of the Greeks (Sansk. Savastu) rising on the east slopes of the mountains which divide Panishova from the rising on the east slopes of the mountains which divide Panjakora from the Swat country, receives the drainage of the Swat valley and entering the Peshawar dist, north of Michni, joins the Kābul river at Nisatha. The course of the Indus has there a somewhat parallel direction.

^a Tieffentheler quotes other measurements besides these, giving the reason for the variations in the differences of route, the incapacity of travellers and the universal ignorance of geometry.

had throughout the whole year. They come first in season when the sun is in Taurus and Gemini, (April, May, June), and a later crop when he is in Cancer and Leo (June, July, August). When the season is over, they are imported from Kashmir and from Kābul, Badakhshāu and Turkestān. Snow is brought down every year from the northern moun-The horses resemble the Iraq breed and are of excellent mettle. In some parts of the country, they employ themselves in washing the soil whence gold, silver, copper, rui, zinc, brass and lead are obtained. There are skilful handicraftsmen of various kinds.

Lāhor is a large city in the Bari Doāb. In size and population it is among the first. In ancient astronomical tables it is recorded as Lokawar. Its longitude is 109° 22′, lat. 31° 50'. During the present reign the fortifications and citadel have been strengthened with brick masonry and as it was on several occasions the seat of government, many splendid buildings have been erected and delightful gardens have lent it additional beauty. It is the resort of people of all countries whose manufactures present an astonishing display and it is beyond measure remarkable in populousness and extent.

Nagarkot is a city situated on a hill: its fort is called Kāngrah. Near the town is the shrine of Mahāmāyā2 which is considered as a manifestation of the divinity. Pilgrims from distant parts visit it and obtain their desires. Strange it is that in order that their prayers may be favourably heard, they cut out their tongues: with some it grows again on the spot, with others after one or two days. Although the medical faculty allow the possibility of growth in the tongue, yet in so short a space of time it is sufficiently amazing. In the Hindu mythology, Mahamaya is said to be the wife of Mahadeva, and the learned of this creed represent by this name the energizing power of the deity. It is said that on beholding the disrespect (shown to her husband, Siva) she cut herself in pieces and her body fell in

This metal is defined at p. 41 Vol. I. as being composed of 4 sers of copper to 56 of lead, and in India called Bhangar.

The Great Illusion, or the illusory nature of worldly objects divinely personified, an epithet of the goddess Durga. The earlier name Hardwar, Mayapur, represents the ancient worship of this supreme energy and "by her, whose name is Maya", says the Bhagavats "the Lord made the universe." His temple still exists in Hardwar, and is described in Cunningham's Auct. Goog.

four places; her head and some of her limbs in the northern mountains of Kashmir near Kāmrāj, and these relics are called Shāradā; other parts fell near Bijāpur in the Deccan and are known as Tuljā Bhawāni. Such portions as reached the eastern quarter near Kāmrup are called Kāmākhyā, and the remnant that kept its place is celebrated as Jalandhari which is this particular spot.1

In the vicinity torch-like flames issue from the ground in some places, and others resemble the blaze of lamps.2

See Hugel's Travels in Kashmir, p. 42, for this phenomenon. has pilsuf, which is a lamp in the shape of a platter, three feet in height from the base, and about 6 inches diameter at the top; having in the middle a small tube with two holes through which the wick is fed by oil or grease kept in liquefaction by the flame. This shrine is the famous Jwalamukhi (month of Flame) distant two days' journey from Kangra.

Read with variation of detail the preface to the Gopatha Brāhmana published in Nos. 215-252 of the Bibl. Ind., pp. 30-35. It occurs in the 2nd Book in the germ which afterwards developed into the Puranic tale of Daksha's great sacrifice. This mind-born son of Brahmā and father of Uma or Durga assisted at a Visrasrig sacrifice celebrated by his father in which discourtesy was shown to Siva. A quarrel broke out between Daksha and Siva, resulting in the exclusion of the latter from the great sacrifice to which the whole Hindu pantheon was bid. Uma seated in her blissful mansion on the crest of the Keilse mountain saw the crowde preceding to her father? Hindu pantheon was bid. Uma seated in her blissful mansion on the crest of the Kailasa mountain, saw the crowds proceeding to her father's court to which she repaired and learning the exclusion of her husband, upbraided her father for his injustice and refused to retain the body she had inherited from him. Covering herself up with her robe, she gave up her life in a trance of meditation. The wrath of Siva incarnate in a giant form pursued the feasters and created stupendous havec. Vishnu unable to pacify Siva and knowing that his fury was kindled by the sight of his dead wife, cut the body to pieces bit by bit with his discus and threw it about the earth and thus calmed the irrete and oblivious deity who thereupon restored the killed and wounded the irate and oblivious deity who thereupon restored the killed and wounded to life and soundness. Daksha's head having been burnt in the melee, it was replaced by that of a goat which happened to be at hand, apparently without remonstrance from the reanimated demigod or even his consciousness of the substitution. The Tantra Chuddmani is able fortunately to detail the portions of the body and to identify the places where they fell. As these are said to be still held in high veneration. I record them for the instruction of the

be still held in high veneration, I record them for the instruction of the curious or the devout.

1. The crown of the head at Hingulä (Hinglaj). 2. The three eyes at Sarkarāra. 3. The nose at Sugandhā. 4 The top of the neck at Kāsmira. 5. The tongue at Jwālamukhi. 6. Right breast at Jālandhara. 7. Heart at Vaidyanātha. 8. Knees at Nepāla. 9. Right hand at Mānasa. 10 Navel at Ukala. 11. Right cheek at Gondaki. 12. Left arm at Vahulā. 13. Elbow at Ujjayani. 14 Right arm at Chāttola, Chandrasekhara. 15. Right foot at Tripurā. 16. Left foot at Trisrota. 17. Yoni at Kāmagiri (Kāmākhyā). 18. Right oreat toe at Yugādvā. 19. Other right toes at Kālipitha (Kalighāt). 18. Right great toe at Yugādyā. 19. Other right toes at Kālipitha (Kalighāt).
20. Fingers at Prayāga. 21. Thighs at Jayanti. 22. Rarrings at Vārānesi.
23. Back of the trunk at Kamyāsrama. 24. Right ankle at Kurukshetra.
25. Wrists at Manivedaka. 26. Back of the neck at Srisaila. 27. Backbone at 25. Wrists at Manivedaka. 26. Back of the neck at Srisaila. 27. Backbone at Känchi. 28. One hip at Kälamädhara. 29. Other hip at Narmadä. 30. Left breast at Rämagiri. 31. Hairs of the head at Vrindävana. 32. Upper row of teeth ac Suchi. 33. Lower ditto at Panchasägara. 34. Left talpa (shoulder blade) at Karatoyä. 35. Right ditto at Sripärvatta. 36. Left ankle at Vibhäsha. 37. Belly at Prabäsha. 38. Upper lip at Bhairavaparvata. 39. Chin at Jalasthala. 40. Left cheek at Godavari. 41. Right shoulder at Ratnävali. 42. Left shoulder at Mithila. 43. Legbone at Naläpäti. 44. Bars at Karmäta. 45. Mind(?) at Vakresvara. 46. Palm at Jasora. 47. Lower lip at Attahasa. 48. Necklace at Nandipura. 49. Anklets at Lankä. 50. Toes of left foot at Viräta. 51. Right lex at Magadha. leg at Magadha.

There is a concourse of pilgrims and various things are cast into the flames with the expectation of obtaining temporal blessings. Over them a domed temple has been erected and an astonishing crowd assembles therein. The vulgar impute to miraculous agency what is simply the effect of a mine of brimstone.

In the middle of Sindh Sagar near Shamsabad is the cell of Balnath Jogi which they call Tilah Balnath. Devotees of Hindustan regard it with veneration and Jogis especially make pilgrimage to it. Rock-salt is found in this neighhood. There is a mountain 20 kos in length from which they excavate it, and some of the workmen carry it out. Of what is obtained, three-fourths is the share of those that excavate and one-fourth is allotted to the carriers. chants purchase it at from half to two dams a man and transport it to distant countries. The landowner takes 10 dams for every carrier and the merchant pays a duty of one rupee for every 17 man to the state. From this salt artificers make dishes, dish-covers, plates and lamp-stands.

The five Doābs of this province are subdivided into 234 parganahs. The measured land is one kror, 61 lakhs, 55,643 Bighas, and 3 Biswas. The gross revenue is 55 krors, 94 lakhs, 58,423 dams. (Rs. 1,39,86,460-9-2). Of this 98 lakhs, 65,594 dams (Rs. 246,639-13-7) are Suyurghāl. The local force consists of 54,480 Cavalry and 426,086 Infantry.

For traditions regarding the four pithas and the number of the pithas, vide the Sakta Pithas by Dr. D. C. Sarkar in the J.R.A.S.B., Vol. XIV. 1948, pp. 11-15, 17-31. According to Dr. Sarkar, the Hevafra Tantra of the Buddhists contains the earliest tradition about the Four Pithas which are:—(1) Jalandhara, (2) Odiyāna (Uddiyan in the Swat valley), (3) Purnagiri and (4) Kāmrupa. The same is echoed in the Kālikā Puvāna which mentions Odrā in the place of Uddiyāna. This corresponds, barring Uddiyana, to Abal Fazl's enumeration of the pithas.

'General Cunningham (Ancient Geog. of India, p. 164) says that the Tila range, 30 miles in length, occupies the west bank of the Bunhar river, 12 miles north of Jalālpur. The full name is Goraknāth ka Tila, the more ancient, Bālnath ka Tila, both derived from the temple on the summit dedicated to the san as Bālnath, but now devoted to the worship of Goraknath.

cated to the sun as Balnath, but now devoted to the worship of Goraknath, a form of Siva.

Sarkar of the Bet Jalandhar Doab.

Containing 60 Mahals, 3,279,302 Bighas, 17 Biswas. Revenue 124,365,212 Dāms in money. Suyurghāl 2,651,788 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 4,155. Infantry 79,436.

Islimābād	Bighas Biswas.	Revenue D	Sayarghāl	£,	Ŋ.	Castes.
			Sayı	Cavalry	Infantry	Casics.
		458,122		15	200	Afghān,
	2,735 57,866	8,601,678	80,607	30	400	Nāru,
Pati Dhuniat Bhungā	51,089-18	2,760,530	10.232	20	300	Do. (var.
Bitunga	01,000		10,200			Barar).
Bajwāra ····	12,363	2,425,818	689	80	200	Khori Wāhah
		4 005 000		70	1000	Dhāhwāl.
Bhalon, has a stone fort	32,761	1,305,006 668,000	***	,,,	,000	
Barwa	13,611	200,000	***	•••	•••	
Pālakwā Bachheru	4,592 4.215	160,000	•••	000	***	
Besäli and Khattan, 2	4.210	000,000	***			
Mahals	11,405	566,366		•••	•••	
Talwan	201,450	6,780,337	804,889	70	700	Main.
Tatărpur, has a stone		477 000				
fort	3,458	170,388		***	•••	
Jālandhar, has a brick	4-4 000	14,751,626		100	1000	Afghāu.
	474,308		773,167	50	1000	Lodhi, and Lohani, and Ranghar tribes. Afghan.
Chaurāsi	96,330	5,463,913 2,474,854	255,516	50	300	Bhatti.
Jeora Jason Bālākoti, has a	48,124	2,2/7,002	28,527	-		
stone fort	15,054	600,000	•••	500	3000	Jaswäl, called also Bikaner.
Chanor	}	313,000		100	2000	Sombansi.
Hājipur Sāriyāna	59.255	2,693,874				
Dādrak [Dārdak]	497,202-11	9,707,993	92.153	150	4000	Khori Wāhah.
Dasuya, has a brick fort	157.962	4.474,950	67,249		1	Khokhar.
Dadiai, has a stone fort	84,150	1,650,000	07,240	300	4005	Sasahwäl.
Dādah, Do	30,218	1,200,000				
Darparah	26,444	900,000				0
Dardhi	15,054	600,000		100	1000	Sombansi.
Dunnägor	11,490	455,870	•••	•••	•••	
Dhankali	1,880	72,000		:::		Khori
Kanimabad	8,790	2,480,669	13,613	80	200	Withe.

JALANDHAR DOAB MAHALS

Sarkär of Bet Jälandhar Doāb—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Rajpurpatan, has a stone						
fort		1,800,000		•••		701 44 !**
Sultanpur, has a brick fort	101,865	4,020,282			1000	Bhatti, Khori
Sänkarbanot	59,952	2,533,225	16,486	50	500	Wāhah.
Suket Mandi, has copper						Sombansi.
and iron mines	42,150	1,680,000	3		8000	Sasahwāl.
opar	24,588	1,000,000		***	2000 2000	Do.
siba, has a stone fort	8,114-18	800,000		ZUU		<i>D</i> 0.
Sorān	218,333	4 700 604	52,639	150	2000	Bhatti.
haikhpur	97,173	4,722,604				Dimeer.
Shergarh	3,640	194,294 346,667		•••	***	•••
sapur	116.286	5.546.661		30	400	Jat.
Kothi	58.083	2,670,087	1		200	Jat.
Garh Diwāla Kotla	42.152	1,680,000			4000	Jasrotiah.
Kotla Kotlehar, has a stone fort	82,932-16				3000	Kotlahariah.
Kharakdhār	42,048-12					***
Kheunkherā, has a stone	42,000	10,000			der	
fort	6.021-16	240,000		Na	kroh .	Jaswāl.
Gangot, has a stone fort	6.021-16		1		1	Do.
Khera	6.021-16			20	4000	Surajbensi.
Ghawasan (var. and G.			i	İ		
Ghawāa)	14,742-14	586,906				***
Loidheri	15,959-8	536,414	17,810			***
Lālsingi	5,937	298,850			***	
Miāni Nuria	68,229	21,061,56		1 -		Bhatti.
Melsi	54,653-17	1,823,556			3000	Ranghar, Jat
Muhanımadpur	38,231	1,802,550	10,553	100	1000	Ranghar, Main.
Mānsawāl	6.068	286.66		1		
Malot	0.410	4,606,620),			***
Mandhota [Mamdot]	1 40 000	426,86	7		***	
Nakodar	50 50T	8,710,75		2	1000	Main.
Naugal	4	287,27	0,			
Nakrota		1,300,06			5000	
Nonangei		2,315,36			300	
Nandon	138,439	5,300,00	D	10	1500	Nagarkotiah
Harhana [Hariana] with				١.		277
Akbarābād, 2 Mahais		6,032,03	49,660	4		Nāru.
Hadiahad	17,126	519,46	7, 2,067			•••

Sarkār of the Bāri Doāb.

Containing 52 Mahals. 4,580,002 Bighas, 18 Biswas. Revenue 142,808,183 Dāms revenue in cash from crops charged at special rates and from land paying the general bigah rate. Suyurghāl, 3,923,922 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 31,055. Infantry, 129,300.

Cavary, 6	.,			· · ·	,			
			Bigha Biswa	s Revenu s D.	Suyu ghá D	山占	Infantry	Castes
Anchhara				500,00	00	5	0 50	Khokhar.
Andora			. 20,78	1,193,7	39 7,62	24		***
Abhipur	***			168,00				***
[Idar [Utar]	***			9,60				•••
Lahore city B		••		2,912,60		500		1
Phulwāri	***	••	-10		4 148,95		-,	0
Phulrā					38 13,26		-,	
Panchgrāmi (Pa Bharli			. 60,00	7, 1,461,65	78,17	7 1	5 1000	Khokhar.
Bharlt Bhilwäl		• • •	. 17,86	7, 4,060,50	7 209,78	9	***	1
Pati Haibatpur	***	• •	. 62,87	5, 3,181,69	9 225,40			
Batāla	***	•••	. 1,576,63	3 28,395,38	0 284,64	7 700	10,000	Jat.
Pathan [-kot]	han - h	الماء الماء	015,47	9 16,820,96	8 256,85	3 200	5000	Bhatti, Jat.
		TICE						
Denist		***			5 97,01		,	Brahman,
Dist.	***			, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	0 276,09			
Bahādurpur	***	***				6 200	2000	Bhatti.
Talwara	***	***	,,,,,,,,					m 4 4 22
Thandot	***			1				
Chandrau	***	0.01						
Charbagh Barhi	•••		.,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		8	j 2 0	100	Jat, Sindhu.
Chamiāri						1		***
Jalalabad			250,614		0 309,090	200	2000	Khokhar.
A TO TO TOTAL	***	000	152,058	5,163,118	20,456	300	4000	
Chhat and At	mbālah,							Bhatti.
Mahals	-	2	I		1	1		
	***	040	•••	2,300,000		50	500	
atgarh			1					bansi,
Chanpur	***	***	***	45,600				440
Dābha wāla	***	***		280,038		30	600	Khokhar,
	7	***	121,495	6,282,139	57,674	100	3000	Jat.
) A series	Jarput)	***	***	1,600,000		60	1300	***
AGT MA	***		•••	240,000		50	500	Rajput, Som-
arwa, Digar			!		1	1		bansi.
ankina Arwal	***	•••	1000	24,000		ا ا	1	•••
indhuwan	***	***	10,874	544,145	91,418		100	Arwal,
shore suburbs	***	***	268,402	6,854,649	12,700	200		Jat Sindhu.
hāhone	***	900	11,401	674,053	202.300	. 1		***
herme	***	•••	42,399	2,382,235	126,720			***
hurbeteleen		***	- ::-	480,000		499		***
Acur	•••	•••	7,391-13	411,985	63,103	20	100	Jat Sindhu.
alānne	***	***	259,456	3,915,506	23.124			Bhatti.
unhewen	•••	•••	286,052	8,329,111	447.639	150		Jat. Bakkāl.
	•••	***	63,608	3,511,499	127,665	50		Khokhar.
hokhowāl		- 1					550	Bakhās.
oler			75,194	3,475,510	3.510	20	500	
,,	***	••• [66,239	2,643,000		-		
		Į			3,000	•••	5000	
oler "				2,643,000	3,510	100		Jat. Rājput Sor bansi.

Sarkar of Bari Doab-Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Kāngra, has a stone fort Kotla Karkārāon Malik Shāh	28,684-9	2,400,000 182,518 16,000 1,475,562		•••	29,000 100	
Mau and Nabā [=Omba], 2 Mahals		2,400,000 24,000	***	300	•••	Rājput.
Mahror Hoshiār Karnāla	22,225	489,372		20	400	Jat.
Pālam, These four par-		2,600	•••			
Pattyat, L ganake ore now	•••	***		• • • •		•••
Briatti, Shouldward	•••	•••	***	***	•••	***
Jarjiya) abandoned.	•••	•••	***	•••	•••	•••

Sarkār of the Rechnāu Doāb.

Containing 57 Mahals. 4,253,148 Bighas, 3 Biswas. Revenue, 172,047,691 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 2,684,134 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 6,795. Infantry, 99,652.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Sayur- ghải D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Amrāki Bhatti Lands of Bāgh Rae Bocha	70,752-8 2,683	1,942,606 52,837	8,678	50	1000	Bhatti.
Eminābād, has a brick fort	515,675-4		498,480		5000	Khokhar, Chimah &c.
Panchnagar	31,741.	1,181,266	27,879	50		Jat.
Parsaror	509,858-4	27,978,583	486,551	200	4000	Jat, Bājoh
				1		Telah &c.
Badubhandāl	23,752-18		46,979	1	***	
Pati Zafarwāl, has a fort	6,108,148		150,865	50,		Jat, Bholron.
Pati Tarmali	29,056	525,953		20		Kolrā.
Bhalot	20,312-10			100	2000	
Bhadran, situate on a kill		240,000		50	4000	Do.
Balawarah	6.021-6	240,000	•••	50	3000	
Bhutiyāi	2,407,18			30	1000	
Ban	1,346-19			100	2000	
Tārai	38,669-8	2,144,945	8,400	30	300	
Talwandi	95,898-17	1,578,207 8,878,891	3,792	100		Chimah
Chima Chata	96,698	0,010,001	26,439	50	1000	Chatah.
Chandanwarak, (var.		4 100 010			100	Tot Week
darak)	81,426-6	4,128,313	30,571			Jat, Warak.
Chhotādiar	22,858-5	1,391,692	01.100	•••	•••	•••
Jabadhadi	12,474	816,587	31,135		5000	Tet Tehnber
Chiniwot, has a brick fort	154,154	2,806,369	190,052	300	ânna	Jat Jabuhar.

Sarkar of Rechnau Daab-Contd.

Sarrar	oj Keci	mun D				~
	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Jammu, situate at the foot of a hill, and a stone fort						
above it*	19,329-11 150,430	3,956,000	***	400		Manhās. Malanhās.
in another	430-19	1,150,000	***			***
Chari Champā [Chamba] Hāfizābād	6,021-6 169,499	240,000 4,548,000	48,000	100 150		Gwäleri. Jat Balhan (Bhalar).
The lands of Khanpur	4,779-10	27,028 415,050	***		•••	•••
Daulatpur Daud Bhandal Barhi	23,142	1,725,089			***	***
Daulatābād	14,368	241,740	•••	10		Jat Salah, (var. Sad).
Rupnagar	6,705	410,513		•••	•••	Dath
Rinhā	58,850-8 130,207	275,550		700	7000	Brāhman, Bāghbān.
Rechnä Sähumali	152,391	8,680,742 5,574,764	18,353	40		***
Sidhpur	108,923	3,127,212			1	Jat, Marāli.
Siālkot, is situate on the edge of a ridge on the banks of the Aik terrent, has a brick fort		22,090,792			7000	Jat, Ghaman
Sahajrão	5,627-7	362,326	4,808	100	1000	Chimah.
Sohdra, on the Chenāb, has a high brick minaret	121,721-1	7.096,710	99,731	100	1000	Do.
Shānzdah Hinjrāo	64,140	1,536,480		50	1000	Jat, Hinjrāo.
Shou [-kot?]	107,347	2,278,940	5,061		5000	Jat, Langāh, Sanāwal (Sahāwal).
Fattu Bhandal Barhi	7,826-7 2,115-7	618,917	5,842	'	•••	
Gobindwäl	55,069	136,528 1,253,957	194.622	50	300	Orak and Jat.
Kāthohā	128,598-12	5,888,254	•••		10,000	Kāmwāl (var. Kāhwāl).
Gujrān Barhi Kālāpind	2,631-14 2,801-19	670,936			•••	1
Kārnari, commonly called	2,001-19	208,984	21,702	***	•••	
Sāniā Kharli Tarli	27,665-4	1,500,000		100	300	
Lakhnor	17,169-1	7 68,000 681,818		***	•••	
Mangtanwāla	181,583	8,819,690	57,788	50	300	Jat.
Muhammad Bari Dukrāo Mahror	16,561-6	1,127,903	3,367		***	Jat.
Mengri	102,586-4 62,298	3,005,602 1,475,225	6,802 5,748			Brāhman. Silhariyā and Gujar.
Mankot, includes 4 towns						Jujai.
each with a stone fort	1,312	85,119		30		Manhās.
Haminagar	140,234 141,063	371,553			1000	Jārak Silhar.
Hantiyal (var. Hatiyal)	6,201-6	8,301,082 240,000		30 30	1000 200	Jat. Hatiyālah.
A 494	<u></u>					

^{*}The town and palace stand on the south bank of the river Tāvi a tributary of the Chenab; the fort overhangs the left or east shore at an elevation of 150 feet above the stream, I. G.

Chenhat (Jech) Doāb.

Containing 21 Mahals, 2,633,210 Bighas, 5 Biswas. Revenue 64,502, 394 Dāms. Suyurghāl 511,070 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 3,730. Infantry, 44,200.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Andarhal Akhandor Ambäran	31,070 9,866-5	485,418 36 2, 000		300	2000	Gakkhar (see Vol. I. 546). Manhäs,
Bhera, on the banks of the Bhimbar ¹ Bahlolpur, on the banks of	912,107-7	19,910,000	53,560	700	10,000	
the river Chenab	170, 607 8,748	3,830,575 400,080		100 50		Jat.
Bhimbar, situated on the banks of the stream Bhadu	28, 66 8 4,717	1,200,000 192,000		 30	1200	Jat, Bhandwal
Ruhati Sāilā and Dudiyāl, 2 Mahals	2,874 27,421	57,222 735,741	•••	10 200	100 800	Mangharwal. Khokhar.
Shorpur Shakarpur	169,874 7.684	3,121,546 1,050,819			1000	Jat, Khokar, Jander.
Gujrāt Kariyāli	285,094 57.818	8,266,150 2,643,270	•••	120		
Khokhar, has a brick fort Ghari, on the river Bihat		2,320,594 1,505,241			1000	Khokar. Do.
Lolor, separated from Khushāb	192,253	3,746,166	11,290	200	2000	Khokhar and
Mangli Malot Rãe Kedāri, situ-	2,839	432,000	•••	400	2000	Manhās.
ate on a hill	17,007 247,878	370,549 9,150,828		40 300	3000	Mangharwāl. Tat, Barwānji
Hazāra, has a brick fort		4,689,136	219,536	700	3000	Jat, Khokar Bāranij?

Bherah is on the left bank of the Jhelum. The Bhimbar torrent rising in the second Himalayan range, flows within 4 miles N. W. of Gujrāt and eventually joins the Jalālia nālā a branch of the Chenab. I. G.

Sindh Sagar Doab.

Containing 42 Mahals, 1,409,929 Bighas. Revenue, 51,912,201 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 4,680 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 8,553. Infantry, 69,700.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Akbarābād Tarkheri Atak Benares (Attock)	204,381 5,418	5,491,788 3,202,216	886 P*8	2000 1000		Gakkhar. Khatar, called also Salāsah.
Awan, here are horses of good breed	10,096	415,970	•••	50	500	Awān. (See Vol. I, 456, n. and I.G. under Hazāra).
Paharhāla, has a stone fort,						
below the fort runs the river Sowāri (=Sohān) Bel Ghāzi Khān	192,247 17,426	5,158,109 320,000	•••	100	1500	Jānohah (Janjuah).
Bālā Khattar	5,825	1,000,040	l	20	100	Khattar.
Paru Khattar	1,195	48,000	***			
Balokidhan Tharchak Dāini Suburban dist. of Rohtas,* has a stone fort, beneath which flows the	7,679 6,082	1,316,801 250,575		100		Gakkhar. Do.
Kuhān stream Khushāb, situate near the river Bihat (Jhelum) the	120,884	60,403,140	67,052	500	3000	Gakkhar. Bagiyāl.
greater part is jungle	73,096	2,702,509		500	7000	Afghān Niyazi aud
Dān Gari [D. Gali] Dhānkot [Dinkot], on the banks of the river Mih-	147,647	3,301,201	•••	1500	10,000	Isā Khel. Gakhhar,
ran, viz., Indus. has a salt mine	8,927	480,000	•••	150	4000	Awān.

^{*} The fort built by Sher Shāh as a check on the Gakkhar tribes, now in picturesque ruin. It is situated in the Salt Range on a gorge overlooking the Kuhān Nadi 11 miles north-west of Jhelum town. The walls extend for three miles and encircle the rocks which command the entrance of the pass. Some parts have a thickness of from 30 to 40 feet. One gateway still remains in excellent preservation. I. G.

Sindh Sagar Doab—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavelry	Infantry	Castes
Darband, (here two un- intelligible words)		3,100,000 in money		20	500	Janohāh (Janjuah).
Dhrāb	2,380	96,000		20	150	
Dudwat	2,830	96,000		20	300	
Reshān	1.196	92,496		10		Awan.
Shamsābād	24,664	7,034,508		50	500	
Patālā Patehpur Kālauri (var. Ka-	11,146	624,000		100	1500	Jānohah.
nauri and T.)	157.042	4.261.881		500	10.000	Gakkhar.
Kalbhalak Cheb (var. Khet, Khes,	40,913	2,883,258	18,176	30	200	Baloch.
Khep)	16,961	934.161		300	1200	Khattar (sic).
Khār Darwazah	4.316	24.541		50	300	Jānohah.
Girjhāk¹ Kachākot, one kos distant from this parganak is	21,491	961,755	•••	100	1500	Do.
the spring of Hasan Abdāl ^a	5,825	340,000	•••	50	2000	Rāwalah, Tarin, Afghān.
Kāhwān, has a stone fort	4.660	192,000	i	.10	200	Jānohah.
Kambat	2,330	96,000	1			
Langshtiyār (var. G. Siyār) Mākhiāl, has a stone fort on a hill—there is scar-	2,890	96,000		10	100	
city of water—has a salt mine and a shrine	9,320	834,000		100	1500	Jānohah.

Said by Cunningham, (Anct. Geog., p. 163 and pronounced Girjhak) to be the Hindu name for Jatālpur, the probable site of the famous city of Bukephala built in memory of Alexander's horse.

This well-known village lies on the road between Rawal Pindi and Peshawar which with its ruins, says the I. G., forms part of a group of ancient cities lying round the site of the ancient Taxila. Hwen Thsang the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th Century A.D. visited the tank of the Serpent King, Blapatra, identified with the spring of Bābā Wali (Kandahāri) or Panja Sāhib. The fountain is hallowed by legends of Buddhist, Brahman, Moslem and Sikh. The shrine of Panja Sāhib crowns a precipitous hill about Moslem and Sikh. The shrine of Panja Sāhib crowns a precipitous hill about one mile east of the town, and at its foot is the holy tank, a small square reservoir, full of fish. Delapidated brick temples surround the edge and on the west side the water gushes out from beneath a rock made with the representation of a hand, ascribed by the Sikhs to their founder Bābā Nānak. The scenery is extremely picturesque; the river Haroh hard by affords excellent fishing, and on its near shore two succent cypresses are the only epitaph above the tomb of one of Akbar's wives. For Kachakot, see Cunningham, Auct. Geog., p. 116.

Sindh Sāgar Doāb—Contd.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyuı ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Marāli, at the foot of a mountain Malot, has a stone fort on	5,825	240,000		15		
a hill	3,236	133,233	•••	10	200	Janohalı.
Nandanpur, has a brick fort on a hill Nilāb (Indus) land in-	40,997	24,110	4,110	20	150	Do.
cluded under (Attock) Benares	8,787	481,305	•••		der	
Nārwi, on the Sind	997	38,091			oarā- ād	Gakkhar.
Nokosiral Khattar	926	38,096		10	50	Khattar.
Hazāra Qarlug	214,992	1,805,342	5,342	100	500	Dālāzāk
Haliyar Lang	7,281	800,000	•••	•••	•••	Afghān. Bhakar bar- khatri (with illegible variants).
Hazāra Gujrān	6,575	280,896	***	un Akb	der arā-	
Himmet Khan Karmun	165	48,000		bā D	d o.	Gakkhar,

Beyond the Five rivers (Birun i Panjnad).*

				Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Belot Sahlor	***			***	322,740 1,700,000	•••	100	10,000	Baloch. Chandel and
Kahlor,	(Punjāb	Hill	State)	** -	1,800,000		50	1000	others.

The valley of the Jhelum takes the name of Trimāb (Three rivers) after its junction with the Chenāb and the Rāvi and that of Panjnad (Five rivers) after receiving the united waters of the Beäs and Sutlej. I. G. This restricted signification cannot here apply. Certain outlying portions beyond the limits of the Punjāb Proper were evidently attached to the Subahs of Lahor and Maltān and to the sarkar of Dipalpur and were denominated—Birum i Panjnad.

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SUBAH OF MULTAN

It is situated in the first, second and third climates simultaneously. Before Tattah was comprised in this province, its length from Firozpur and Sewistān, was 403 kos and its breadth from Khatpur' to Jaisalmir, 108 kos, but since its inclusion, it measures to Kach (Gandāvā) and Mekran, 660 kos. On the east, it marches with the Sarkar of Sirhind; on the north with Shor; on the south, with the Subah of Ajmer, and on the west, with Khach and Mekran. 660 kos. On the east, it marches with the Sarkar of Sirhind; on the north with Shor; on the south, with the Subah of Ajmer, and on the west, with Khach and Mekran. For facility of reference, the two territories are separately described. Its principal rivers are the six already mentioned. The Bihat (Jhelum) joins the Chenāb near the parganah of Shor and after a course of 27 kos, they unite with the Ravi at Zafarpur and the three flowing collectively in one stream for 60 kos, enter the Indus near U'ch. Within 12 kos of Firozpur, the Biāh joins the Sutlej which then bears several names, viz., Har, Hari, Dand, Nurni, and in the neigh-

'Khatpur is placed by Abul Fazl in the Rachna Doab and by Tieffen-

thaler as the first stage in a journey from Lahor to Multan.

^{*}The text diffidently forms two names of these four; viz.. Harhari, Dandnurni, but the authority of the two best MSS. (relegated to the notes) divides them. One at least of these names, Dand, still lives in the local designation of a former bank of the Sutlej, whose shifting course has modified the aspect of the country. One arcient bed, forming the base of the segment where the Sutlej after its junction with the Beas curves round to the south-west is called the Sukhar Nai (l. G.) which crosses the district east to west and joins the modern channel near the horders of Sirsa. The Danda bank points to a still more ancient course crossing the south-west corner 35 miles east of the present stream, traceable as far as Moodkee and thence at intervals to the Sutlej 15 miles farther north. The old beds of the Rāvi and Beās which formerly united their waters much lower down, at present may be traced through a great part of the Bāri Doāb. (I. G.) See the ancient courses of these rivers in Cunningham's Ancient Geography of India, p. 220, et seq. these rivers in Cunningham's Ancient Geography of India, p. 220, et seq. General Cunningham bases his discussion on Gladwin's translation, viz., 'l'or the distance of 17 kos from Peerozpoor, the rivers Beyah and Seteluj unite: and then again as they pass along, divide into 4 streams, viz., the Hur, Haray, Dund and the Noorny: and near the city of Multan these 4 branches join again," and says that these beds still exist but their names are lost. Now Abul Fazl does not say that the Sutlej divides into 4 streams, but that it lears several names. Abul Fazl is describing the rivers watering the Multan Subah. He says they are the six previously mentioned, vis., under Lahor. He first speaks of the Jhelum and the Chenab and follows them to their junction with the Ravi and then to their meeting with the Indus. Here are four. He now turns to the Beas and Sutlej which join near Pirozpur and the stream after bearing several names becomes confluent with "those four" near Multan, not, I consider, with the four local

bourhood of Multan, confluent with the former four, their accumulated waters unite. Every river that discharges itself into the Indus takes its name of Sindh. In Tattah, they call it Mihran.1

To the north are the mountains. Its climate is similar to that of Lahor which it resembles in many aspects, but in

Multan, the rainfall is less and the heat excessive.

Multan is one of the oldest cities of India: Long. 107° 35'; Lat. 29° 52'. It has a brick fort and a lofty minaret adds to its beauty. Shaikh Bahā-u'ddin Zakariyā and many other saints here repose.

Bhakkar (Bhukkur) is a notable fortress; in ancient chronicles it is called Mansura.2 The six rivers united roll beneath it, one channel passing the southern face of the fort, the other the northern. The rainfall is inconsiderable, the fruits excellent.

Between Siwi3 and Bhakkar is a vast desert, over which for three months of the hot season the simoom blows.

See its course and the names of its ¹ The main stream of the Indus. channels in Cunningham's Ancient Geography of India, pp. 252, 272, 286,

Siwi, Sewistan, and Sehwan are constantly confounded or mistaken as Billiot remarks without, however, himself determining the position of the first which is a town or the geographical limits of the second which is a province. Siwi is somewhat south of the direct line between Dera Ghazi Khan and Quetta, now well known as Sibi. Vol. I, p. 362, Sewe.

names, even were they separate beds, but with the four that complete the six. The doubt arises why he should place the junction near Multān instead of Uch, but this is not surprising to any one accustomed to his obscure and vague style of narrative. Moreover the passage in the text resembles a notice of these six rivers in Baber's Memoirs' to which Abul Fazl was much indebted in the preparation of third book of the Ain. The passage is as follows: I use the translation of Erskine. "To the north of Schrend, six gives the Sind the Babat the Chanab the Davi the Rizh and the Satlai rivers, the Sind, the Behat, the Chenāb, the Rāvi, the Biāh, and the Setlej, take their rise in these mountains, and all uniting with the Sind in the territory of Multān, take the common name of Sind, which flowing down to the west, passes through the country of Tatta, and disembogues into the sea of Oman." Further the division of the Sutlej into the four local atreams does not alter its point of innotion with the Chenāb for at 2.222 Commingham does not alter its point of junction with the Chenāb for at p. 222, Cunningham says that Abul Fazl's measurements of distances from the confluence of the Chenāb and Jhelum to that of the Chenāb and Rāvi and the Chenāb and Indus agree with the later state of these rivers.

^{298, &}amp;c. .

After the decline of the Arab power in Sind about A.D. 871, two native kingdoms raised themselves at Multan and Mansura. The former comprised the upper valley of the Indus as far as Alor; the latter extended from that town to the sea and nearly coincided with the modern province of Sind. Alor, or Aror, the capital, almost rivalled Multan and had an extensive commerce. I. G. Genl. Cunningham (Ancient Geog.) gives the name of Mansara to the town founded, according to Masaudi, by Jamhur, the Moslem governor of Sindh, and named after his own father Mansur, so close to Brahmanābād as to be regarded as the same place. His learned discussion depends too much on analogies of sound in names, to be quite convincing. See, also Mansura in Elliot's Arabs in Sind, p. 50, et seq.

The river Sind (Indus) inclines every few years alternately to its southern and northern banks and the village cultivation follows its course. For this reason the houses are constructed of wood and grass.

This Subah comprises three Sarkārs of 88 parganahs, all under assessment for crops paying special rates. The measured land is 3,273,932 bighas, 4 biswas. The gross revenue is 15 krors, 14 lakhs, 3,619 dāms. (Rs. 37,85,090-8-0), of which 30 lakhs, 59,948 dāms (Rs. 76,498-11-2), are Suyurghāl. The local militia consists of 18,785 Cavalry and 165,650 Infantry.

Sarkar of Multan. Four Doabs.

Containing 47 Mahals, 558,649 Bighas, 4 Biswas. Revenue, 53,916,318 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 5,494,236 Dāms. Cavalry, 8,965. Infantry, 90,650.

Bet Jalandhar Doāb.

Containing 9 Mahals, 52,090 Bighas. Revenue, 17,240,147 Dāms. Cavalry, 1,410. Infantry, 17,100.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Ādamwāhan Jalālābād	 5,386 5,000	369,445 299,796		30 10	700 200	Hasar. Bhim.
Dunyapur Rājpur Shergarh	 27,889 1,368 75,000	1,976,882 99,397 5,741.200		50 20 400	300	Uki, Rānu. Junah. Kachhi, Junah, Bikānah.
Fathpur Kahror Khāibuldi	 61,797 47,895 80,411	4,008,661 305,856 594,233	24,596 40,931			Malāh. Junah. Junah. Jat and an- other name
Chalu Khārah	 19,820	1,201,086		100	2000	illegible. Kalu, Jat.

Bāri Doāb.

Containing 11 Mahals, 137,629 Bighas, 13 Biswas. Revenue, 9,863,341 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 207,382 Dāms. Cavalry 775. Infantry, 14,550.

-	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Islāmpur, has a brick fort Ismailpur	23,085 900	1,550,896 49,932		1000 5	3000 50	Bhim, Moral. Maral.
Multan town, has a brick fort	2,324	1,719,168	88,980	50	1000	Bhim, Shaikh-
Tulamba	19,310	1,200,778	15,766	300	5000	Sohu.
Villages of the parganah of Chaukhandi Suburban dist, of Multan	2,927 35,925	191,054 2,288,354	37 ,46 3	4++	4*4	Bhim.
Villages of parganah of Khatpur	2,487	149,578	•••	•••		
Do. Do. Deg.* Rāvi Shāh Aālampur	897-14 24,121	50,146 1,555,563	1,180	200	4000	
Villages of parganah of Khāibuldi	7,584-J9 2,068	460,654 608,418	3,598	20	500	Jet.

^{*} The Degh (I. G.) is the chief tributary of the Rāvi, which it receives after entering Montgomery District on its north-west bank and then passes into Multan District.

Rechnäu Doab.

Containing 6 Mahals, 83,229 Bighas, 18 Biswas. Kevenue, 5,113,883 Dams. Cavalry, 770. Infantry, 9,500.

			Bighae Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyar- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Itajpur and Chaukhand, Khatpur Dalibhati Kalbah	Deg Rāvi 	•••	37,230 7,620 8,387 3,768-18 16,208	2,377,300 215,830 505,398 256,569 958,786	***	100 100 500 20 50	2000 2000 3000 500 2000	Kharal. Do. Jat, Sindh. Kharal. Jat, Sohu.

Sind Sāgar Doāb.
Containing 4 Mahals, 34,812 Bighas. Revenue, 2,178,192 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 13,399 Dāms. Cavalry, 220. Infantry, 2,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Villages of Islämpus Rangpur Rsepur Kanki Miscellaneous villages, 1 Mahal	5,775 22,907 5,550 600	378,367 1,419,737 356,068 38,030	10,797 2,662	200 20		Jar. Bhim.

Beyond the Five, Rivers. (Birun i Panjnad.) Containing 17 Mahals, 205,893 Bighās, 13 Biswas. Revenue, 18,820,255 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 38,688 Dāms. Cavalry, 5,800. Infantry, 57,600.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Ubaura Uch	11,320 29,066	91 4,25 6 1,910,140	4,684	30 100		Dhar. Shabibzadah, Bukhari, Sayyid.
Bhartiwāhan, (var. and G. Dāman)	10.000	1,336,029	13,564	200	2000	Rājput, Lodhi.
Jamsher	4,384	348,037	•••	150	2000	
Dudži, has a brick fort		2,400,000		4000	30,000	
Diwar i Awwal, (Cunning- ham. Dirawal)	0.710	140,000	•••	50	500	Rajput, Kot- wal.
Dud Khān	17,890	1,440,000				
Villages of Rajpur		29,854			•••	
Rupari		1,000,000	1		•••	
Sitpur		4,608,000			20,000	Afghān,
Seorāhi	-,	28,800		20	100	Dhar.
Villages of Patchpur		330,779		•••	••• {	
,, Kaharor		87,289	1		•••	
Majlol Ghāzipur	,	2,400,000	***	•••	••• į	
Mauh, has a brick fort.		202.000	100 440		*****	Kuraishi.
(Cunningham Moj.)	. ,	707,069				Ruraishi.
Marot, do		204,000		200		Diati.
Mahand	0,000-12	8,014,000	***	200	1000	

Of these Cunningham can identify but Uch, Dirāwal, Moj and Marot, which he places, east of the Sutlej. The limits of the province of Multān in the time of Hwen Thsang included the north half of the Bhawalpur territory in addition to the tract lying between the rivers, the north frontier extending from Derah Din Panāh on the Indus to Pāk Pattan, a distance of 150 miles; on the west, the frontier line of the Indus to Ekānpur, 160 miles; on the east from Pāk Pattan to the old bed of the Ghager, 80 miles; on the south from Khānpur to the Ghagar, 220 miles, p. 220.

Sarkar of Dipalpur.

Containing 29 Mahals, 1,433,767 Bighas, 8 Biswas. Revenue, 129,834,153 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 2,079,170 Dāms. Cavalry, 5,210. Infantry, 53,300.

Bet Jālandhar Doāb.

Containing 10 Mahals, 710,946 Bighas, 10 Biswas. Revenue, 88,908,855 Dams. Suyurghal, 1,481,564 Dams. Castes, various. Cavalry, 2,400. Infantry, 20,400.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Pattan, (Pāk Pattan) has a brick fort Dipālpur Lakhi, has a	49,014	2,628,928	599,969	100	2000	Bhil, Dhokar.
brick fort	242,344-11	13,514,059	49 9 ,535	502	7000	Jat, Kho- khar, Kasu, Bhatti.
Dhanakshāh, has a brick						
_ fort	60,67 6 -1	8,464,875	87,152	444	400	
Deotir	40,780	2,489,850	28,400			
Rahmatābād	38,285	1,825,009	***	100	2000	Baloch, Khokhar.
Qabala, has a brick fort	86,615-12	4,808,817	i i	1000	2000	
Qiyampur Lekhi, has a	00,010-12	Alonology		2000		Juneary memory,
brick fort	54.678-19	2.008,274	88.855	200	2008	Bhatti, Jat.
77 - 1 - 24-1 T - 1 4-1	55,243-3	2,385,969			1000	Do. do.
Pril 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1						
		1,011,716			1000	
Lakhi Losqavi	o1,018-10	8,156,759	5,940	100	2000	Bhatti, Khilji.

Bāri Doāb.

Containing 6 Mahals, 193,495 Bighas, 9 Biswas. Revenue, 1,175,393 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 1,100. Infantry, 14,000.

	Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Bahrapāl Babā Bhci, has a fort Chalmi Rahimābād Sadkharah [?Satgath] Mandhāli	18,717-9 39,385 25,998 24,829 59,447 25,624	1,175,393 2,020,256 1,200,600 1,182,714 3,551,680 2,708,429	 42 0.976	50 50 300	500 2000 2000 500 4000 5000	Bhatti. Sayyid, Jat. Sayyid, &c. Kharal, Baloch. Do. Bhim.

Rechnäu Doab.

Containing 7 Mahals, 142,856 Bighas, 2 Biswas. Revenue, 8,534,915 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 5,808 Dāms. Castes, various. Cavalry, 710. Infantry, 6,300.

		Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Khānpur	•••	19,599-18	1,285,740	80,380	30	500	Kharal.
Dalchi Chandhar Shahsādah Baloch	•••	9,158-12	605,557	1,620		1000	Chandhar. Baloch.
Aābidi Ābād	***	12,749-12 5,975	789,741 843,932	***	10	1000	Jat.
Paryādābād	•••	18,708	1,098,694	•	20	1000	Jat.
Kharal	***	88,782	1,907,069	2,800	800	2000	Khari.
Mahes	***	42,944	2,509,182	•••	200	500	

Beyond the Five Rivers (Birun i Panjnad).

Containing 6 Mahals, 386,470 Bighas, 7 Biswas. Revenue, 20,580,771 Dāms. Suyurghāl 549,972 Dāms. Cavalry, 1,000. Infantry, 12,300.

			Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāl D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
jal ālābā d	• •	•••	84,475-7	1,789,288	•••	50	1000	Ranghar, Bhatti (or Latti),
Jangal Aālampur	• • •	• •	18,012 31,006-10	653,516 1,579,558			4000 1000	Jat. Bharti. Ranghar, Jat.
Firozpur Villages of	 Takhi		217,710-17 29,185	11,479,404		500	3060	
Muhammad	wat			3,492,454		100	3600	Bhatti, Kho- khar.

Sarkar of Bhakkar (Bukkur).

Containing 12 Mahals, 282,013 Bighas. Revenue, 18,424,947 Dāms. Suyurghāl, 600,419 Dāms. Cavalry, 4,600. Infantry, 11,100.

			Bighas Biswas	Revenue D.	Suyur- ghāi D.	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Alor, has a for Bhakkar, has a		fort	143,700	1,132,150 74,362	20,550	200 200	500 1000	Dharejah. Mehar and Rahār.
Jāndola Jatoi	•••	•••	57,847 179,821-14	8,102,709 2,346,878	85,064 156,841		800 800	Jahna.
Darbela Sankar	•••	***	121,146 100,818	1,262,761 1,808,628	68,872 32,332	200 500	500 1000	Bhatti. Sahejah.
Siwi Fathpur	***	•••	8,050-10	1,381,930 477,859	•••		1500 1000	Saheja, Dhārejah.
Khajāna Khāra Kākan	•••		10,068 154,151	645,205 2,732,331	138,608		1000 1000	Jāman. Dhārejah.
Kākhari, (var. Mānhalah	Kākri)	•••	178,338-16 128,078	2,106,481 1,358,718	63,208 28,944	500	1000 1000	Mankrerah. Dhärejah
	***			,				(var. Häre- jah).

Kings of Multan.*

C1 '44 YZ 6 · 4		Years.
Shaikh Yusuf, reigned		2
Sultān Mahmud† (var. Muhammad Sliāh)	• • •	17
,, Qutbu'ddin, his son	• • •	16
,, Husain, his son	•••	30

^{*}This province, says the U.T., was first conquered by Mahomed Kasim at the end of the first century Hejira. It was recovered by the Hindus on the decline of the Ghazni power. After Mahomed Ghori's subjugation it remained tributary to Delhi until

A.H. A.D. 847. 1443. Shaikh Yusuf established an independent monarchy.

849 1445. Ray Sehra, or Kutbu'ddin Hosen Langa I expelled the Shaikh.

908. 1502. Mahmud Khan Langa; his minister Jam Bayezid.

931. 1524. Hosen Langa II, overcome by Shāh Hosen Arghun Under Humayun, becomes a province of the empire.

[†] This name is altogether omitted by Ferishta who describes Qutbu'ddin's intrigue and succession, in his history of Multan. The name of Qutbu'ddin was Rae Sahra and he was governor of Sewi and the adjacent territory and the head of the Afghan clau of Langah. He died in A.H. 874 (A.D. 1469), Husain Shah in 904 or 908 (1498 or 1502) and Mahmud in 931 (1524).

Sultān Firoz, his son 1 Husain, a second time. Mahmud, son of Sultan Firoz 27 Husain II, son of Sultan Mahmud ... 1 Shah Husain, (Arghun), ruler of Sind.

Mirzā Kāmrān.

Sher Khan. Salim Khān Sikandar Khān.

At one period the province was subject to the sovereigns of Delhi: at another it was under the control of the rulers of Sind, and for a time was held by the princes of Ghazni. After its conquest by Muizzu'ddin Sam (Ghori), it continued to pay tribute to Delhi. In the year A. H. 847 (A. D. 1443) when Sultan Alau'ddin reigned at Delhi, and constituted authority fell into contempt, every chief in possession of power, set up a pretension to independence. A noisy faction raised Shaikh Yusuf Quraishi, a disciple of Shaikh Bahau'ddin Zakariya, to sup emacy. He was subsequently deposed and proceeded with haste to the court of Sultan Bahlol at Delhi. The sovereignty now devolved upon one of the Langah family, who assumed the title of Sultan Mahmud Shah. It is related that this chief had given his daughter in marriage to Shaik Yusuf, and on the strength of this connection, used frequently to visit her alone, till one night by a successful intrigue he accomplished his design on the throne. During the reign of Sultan Qutbuddin, Sultan Mahmud Khilji advanced from Mālwah against Multān but returned without effecting anything. Some maintain that the first of the Langah family who was raised to the throne was Qutbu'ddin. In the reign of Sultan Husain, Bahlol sent (his son) Barbak Shah with a force to reinstate Shaikh Yusuf, but they returned unsuccessful. Sultān Husain becoming old and doting, placed his eldest son upon the throne under the title of Firoz Shah, and withdrew into retirement. His Wazir Imadu'l Mulk, poisoned him in revenge for the murder of his own son and Sultan Husain a second time resumed the sceptre and appointed Mahmud Khān, son of Sultan Firoz, his heir. On the death of Sultan Husain, after a reign of 30 or 34 years [908 A.H.], Sultan Mahmud ascended the throne. During his reign several incursions were made by the Mughals who, however, retired discomfited. Some malicious intriguers through jealousy created a misunderstanding between the Sultān and Jām Bayazid who had long held the office of prime minister, and misrepresentations cunningly made in a roundabout way, brought them into open conflict. The minister withdrew from Multān to Shor and read the khutbah in the name of Sultān Sikandar Lodi. On the death of Sultān Mahmud, his infant son was raised to the throne as Sultān Husain (II). Mirzā Shāh Husain (Arghun) marched from Tattah and took Multān and entrusted its charge to Langar Khān. Mirzā Kāmrān dispossessed him of it and after him Sher Khān, Salim Khān and Sikandar successively held it till the splendour of Humayun's equal administration filled Hindustān with its brightness and secured its peace. At the present day under the just sway of His Majesty his subjects find there an undisturbed repose.

Sarkar of Tattah.

During a long period this was an independent territory but now forms part of the imperial dominions. Its length from Bhakkar to Kach and Mekrān is 257 kos, its breadth from the town of Budin to Bandar Lāhari, 100 kos, and again from the town of Chāndo one of the dependencies of Bhakkar, to Bikaner is 60 kos. On the east lies Gujarāt: to the north Bhakkar and Sewi: 2 to the south, the ocean, and to the west Kach and Mekrān. It is situated in the second climate and lies in Longitude 102° 30' Lat. 24° 10.

The ancient capital was Brāhmanābād,² a large city. Its citadel had 1,400 towers, at an interval of a tanāb, and to this day there are many traces of its fortifications. Alorinext became the metropolis and at the present day it is Tattah, also called Debal. The mountains to the north

[&]quot;Lahari Bandar" in Cunningham's account of Sindh. (Ancient Geo-

Identified by Cunningham with Harmatelia, (a softer pronunciation of Brahmanathala) of Diodorus and placed on the east branch of the Mihrān or Indus, 47 miles north-east of Haidarābad 28 miles east of Hāla and 20 miles west of the eastern channel of the Indus known as Nāra. If gives the number of bastions as 140 on the authority of the MSS. but both Gladwia and Blochmann concur in 1,400, and there is no variant reading. His conclusion is, that the place known now as Bambhra ka thul represents the ruined city of Mansura and the neighbouring mound now called Dilura, Brahmanabād

flie roins of Alor, or more correctly Aror, are situated to the south of a gap in the low range of limestone hills stretching from Bhakar to the south for about 20 miles until it is lost in the broad belt of sand hills bounding the Năra or old bed of the Indus. On the west, Cunningham regards it as the capital of the Musicani of Curtius. He disputes the assertion of Abul Fazl that Debal and Tattah are the same. Sir H. Elliot places Debal at Karāchi. General Cunningham prefers a site between Karāchi and Tattah.

form several branches. One of them trends towards Qandahār, and another rising from the sea coast extends to the town of Kobhār, called Rāmgar, and terminates in Sewistān and is there known as Lakkhi.¹ This tract is inhabited by an important Baloch tribe called Kalmāni, [? Kirmāni] consisting of twenty thousand cavalry. A fine breed of camels is here indigenous. A third range runs from Sehwān to Sewi and is called Khattar [Kirthar], where dwells a tribe named Nohmardi that can raise a force of 300 horse and 7,000 foot. Below this tribe, there is another clan of the Baloch known as Nazhari with a force of a thousand men. A good breed of horses comes from this tract. A fourth mountain chair touches Kach (Gandāvā) on one side, and on the other the Kalmāni territory, and is called Kārah inhabited by 4,000 Balochis.

In the winter season there is no need of poshtins (furlined coats) and the summer heats are moderate except in Sewistān. Fruits are of various kinds and mangoes are especially fine. In the desert tracts, a small kind of melon grows wild. Flowers are plentiful and camels are numerous and of a good breed. The means of locomotion is by boats of which there are many kinds, large and small, to the number of 40,000. The wild ass is hunted, and game, such as, hares, the kotah pāchah² and wild boars; fishing

likewise is much pursued.

The assessment of the country is made on the system of division of crops, a third being taken from the husbandman. Here are salt-pits and iron mines. Shāli rice is abundant and of good quality. Six kos from Tattah is a mine of yellow stone, large and small slabs of which are quarried and used for building. The staple food consists of rice and fish. The latter is smoked and loaded in boats, and exported to the ports and other cities, affording a considerable profit. Fish-oil is also extracted and used in boat building. There is a kind of fish called palwah which comes up into the Indus from the sea, unrivalled for its fine and exquisite flavour. Milk-curds of excellent quality are made and keep for four months. [Palo, Bengali hilsā.]

¹ The Lakhi range is an offshoot from the Kithar which separates Sind from Beluchistän. I. G.

^{*}Literally 'short legged'. It is thus described in Babar's Memoirs, "Its size may be equal to that of the white deer. Its two fore-legs as well as its thighs are short, whence its name. Its horns are branching like those of the gawezin but less. Every year too it casts its horns like the stag. It is a bad runner and therefore never leaves the jungle." These characteristics seem to point to the bog-deer, (Cervus porchus).

Near Sehwān is a large lake, two days' journey in length called Manchur, in which artificial islands have been

made by fishermen who dwell on them.

But the greatest of all wonders is the Liver-eater (Iigar Khwār), an individual who by glances and incantations can abstract a man's liver. Some aver that under certain conditions and at certain times, he renders the person senseless upon whom he looks, and then takes from him what resembles the seed of a pomegranate, which he conceals for a time in the calf of his leg. During this interval the person whose liver is stolen remains unconscious, and when thus helpless, the other throws the seed on the fire which spreads out like a plate. Of this he partakes with his fellows and the unconscious victim dies. He can convey a knowledge of his art to whomsoever he wills, by giving him a portion of this food to eat and teaching him the incantation. If he is caught in the act and his calf be cut open and the seed extracted and given to his victim. the latter will recover. The followers of this art are mostly women.

They can convey intelligence from long distances in a brief space of time and if they be thrown into the river with a stone tied to them, they will not sink. When it is desired to deprive one of these of this power, they brand both sides of his head and his joints, fill his eyes with salt, suspend him for forty days in a subterraneous chamber, and give him food without salt, and some of them recite incantations over him. During this period he is called *Dhachrah*. Although his power then no longer exists, he is still able to recognize a Liver-eater, and these pests are captured through his detection. He can also restore people to health by incantation or administering a certain drug. Extraordinary tales are told of these people that are beyond measure astonishing.

This country is the fourth Sarkār of the Subah of Multān. From the confines of Uch to Tattah towards the north are rocky mountain ranges inhabited by various Baloch tribes, and on the south from Uch to Gujarāt are sandhills in which region are the Ahshām Bhatti and other

According to Cunningham, the early Arab geographers place a strong fort called Bhātia between Multān and Alor, which, from its position has a claim to be identified with the city built by Alexander among the Sogdi, but he mentions no tribe of the name, neither have any of the Bhatti Rajputs mentioned by Elliot any such prefix as Ahshām [=warriors]. The Sodahs have been identifiedd by Tod with the Sogdoi. Ancient Geography, pp. 253-254.

numerous clans. From Bhakkar to Nasirpur and Umarkot are the Sodah, Jarejah and other tribes. This Subah contains 5 Sarkārs subdivided into 53 parganahs. The revenue is 6,615,393 dāms.* (Rs. 165,384-13-2.)

Sarkar of Tattah.

Containing 18 Mahals. Revenue, 25,999,891 Dams.

		Revenue D.			Revenue D.
Lāhari Bandar Batorā		5,521,419 4,932,286	Sankurah³ Sirsi Jām		2,108,097 142,641
Bahrāmpur Bori		1,311,612 434,305	Karhar, (var. and kar)	K. Kar-	3,328,476
Jara [jarak]" Jārā	•••	348,462 82,390	Lekin Kherah	***	535,795 1,105,606
Darak, (var. Durg) Dankari, (var. Dekri)	•••	2,970 441 315,921	Mänjar Nizāmpur	***	1,221.752 312 724
Ratnah	•••	842,144			

^{*} This is incorrect. Adding together the revenues of the five sarkars, we get a total revenue of 6 62,51,393 dams (Rs. 16,56,284-13-2).

Var. Patora, Batwar, Banwar.

* Jarak, midway between Haidarabad and Tatta.

See Elliot, Arabs in Sind, p. 230.

Sarkar Hajkan.

Containing 11 Mahals. Revenue 11,784,586 Dams.

	Révenue D.		Revenue D.
Bāgh Fath Belah Hajkān Jann Rahbān Detached villages	 340,173 656,317 555,699 3,105,418 742,973 436,783	Karori	 529,937 1 119,973 694,269 2,352,605 1,280,439

^a Qariyāt-i-mankuri, the term muzkuri, being applied in old revenue accounts to small and scattered estates not included in the accounts of the districts in which they were situated and of which the assessments were paid direct to Government.

Sarkar of Sewistan.

9 Mahals. Revenue, 15,546,808 Dāms.

	Revenue D.		Revenue D.
Bātar, (var Pātar G. Palar) Baghbānān Batan (var. and T. Patan) Busikān (var. and G. Bustkān, T. Lusigān) Janjah	2,020,884 1,948,152 1,902,033 1,825,190 1 978,953	Khat Sub. dist. of Sewistān, has a strong fort Kāhān Lakhāwat (var. Lakiāwat)	1,329,923 1,669,732 1,640,764 1,231,776

Sarkar of Nasirpur.

7 Mahals. Revenue, 7,834,600 Dāms.

		Revenue D.				Revenue D.
l'markot Talsarah Samāwāni, (var. and Samādāni) Kidāl, (var. Kandāl)	G.	1,057,802 326,104 3,031,530 515,904	Käsär Märkandan Nasirpur	•••	***	401,738 623 936 1,878,126

Sarkār of Chakarhālah.

8 Mahals. Revenue, 5,085,408 Dāms.

			Revenue D.		Revenue D.
Arpur Chakarhālah Siyār Ghāzipur	***	*** *** ***	731,190 747,175 719,207 983,655	Tewāri (var. Lawāri) Khari Junah Burkah Manāwali Barhi	490,368

Princes of Tattah.1

1. The family of Tamim Ansari during the ascen-

dancy of the House of Umayyah.

The Sumra (Rājput) line of 36 princes, reigned 500 years, (according to Ferishta-100-their names unrecorded).

3. Of the Samma dynasty,

	Years	Months	D.
Jām Unar, reigned	3	6	0
,, Juna, his brother	4	0	0
,, Banhatiyah	15	0	0
,, Tamāchi, his brother	13 and	some mo	nths.
,, Salāhuddin	11 and	do.	
,, Nizāmuddin, his son	\dots 2 and	a fraction	a.
,, Ali Sher Tamāchi	6 and	some mo	nths.
,, Karān, son of Tamāchi	0	0	11/2
Fateh Khān, son of Sikandar	11 and	some mo	nths.
Tughlaq, his brother	28	0	0
Mubarāk, the chamberlain	0	0	3

¹ The following list is from the U. T.

 $\Lambda.H.$ A.D. Belochistan invaded by Hijaj, governor of Bassora, and Md. 705.

Qāsim. The Ausaries, the Sameras, and the Samanas or Jams, successively gain the ascendancy, then a Delhi governor (1205?) Nasir ud din Qabbacha, becomes independent, drowned.

The Jami Dynasty of Sumana, originally Rajputs.

 Λ .H. A.D. 1336. 737 Jam Afra; tributary to Togblak Shah. 740. 1339. Choban. 3.9

Bang; asserted his independence. 754. 1383.

13 **782.**

1367.

Timaji, his brother Salāhu'ddin, convert to Islām. 782. 138U 793 1391. Nizamu'ddin

., 796. 1393. Alv Sher. . .

Giran, son of Timaji. Fatteh Khan. 812. 1409 P 2

1409 812. . .

Toghlak, invaded Gujerat. 827. 1423.

854. 1450. Sikandar. 22

856. 1452 Sangar, elected. 8.4

Nanda or Nizam-u'ddin, cot of Hasan Langa. Peroz, the Turkhan family became powerful, 1320. 1460. 864. 9 1

994. 1492.

927. 1520. Shah Beg Arghun, occupies Sind.

Shah Hosem Arghun. 930. 1523. 962. 1554. Mahmud of Bhakar.

1572. Akbar annexes Sind. (Ferishta, 1001 = 1592). 982.

The title of Jam, Ferishta pronounces, is a boast of their supposed descent from Jamshid, but commonly given to their head or chief to preserve the tradition of this fabulous lineage. The lineage of the Sumra and Samma dynasties is discussed in Appendix P. of Bllict's Arabs in Sind. The latter name may be traced in the Sambastae and Sambus of Alexander's historians. Sambus occurs as Sabbas in Plutarch, Saboutas in Strabo, Ambigarus in Justin and Ambiras in Orosius.

Years Months D.

1 0 Sikandar, b. Fath Khān ...

Sanjar, commonly called Rādhan (var.

and G. Rādman ... Jām Nizāmuddin, known as Jām Nandā, 8 and some months.

(see Vol. I, p. 362) ... 60 and some months. Jām Firoz, his son.

Salāhuddin, a relation of Firoz.

Firoz, a second time.

In former times, there lived a Rājā named Siharas! whose capital was Alor. His sway extended eastwards, as far as Kashmir and towards the west to Mekran, while the sea confined it on the south and the mountains on the north. An invading army entered the country from Persia, in opposing which the Rājā lost his life. The invaders contenting themselves with devastating part of the territory, returned. Rāi Sāhi, the Rājā's son, succeeded his father, by whose enlightened wisdom and the aid of his intelligent minister Rām, justice was universally administered and the repose of the country secured. A Brahman named Jach [Chach] of an obscure station in life, attached himself to the minister's service and by flattery and address made himself of much consequence and was advanced to a post of dignity, and on the death of the minister, was chosen to succeed him. He basely and dishonourably carried on an intrigue with the Rājā's wife, which the Rājā, notwithstanding its disclosure to him by the ministers of State, refused to credit. During the Raja's illness, the wicked wretch, in collusion with this shameless paramour, sent for the generals of the army separately, on pretence of consulting them and set them apart, and by seductive promises won over the several enemies of each to accomplish their death. When they were put out of the way and the Rājā too had breathed his last, he assumed the sovereignty.

The pursuers of worldly interests attached themselves to his cause and he took the Rāni to wife, thus garnering eternal perdition, but he laboured for the prosperity and increase of his dominions and seized upon Kach (Gandāvā), and *Mekrān*

¹ (If the Rai dynasty whose capital was Alor. The Tuhfatul Kirām makes Siharas the son and successor of Rāi Diwāij, followed by Rāi Sāhasi, the first, second and third of that name. It was under the latter that Chach rose to power.

During the Caliphate of Omar (b. u'l) Khattab, Mughirah Abu'l Aas advanced by way of Bahrain to Debal, but the troops there opposed him and he was killed in the engagement. In the Caliphate of Othman an intelligent explorer was sent to ascertain the condition of Sind, and an army of invasion was under orders. The messenger, however, reported that if a large force were sent, supplies would fail, and a small one would effect nothing and he added many dissuasive representations. The Prince of the Faithful, Ali, despatched troops that occupied the borders of Debal but on hearing of the death of the Caliph they withdrew in haste to Mekran. Muawiyah twice despatched an army to Sind and on both occasions many of the troops perished.

Chach died after a prosperous reign of 40 years, and his youngest son Dahir succeeded him on the throne. In the Caliphate of Walid b. Abdul Malik, when Hajjāj was governor of Iraq, he despatched on his own authority Muhammad Qāsim his cousin and son-in-law to Sind who fought Dahir in several engagements.2 On Thursday, the 10th of Ramazān A.H. 99, (17th April 717) the Rājā was killed in action and the territory of Tattah became subject to the invaders. The two daughters of Raja Dahir, who had been made captive were sent with some valuable presents to the Caliph. In a spirit of revenge, they deceitfully represented to the Caliph that Muhammad Qasim had dishonoured them. He therefore abstained from visiting them, and in a fit of fury gave orders that Qasim should be stuffed into a raw hide and despatched to his presence. The commands of the Caliph reached him when he was about to march against Hari Chand, king of Kanauj, and he obediently submitted to them. When he was thus

Hākim, b. Jabela al Abdi was sent to explore Sejistān and Mekrān and the countries bordering on the Indus valley by Abdu'llah Amar, a consin of the Cāliph, who succeeded Abu Musa Ashari in the government of Basra. His report was as follows: "Water in that country is of a dark colour, flowing only drop by drop, the fruits are sour and unwholesome, rocks abound and the soil is brackish. The thieves are intreput warriors, and the bulk of the population dishonest and treacherous. If the troops sent there are few in population dishonest and treacherous. If the troops sent there are few in number, they will be exterminated, if they are numerous, they will perish of hunger." Blliot. The expeditions of Ali and Muāwiyah and the progress of the Arab conquests in Sind may be read in the succeeding pages. Elliot's conclusion that Debal was taken in A.H. 93 is confirmed by A3 Suyuti in his biography of Al Walid, b. Abdu'l Malik, in which year Kirah, or Kiraj as Ibn ul Athir calls it, was also captured. (See translation of As Suyuti's History of the Callphs, p. 229). Elliot thinks this probably situated in, if not named from Kachh.

carried to the court, the Caliph exhibited the spectacle to the two princesses who expressed their gratification in viewing the slayer of their father in this condition. This decision of the Caliph excites astonishment inasmuch as it was pronounced without deliberate investigation. It is the duty of just princes not to be swayed by the representation of any one individual, but to be circumspect in their inquiries, since truth is rare and falsehood prevalent, and more especially in regard to the recipients of their favour, towards whom the world burns with envy without just cause of resentment. Against the outwardly plausible and inwardly vicious they should be particularly on their guard, for many are the wicked and factious who speciously impose by their affected merit and by their misrepresentations bring ruin on the innocent.

After Muhammad Qasim's death, the sovereignty of this country devolved on the descendants of the Banu Tamim Ansari.* They were succeeded by the Sumrah race who established their rule and were followed by the Sammas who asserted their descent from Jamshid, and each of them assumed the name of Jam. In the reign of Jam Bānhatiyah¹ Sultān Firoz Shāh on three occasions led an army from Delhi against that prince, and obtained some conspicuous successes. On the third occasion, he took him prisoner and carried him to Delhi, leaving Sind under charge of his own officials. Subsequently being satisfied with his good will and capacity he reinstated him in his government. On the death of Jam Tughlaq, the chamberlain Mubarak succeeded him through the efforts of a vain and seditious faction, and was followed by Sikandar the son of lam Fath Khan.

During the reign of Jām Nandā, Shāh Beg Arghān made a descent from Qandahār and took Sewi and leaving the command of it to his brother Sultān Muhammad, returned to Qandahār. The Jām marched a force against

^{*} Several of this tribe were at various periods sent to Sind. Under the Caliphate of Yazid b. Abd u'l Malik, Haläl a't Tamimi was sent in pursuit of the Banu Muhallab About 107 A.H. Tamim b. Zaid al Utbi succeeded Junaid in the government of that province and died near Debal. Under the Abbasides Musa b. Kab a't Tamimi, drove out Mansur b. Jamhur the Umayyad governor. Abdu'r Razzāk the first Chaznevide governor of Sind, about A.H. 417, (1026) found the descendants of old Arab settlers of the tribes of Thakifi, Tamimi, Asad etc.

^{&#}x27;Māni according to Ferishta who says that the expedition of Firoz Tughlaq took place in 763 A.H. (A.D. 1320).

Muhammad who was killed in action. Shah Beg made a second incursion and took possession of Sehwān and a considerable part of Sind and leaving his conquests in charge of his own people, withdrew.

In the reign of Jam Firoz, a relative of his named Salāhu'ddin rose in rebellion and failing in his attempt, took refuge with Sultan Mahmud of Gujarat who received him graciously and assisted him with an army; Daryā Khān the prime minister of Jam Firoz espoused his cause and the kingdom of Sind fell under his power without a blow. Subsequently the said Darya Khan determined to restore Jan Firoz who had withdrawn into private life, but who thus recovered his kingdom. Salāhu'ddin a second time advanced from Gujarāt with a force furnished by the Sultān and occupied Sind. Firoz retired to Qandahar and Shah Beg supplied him with troops, and an engagement took place near Sehwan in which Salahu'ddin and his son were slain. Thus Firoz was again established in his kingdom. In the year A.H. 929 (A.D. 1522-3) Shāh Beg took possession of Sind and Jām Firoz retired to Gujarāt, gave his daughter in marriage to Sultan Buhadur and was attached to the Court in the ranks of its nobles. Sind was now subject to Shah Beg. This prince was the son of Mir Zu'n Nun Beg, the commander-in-chief of Sultan Husain Mirzā, who received the government of Qandahār. He fell fighting bravely against Shaibak Khan Uzbek who was engaged in hostilities with the sons of Sultan Husain Mirzā. His eldest son succeeded to the government of Qandahār, a prince of distinguished valour and versed in the learning of his age. At his death, his son Shah Husain ascended the throne and wrested Multan from Sultan Mahmud. After him Mirzā Isā son of Abdu'l Ali Tarkhān! succeeded, followed by Muhammad Payandah2 but his prince being subject to fits of mental estrangement, did not

Tarkhān was originally a rank among the Mughals and Turks, but in the time of Baber it had come to belong to a particular family. The ancient Tarkhān was exempt from all deties and could enter the royal presence without asking leave and was to be pardoned nine times be the fault what it would. He had perfect liberty of speech and might say what he pleased before royalty. The name constantly occurs in the early portion of Baber's Memotrs.

[&]quot;He has omitted the succession of Muhammad Bāqi son of Isā Tarkhān to whom Ferishta gives a prosperous reign of 18 years. The genealogical tree of Mirzā Jāni Beg and the subsequent history of this family will be found at pp. 361-2, Vol. I of this work. Ferishta altogether omits Muhammad Payandah and gives the succession to Jāui Beg immediately after Muhammad Bāqi.

personally administer the government. Mirzā Jāni Beg, his son assumed the direction of affairs till His Majesty's victorious troops advanced into the country and reduced it to order, and Mirzā Jāni Beg was enrolled in the ranks of his nobility.

SUBAH OF KABUL.

It is situated in the third and fourth climates, and comprises Kashmir, Pakli, Bimbar, Swāt, Bajaur, Qandahār and Zābulistān. Its capital was formerly Ghaznah, but now Kābul.

KASHMIR.

(Editor's Note.)

The notes on the subah of Kashmir in this revised edition of Jarrett's translation have been entirely prepared by Prof. Nirod Bhusan Roy, after a minute study of A. Stein's Memoir on Maps of Ancient Kashmir (Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1895) and Rajatarangini: a Chronicle of the Kings of Kashmir (2 vols. 1901),—which are cited here under the respective titles of Stein, J.A.S.B. and Stein, Chron. In addition, Prof. Roy has consulted Drew's Jummo and Kashmir Territories (1875), Bates' Kashmir (iazetteer, Rose's Glossary of Punjab Tribes and Castes (3 vols., 1914), and the Travels of Vigne and Moorcroft.

Abul Fazl devoted more space to the description of the places of note in Kashmir than in any other subah, because he looked upon it as a holy land full of sacred places, hermits' retreats and quiet natural scenes,—"appropriate to be the retired abode of the recluse", as he himself says. This Suñ's paradise is said to contain a temple of liberal broad-minded worshippers of God, for which he wrote a charming inscription printed by Blochmann at the end of his life of Abul Fazl in the first volume of his translation

(pp. xxxii-xxxiii).

But when Abul Fazl compiled his Ain-i-Akbari, Mughal rule was not yet firmly in the saddle in this recently conquered province, and full and correct reports on Kashmir had not begun to reach the imperial chancellory at Delhi. Hence its statistics are less accurate than those of the longer-settled subahs of Akbar's empire, which formed the basis of his Imperial Gazetteer. The Persian text of the chapter on Kashmir is vitiated by too many errors in proper names and topographical data, which may have been due to Abul

Fazl's clerks as well as to later transcribers of his book. The hopeless confusion thus created was first removed by

the publication of Stein's two works cited above.

In the present edition, copious extracts have been made from these scholarly sources by Prof. N. B. Roy and the obsolete or useless notes of Jarrett have been deleted. The new topographical notes are given in one place at the end of Abul Fazl's account and not at the foot of each page.—Iadunath Sarkar.

Stein's remark on A. F.'s account of Kashmir.

"Abul Fazl's detailed description of Kashmir, is in many respects valuable to the historical student, but it is particularly in connection with topographical search that we must feel grateful to the author for having, like his great

master, caught some of the enthusiasm of the valley.

The account of Abul Fazl presents for us an authentic survey of all the Kashmirian tirthas that were well known and popular at the end of the 16th century. . . Abul Fazl's notes have enabled me to trace in more than one instance the position of ancient tirthas or particular features regarding them which have since his time been wholly forgotton." Stein, Chron. II, 382-83.

A NOTE ON THE LANGUAGE OF KASHMIR.

Kashmiri or Koshiru.

The Kashmiri language is the language of the Valley of Kashmir. In a dialectic form it has spread south-west into the Valley of Kashtawar (Kishtwar), and to the south it has flowed over the Pir Pantsal Range into the lower hills lying north of the River Chinab, where it reappears in a number of mixed dialects.

The word 'Kashmiri' is Persian or Hindi, and is derived from the Sanskrit Kasmirika. It is not the name used by the people of Kashmir itself. There the country is called Kashiru, and the language Koshiru.

Kashmiri has one true dialect,—Kashtawari, spoken in the Valley Kashtawar (commonly known as Kishtwar), lying to the south-east of the Valley of Kashmir. Kashmiri has also overflowed the Pir Pantsal Range into the Jammu Province of the State, and in the valleys between the southern

hills of the range, between the water-shed and the valley of the Chinab, there are a number of mixed dialects, such as Poguli, Siraji of Doda, and Rambani. The first two of these represent Kashmiri merging into Dogri. Farther east, over the greater part of the Riasi District of the State, there are more of these mixed dialects, about which nothing certain is known, except that the mixture is rather between Kashmiri and the Chibhali form of Lahnda.

In the standard Kashmiri of the Valley, there are minor differences of language, which, however, are not sufficient to entitle us to divide it out into further separate dialects. For instance, the Kashmiri spoken by Musalmans differs from that spoken by Hindus. Not only is the vocabulary of the former more filled with words borrowed from Persian, but also there are slight differences of pronunciation.

Kashmiri belongs to the Dard group of the Dardic languages. It is most nearly related to Shina. It has, however, for many centuries been subject to Indian influence, and its vocabulary includes a large number of words derived from India. Its speakers hence maintain that it is of Sanskritic origin, but a close examination reveals the fact that, illustrious as was the literary history of Kashmir, and learned as have been its Sanskrit Pandits, this claim of Sanskrit origin cannot be sustained for the vernacular of the latter. Kashmiri is a very old language. Three words in it are quoted by Kalhana (circ. 1150 A.D.) in his Rajatarangini, and these are not very different from the language of the present day. [Grierson, Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. 8, part II, pp. 233-235.]

Sarkar of Kashmir.

It lies in the third and fourth climates. Its length from Cambar Ver to Kishan Ganga is 120 kos, and its breadth from 10 to 25 kos. On the east are Paristan and the river Chenab: on the south-east Banihal and the Jammu mountains: on the north-east, Great Tibet non the west, Pakli and the Kishan Ganga river; on the southwest, the Gakkhar country: on the the north-west, Little Tibet. It is encompassed on all sides by the Himalayan Twenty-six different roads lead into Hindustan but those by Bhimbar and Pahli are the best and are generally practicable on horseback. The first mentioned is the

nearest and it has several routes of which three are good. viz., (1) Hasti Bhanji which was the former route for the march of troops; (2) Pir Panjāl, which His Majesty has thrice traversed on his way to the rose garden of Kashmir. If on these hills an ox or a horse be killed, storm clouds and wind arise with a fall of snow and rain²; (3) Tangtala.

The country is enchanting, and might be fittingly called a garden of perpetual spring surrounding a citadel terraced to the skies, and deservedly appropriate to be either the delight of the worldling or the retired abode of the recluse. Its streams are sweet to the taste, its waterfalls music to the ear, and its climate is invigorating. The rain and snowfall are similar to that of Turkestan and Persia and its periodical rains occur at the same season as in Hindustan. The lands are artificially watered or dependent on rain for irrigation. The flowers are enchanting and fill the heart with delight. Violets, the red rose and wild narcissus cover the plains. To enumerate its flora would be impossible. Its spring and autumn are extremely beautiful. The houses are all of wood and are of four stories and some of more, but it is not the custom to enclose them. Tulips' are grown on the roofs which present a lovely sight in the spring time. Cattle and sundry stores are kept in the lower storey, the second contains the family apartments, and in the third and fourth are the household chattels. On account of the

The three different routes into Kashmir are thus described. The first runs almost in a straight line passing through Nowsherah, Rajori, the Pir Panjāl pass and Shupiyon. The second deviating from Rajori runs to the Punch river and on to Punch and crossing the Hāji Pir, joins the Murree road near Uri. The third, parting from Samani Sarai, passes through Kotli and Sera to Punch and unites with the second. The route by Shupiyon is the Pir Panjāl. The second is Tangtala which name, however, is no longer known and is probably a misscript. The third is believed to be the Hasti Bhanj, for it is the only one by which elephants can travel. Cf. Vigne's Kashmir and Ladāk, I. 147 in which 20 passes into Kashmir are mentioned and described.

The superstition regarding the tempest of wind and snow and rain.

The superstition regarding the tempest of wind and snow and rain, appears to be connected with that of the Yedeh or rain-stone frequently alluded to by Baber, the history of which is given by D'Herbelot. It is of Tartar origin and the virtues of the stone are celebrated in Yarkand and attested by authorities who have never witnessed them. It is said to be found in the head of a house or a country and if steamed in the blood of a point with said to be found in the

authorities who have never witnessed them. It is said to be found in the head of a horse or a cow, and if steeped in the blood of an animal with certain ceremonies, a wind arises followed by snew and rain.

The terms are Abi, Lalmi. The first signifies in the N.-W. P., land watered from ponds, tanks, lakes and watercourses, in distinction to that watered from wells, and as being liable to fail in the hot season, is assessed at a lower rate. The second is a Pushtu word (Raverty) and means growing spontaneously and applied to crops wholly dependent on rain for irrigation or spring crops. The next term Chalkhai in the text has a variant Jalkhāya signifyīng parched land that has absorbed its moisture.

Dr. King takes this to be probably the Fritillaria Imperialis, though there is nothing against the plant being a real tulip. The T. stellata is common in many parts of the N. W. Himalayas.

abundance of wood and the constant earthquakes, houses of stone and brick are not built, but the ancient temples inspire astonishment. At the present day many of them are in ruins. Woollen fabrics are made in high perfection, especially shawls which are sent as valuable gifts to every clime. But the bane of this country is its people, yet strange to say, notwithstanding its numerous population and the scantiness of the means of subsistence, thieving and begging are rare. Besides plums and mulberries, the fruits are numerous. Melons, apples, peaches, apricots are excel-Although grapes are in plenty, the finer qualities are rare and the vines bear on mulberry trees. The mulberry is little eaten, its leaves being reserved for the silkworm. The eggs are brought from Cilgit and Little Tibet, in the former of which they are procured in greater abundance and are more choice. The food of the people is chiefly rice, wine, fish and various vegetables, and the last mentioned they dry and preserve. Rice is cooked and kept overnight to be eaten. Though shall rice is plentiful, the finest quality is not obtainable. Wheat is small in grain and black in colour, and there is little of it, and little consumed. Gram (chick-pea) and barley are nowhere found. They have a species of sheep! which they call Handu, delicate and sweet in flavour and wholesome. Apparel is generally of wool, a coat of which will last for some years. The horses are small, strong, and traverse difficult ground. There are neither elephants nor camels. The cows are black and ill-shaped, but give excellent milk and butter. There are artificers of various kinds who might be deservedly employed in the greatest cities. The bazār system is little in use, as a brisk traffic is carried on at their own places of business. Snakes, scorpions and other venomous reptiles are not found in the

According to Cunningham (Ladak p 210) the Ladaki sheep are of two kinds, the tall black-faced Huniya used chiefly for carrying burdens and the pretty diminutive sheep of Purik used only for food. The common sheep is the Huniya which with the exception of the Purik breed is almost the only kind of sheep to be found throughout Tibet. It is much larger than any of the Indian breeds, the height averaging from 27 to 30 inches. Nearly the whole of the traffic is transported on these sheep which are food, clothing and carriage and are the principal wealth of the country Drew (Jananoo and Kashmir, p. 288) gives the average weight carried by them at from 24 to 32 lbs. The Purik sheep when full grown is not larger than a south-down lamb of 5 or 6 months, and is said by Moorcroft to equal in the fineness and weight of its fleece and flavour of its mutton any race hitherto discovered. The oxen are the yak or chauri-taled bull and the yak cow, Brimo or Dimo, and they reproduce with the common cattle. The yak is kept chiefly for loads, being generally too intractable for the plough. The cow is kept only for milk. The most valuable hybrids are the Dso bull and Dsomo cow, the produce of the male yak and common cow.

cities. There is a mountain called Mahadeva and in any spot whence its summit can be seen, no snake exists, but fleas, lice, gnats and flies are very common. From the general use of pellet-bows which are fitted with bow-strings. sparrows are very scarce. The people take their pleasure in skiffs upon the lakes, and their hawks strike the wildfowl in mid-air and bring them to the boats, and sometimes they hold them down in the water in their talons, and stand on them, presenting an exciting spectable.

Stags and partridges likewise afford sport and the leopard too is tracked. The carriage of goods is effected by boat, but men also carry great loads over the most difficult country. Boatmen and carpenters drive a thriving trade.

The Brāhman class is very numeorus.

Although Kashmir has a dialect! of its own, their learned books are in the Sanskrit language. They have a separate character which they use for manuscript work, and they write chiefly on Tuz which is the bark of a tree, worked into sheets with some rude art and which keeps for years. All their ancient documents are written on this. Their ink is so prepared as to be indelible by washing. Although, in ancient times, the learning of the Hindus was in vogue, at the present day, various sciences are studied and their knowledge is of a more general character. Their astrological art and astronomy are after the manner of the Hindus. The majority of the narrow-minded conservatives of blind tradition are Sunnis, and there are some Imamis and Nur Bakhshis,* all perpetually at strife with each

The languages of Kashmir are divided into 13 separate dialects. Of these Dogri and Chibali which do not differ much from Hindustant and Panjabi, these Dogri and Chibali which do not differ much from Hindustant and Panjabi, are spoken on the hills and the Punch and Jammu country. Kashmiri is mostly used in Kashmir proper and is curiously and closely related to Sanskit. Five dialects are included in the term Pahari: two are Tibetan spoken in Baltistan, Ladakh and Champas, and three and four varieties of the Dard dialects of Aryan origin in the Moth-West. The thirteen dialects are enumerated and discussed by Drew (Jummoo and Kashmir).

Tus in the Burhan i Qubi is said to be the bark of a tree used to wrap round saddles and bows. Dr. King identifies it with the well-known birch, Betula Bhojpattra, Wall. Bhojpattra he states is the current vernacular name.

As the account of this sect in Perishta has been almost entirely passed over by Brizzs in his translation, the omission may be here made good and

over by Briggs in his translation, the omission may be here made good and will serve the double purpose of supplementing his version and elucidating the present text. With the following note may be compared a monograph on the Roshaniyah sect by Dr. Leyden in the XIth Vol. Asiatic Researches.

Mirză Haidar (Doghlat) in his work the Kitab i Rashidi says that formerly all the inhabitants of Kashmir were of the Hanifi sect. In the time of Fath

Shah, a man named Shamau'ddin came from Iraq and declared himself to be a follower of Mir Muhammad Nur Bakhsh. He introduced a new form of religion which he called Nurbakhsh, which accords neither with the Sunni or Shin belief. And the followers of this sect, like heretics, consider it their daty to revile and abuse the three Caliphs and Ayesha, but unlike the Shias,

other. These are chiefly from Persia and Turkestan. Their musicians are exceedingly many and all equally monotonous, and with each note they seem to dig their nails into your liver. The most respectable class in this country is that of the Brahmans, who notwithstanding their need of freedom from the bonds of tradition and custom, are true worshippers of God.

They do not loosen the tongue of calumny against those not of their faith, nor beg nor importune. They employ themselves in planting fruit trees, and are generally a source of benefit to the people. They abstain from fleshmeat and do not marry. There are about two thousand of

this class.

The Tolah in this country is 16 māshās, each māshā being equal to 6 surkhs.1 The gold mohur weighs 16 danis, each dani equalling 6 surkhs, being 4 surkhs more than the ordinary mohurs of Delhi. Rop Sāsnu is a silver coin of 9 māshas. The panchhu is of copper, equal to the fourth of a dām and is called kaserah. One-fourth of this is the

they regard Amir Sayyid Muhammad Nur Bakhsh as the Mahdi and Apostle of his time, and they do not believe as the Shias do in saints and holy

persons, but consider them to be Sunnia.

"I compelled many men of Kashmir who were much disposed to this heresy, to accept willingly or otherwise the true religion and I put others to death. Some of these men saved themselves by adopting mystic doctrines and called

themselves Sufis."

Before these people, there lived in Kashmir a sect of Sun-worshippers who were called Shammassin. Their creed was that the sun's light owed its ware cancer snammassin. Their creed was that the sun's light owed its existence to their purity of faith, and that they themselves existed through the light of the sun, and that if they rendered their faith impure, the sun would cease to be. [Jarrett.] Nar-bakhshiya in Encyclopaedia of Islam, iii. 961-962. Elias & Ross, Tarikh-i-Rashidi, 435-437. Shammasi in Elias & Ross, 436. For Hindu sun-worship, Hastings, Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics, xii. 83, ii 483-484; Panjab Sun Creed. ix. 604. Babylonian Shamash, ibid., ii. 311. [J. Sarkar.]

1 The Surkh is the common red and black bead, Abrus piecatorius, and is equal to a rāti in weight.

The Kashmiri mohur = 16 dāni or

≈98 surkits.

1 D=6 SThe 96 ratis or surkks in a tolak exactly represent the 96 carat grains in the

old assay pound. [Jarrett.]

With reference to the monetary system of Kashmir, Stein indicates the connection between the terms used by Alval Fuzi for the various denominaconnection between the terms used by Abul Fazi for the various denomina-tions of coins and their modern equivalents in Kashmir. Thus Pauchahu is the same as Puntsa, (Skr. Panchabimsati), hāth unchanged (Skr. sata), Sansu same as Sasun (Skr. thousand). According to Abul Fazi Bahagani, (bārakani) is equal to 1/2 Panchuhu. Stein corrects it and says that the above denomination represented one-half of the Panchuhu. The term bah in Kashmir means twelve and bahabent as a twelver. All the terms used above with only one exception are stated to have survived in Kashmir to this day in the popular system of reckoning, notwithstanding the repeated changes which the currency of the State has undergone since Akbar's time. Stein, Chronicle, Vol. II, 312. []. S.]

bahgani, [barakani], of which again one-fourth is called shakri.

4 kaserahs=1 rāhat. 40 kaserahs=1 sāsnu.

 $1\frac{1}{3}$ sāsnu = 1 sikkah.

100 sikkahs = 1 lakh which, according to the imperial estimate, is equal to one thousand dāms.

The whole country is regarded as holy ground by the Hindu sages. Forty-five shrines are dedicated to Mahadeva, sixty-four to Vishnu, three to Brahmā, and twenty-two to Durga. In seven hundred places there are graven images of snákes which they worship and regarding which wonderful legends are told.¹

Srinagar is the capital and is 4 farsakhs in length. The rivers Bihat, Mār, and Lachmahkul² flow through it. The last-mentioned runs occasionally dry: the second, at times, becomes so shallow that boats cannot pass. This has been a flourishing city from ancient times³ and the home of artificers of various kinds. Beautiful shawls are woven, and they manufacture woollen stuffs (Saqarlāt) extremely soft. Durmah, pattu and other woollen materials are prepared but the best are brought from Tibet. Mir Sayyid Ali Hamadāni⁴ resided for some time in this city, and a monastery founded by him still preserves his memory. To the east is a high hill known as the Koh i Sulaimān, and ādjoining the city are two large lakes always full of water, and it is remarkable that their water will not deteriorate in good savour and wholesomeness for any length of time provided that their free exit is undisturbed.

^{&#}x27;Serpent-worship, according to Genl. Cunningham, has been the prevailing religion in Kashmir from time immemorial. A full account of Hindu serpent-worship in Hastings' Encyclo.. xi. 411-419 (Kashmir on p. 412). J. S.

worship in Hastings' Encyclo.. XI. 411-419 (Kashmir on p. 412). J. S.

The Jhelum, which nearly intersects the valley is formed, says the I. G., by the junction of three streams, the Arpat, Bring and Sandaram, and receives in its course numerous tributaries. It mentions the Tsout i Kul, or apple-tree canal connecting the Dal or city lake, with the Jhelum which it enters opposite the palace and the Nalli Mār which flows into the Sind near Shādipur connecting the Auchar with the Dal. The Dudganga, a stream of good volume joins the river on the left bank at the city of Srinagar.

Srinapari the old capital prior to the execution of Prayaraganapura is

^{*}Srinagari, the old capital, prior to the erection of Pravarasenapura is stated in the Raja Tarangini to have been founded by Asoka, who reigned between B.C. 273—232. It stood on the site of the present Pändrethän, and is said to have extended along the bank of the river from the foot of the Takht i Sulaiman to Pāniasok, a distance of more than three miles.

⁴ This monastery is built entirely of wood. It is still extant and known as the Khānqāh i Muālla, on the right bank of the Bihet above Zenu Kadal the fourth bridge of the town of Srinagar.

Near the town of Brang [Bring] is a long defile in which is a pool seven yards square and as deep as a man's stature. It is regarded as a place of great sanctity. Strange to say it is dry during eleven months, but in the Divine month of Urdi-bihisht (April), water bubbles forth from two springs. First in one corner of it is a cavity like a mortar called Sendh brāri: when this becomes full, the spring rises in another corner called Sapt rishi. From these two sources the pool runs over. Sometimes it boils up for three hours, and at times for only a second. Then it begins to decrease till not a drop remains. At three periods of the day, viz., morning, noon and evening, this rise occurs. Various flowers are thrown in as offerings to either spring, and after the reflux of the water, the flowers of each votary are found in their respective springs.1

But this, like the divining cup is a contrivance of the

ancients to secure the devotion of the simple.

In this vicinity also is a spring, which during six months is dry. On a stated day, the peasants flock to worship and make propitiatory offerings of a sheep or a goat. Water then flows forth and irrigates the cultivation of five villages. If the flush is in excess, they resort to the same supplications, and the stream subsides of its own accord. There is also another spring called Kokar Nag, the water of which is limpid, cold and wholesome. Should a hungry person drink of it, his hunger will be appeased,2 and its satisfaction in turn renews appetite. At a little distance, in the midst of a beautiful temple, seven fountains excite the wonderment of the beholder. In the summer time self-immolating ascetics here heap up a large fire around themselves, and with the utmost fortitude suffer themselves to be burnt to ashes. This they consider a means of union with the Deity. There is also a spring which produces touchstone, and to the north of it a lofty hill which contains an iron mine.

The village of Vij Brāra, one of the dependencies of Anoych is a place of great sauctity. It was formerly a large

the quality of its water.

Tieffenthaler ascribes the cause of the phenomenon to the inelting of the mountain snews under the influence of the sun which descending along hollows or by subterranean passages reach this cavern and boil up within it. nollows of Dr. subterranean passages reach this cavern and boil up within it. The later ebullitions he conceives, are due either to the shade of the trees of the declining force of the sun on the snows. Bernier's opinion is somewhat the same. Voyages, II, 293.

*Vigne (I, 339) on the contrary hears testimony to its being provocative of appetite. The spring, situated about 2½ miles from the iron works at Sof than, forms a stream equal in volume to that of Vernag and far superior in the quality of its maker.

city' and contained wonderful temples. In the vicinity is an upland meadow called Nandimarg, of which I know not whether most to praise its level sweep of mead, the loveliness of its verdure and flowers, or the bountiful virtues of its streams and its air. In the village of Pampur, one of the dependencies of Vihi, there are fields of saffron2 to the extent of ten or twelve thousand bighas, a sight that would enchant the most fastidious. At the close of the month of March and during all April, which is the season of cultivation, the land is ploughed up and rendered soft, and each portion is prepared with the spade for planting, and the saffron bulbs are placed in the ground. In a month's time they sprout and at the close of September, it is at its full growth, shooting up somewhat over a span. The stalk is white, and when it has sprouted to the height of a finger, it begins to flower one bud after another in succession till there are eight flowers in bloom. It has six lilac-tinted petals. Usually among six 'filaments, three are yellow and three ruddy. The last three yield the saffron. When the flowers are over, leaves appear upon the stalk. Once planted it will flower for six years in succession. The first year, the yield is small: in the second as 30 to 10. In the third year it

The principal ancient cities of Kashmir are the old capital of Srinagari and the new, Pravarasenapura which was lost in the former name: Khagendrapura and Khanamusha, identified with Kākapur on the left bank of the Bihat, ten miles to the south of the Takht i Sulaimān, and Khunamoh, four miles north-east of Pāmpur: Vijipara and Pantasok. The former twenty-five miles south-east of the capital: the latter three miles from the Takht i Sulaimān; Surapura the modern Sopur, mentioned in the Kashmir chronicles as Kanibuca: Kanishkapura, corrupted to Kāmpur: Hushkapura probably Baramula: Jushkapura now Zukru or Zukur four miles north of the capital: Parillasa-pura built by Lalitaditya (A.D. 723-760): Padmapura now Pampur: aud Avantipura, now only a small village, Wantipur, seventeen miles south-east of the present capital. Cunningham, pp. 95, 103.

See Vol. I, p. 84 where the method of cultivation of this plant is explained

somewhat differently.

I am indebted to Dr. King for the following note:

[&]quot;There are three stamens and three stigmas in each flower. The latter yield the saffron. The style divides at the level of the anthers into three yellow drooping branches which hang out of the flower and become gradually thickened and tubular upward, stigmas dilated, notched and often split down one side, dark orange coloured. The mode of collection and preparation of saftron varies in different countries, but it consists essentially in removing the stigmas with the upper part of the style from the other parts of the flower and afterwards drying the parts detached. A not uncommon adulteration of saffron is made by intermixing the dyed stamens of the saffron crocus. It takes from 7,000 to 8,000 flowers to yield 17½ ounces of fresh saffron which by drying is reduced to 3½." Medicinal Plants by Bentley and Trimen, IV, 274. In the Waqiat i Jehangiri, it is asserted that in an ordinary year, 400 maunds or 3,200 Khurasani maunds are produced. Half belongs to Government, half to the cultivators and a ser sells for about 10 Rs. A note states that one good grain of saffron contains the stigmats and styles of 9 flowers; hence 4,329 flowers yield one oz.

reaches its highest point and the bulbs are dug up. If left in the same soil, they gradually deteriorate, but if taken up

they may be profitably transplanted.

In the village of Zewan are a spring and a reservoir which are considered sacred, and it is thought that the saffron seed came from this spring. When the cultivation begins, they worship at this fount and pour cow's milk into it. If as it falls it sinks into the water, it is accounted a good omen and the saffron crop will we plentiful, but if it floats on the surface, it will be otherwise.

In the village of Khriu 360 springs refresh the eye and each of these is accounted a means of divine worship. Near

this is an iron mine.

Maru Adwin' adjoins Great Tibet where the Handu is found of the best breed and large in size, and carries heavy burdens. Near this is a hill called Chatar Kot on the summit of which snakes are so numerous that no one can approach it. There is also a high hill difficult of ascent, on which is a large lake. It is not every one that can find his way to it, for it often disappears from sight. At the foot of the mountain in different places images of Mahadeva fashioned of a stone like crystal are found and are a source

In the neighbourhood of Achh Bal, one of the dependencies of Khattar is a fountain which shoots up to the height of a cubit, and is scarce equalled for its coldness, limpidity and refreshing qualities. The sick that drink of it and persevere in a course of its waters, recover their

health.

In the village of Kotihār is a deep spring, surrounded by stone temples. When its water decreases, an image of Mahadeva in sandal-wood appears. The quality of this spring does not alter.

In the vicinity of Wular is a lofty mountain, containing a salt spring. The Kashmir stage is here found in numbers,

Matan [Martand] stands upon a hill and once possessed a large temple. There is a small pool on the summit, the water of which never decreases.* Some suppose this to be

¹ Mare Wurdwun according to Vigne

² The Bårå Singha or Kashmir stag, (Cervus Cashmerianus).

³ Martand, situated on the highest part of the Karewah or raised plain

⁴ Martand, situated on the highest part of the temple is described

between Islämåbåd and the higher mountains. The temple is described

by Hügel as "Korau Pandau," the beautifui ruins of which are the finest in

by Hügel as "Korau Pandau," the beautifui ruins of which are the finest in

Kashmir. Vigne inverts the order as Pandu Koru. At 150 yards distance

kashmir. Vigne inverts the order as Pandu Koru. At 150 yards distance

as the Chāh i Bābil or well of Hārut and Mārut whose story does not need

repetition. The spring referred to in the following paragraph is that of

the Well of Babylon, but at the present day there is no

trace of anything but an ordinary pit.

On the slope of the hill is a spring, at the head of which a reservoir has been constructed, full of fish. The sanctity of the place preserves them from being touched. By the side of it is a cave, the depth of which cannot be ascertained.

In Khāwarpārah is a source, whose waters tumble headlong with a mighty roar.

In the village of Aish¹ is the cell of Bābā Zainu'ddin Rishi. It is in the side of a hill. It is said that in ancient times the hill held no water, but when he took up his abode there, a spring began to flow. For twelve years he occupied this cell and at length closed its mouth with a large stone and never went forth again, and none has ever found trace of him.

The town of Dachchhinparah is on the side of a mountain bordering Great Tibet and is fed by the waters of the above-mentioned spring. Between Great Tibet and the above-mentioned parganah is a cave in which is an image in ice called Amar Nat.² It is considered a shrine of great sanctity. When the new moon rises from her throne of rays, a bubble as it were of ice is formed in the cave which daily increases little by little for fifteen days till it is somewhat higher than two yards, of the measure of the vard determined by His Majesty; with the waning moon, the image likewise begins to decrease, till no trace of it remains when the moon disappears. They believe it to be the image of Mahādeva and regard it as a means (through supplication) of the fiulment of their desires. Near the cave is a rill called Amrāoti, the clay of which is extremely white. They account it auspicious and smear themselves with it. The snows of this mountainous tract nowhere melt, and from the

1 The village of Aish Maqam or the abode of pleasure, holds in a long building situated conspicuously on the left bank of the Lidar, the shrine of the saint. He directed that a tomb should be erected where his staff should be found, as his body would diagnosar. It is still missing. See Vices II 6

Bawan, one of the holiest in Kashmir, swarming, says Vigne, (I, 359) with Himilayan trout. Hügel gives the legend of the caves one of which he was assured extended 10 kos, and that no one who ever entered, had been known to return. He penetrated to the end of it in a few minutes. Matan is the name of the Karewah at the end of which, according to Moorcroft, the Martand temple stands (II. 255) ascribed like most of the architectural remains to the Pāndus.

found, as his body would disappear It is still missing. See Vigne, II, 6.

The Amarnath cave is marked in Drew's map, south-east of Baltal and Sonamarg, near the sources of the Sind river. Its history and ceremonies are told by Vigne, II, 8. The ice bubble was doubtless a stalactite. See Moorcroft, II, 252.

extreme cold, the straitness of the defiles and the rough inequalities of the road, they are surmounted with great toil.

In the village of Dākhāmun is a spring, and whenever its water boils up and becomes turbid its surface is covered with particles of straw and rubbish, the dust of dissension arises in the country. A quarry of Solomon's stone is in

the vicinity of which utensils are fashioned.

About the parganah of Phāk grow a variety of herbs and plants. Adjoining is a large lake called Dal. One side of it is contiguous to the city and on its surface a number of floating islands² are constructed which are cultivated, and fraudulent people will at times cut off a piece and carry it away to a different position. Sultān Zainul Abidin constructed in this lake a causeway (sad) of clay and stone one kos in length from the city to this parganah. In the vicinity also is a spring of which the sick drink and are restored to health.

In the village of *Thid*, is a delightful spot where seven springs unite: around them are stone buildings, memorials of bygone times. There is also a source which in winter is

warm and in summer cold.

In the village of Bāzwāl is a waterfall from the crest of Shāhkot. It is called Shālahmār. Here fish are caught in numbers. A streamlet is caged at two ends and when the

water is carried off, the fish between are taken.

In Ishibāri is a spring held sacred by the people of Hindustān, called Suryasar, surrounded by stone temples. Shakarnāg is a spring which is dry all the year, but should the 9th day of any month happen to fall on a Friday, it bubbles up and flows from morn till eve, and people flock to partake of its blessings.

In the village of Rambal are a spring and a pool. Those who have special needs throw in a nut, if it floats, it is an augury of success; if it sinks, it is considered

adverse.

In Banihal is a temple dedicated to Durga. If any one desires to learn the issue of a strife between himself

Applied indiscriminately to both agate and onyx. Tieffenthaler describes a stone of their country, as green with white streaks which is worked with diamond powder and made into phials, saucers, harts of duggers and the like. It is probably a kind of jude.

^{**}Cucumbers and melons are commonly grown on them. Their construction is described by Moorcroft (II, 138) with the thoroughness which characterizes his observations. The causeway is called by Vigne, (II, 99) Sad i Chodri and is carried entirely through the lake to the village of Isha Bryri, four miles on the opposite side.

and his enemy, he fills two vessels with boiled rice, the one representing his own fortunes, the other those of his foe, and places them in the temple and closes the doors. On the following day the devotees present themselves to learn the result. In whose vessel roses and saffron are found, his undertaking will prosper, and that which is full of straws and dirt, portends the ruin of the person it represents. Stranger still, in a dispute where it is difficult to discover the truth, each party is given a fowl or a goat and sent to the temple. They then poison each of these animals and severally rub them with their hands. His animal whose cause is just recovers, and the other dies.

In the Ver tract of country is the source of the Bihat. It is a pool measuring a jarib which tosses in foam with an astonishing roar, and its depth is unfathomable. It goes by the name of Vernāg! and is surrounded by a stone embankment and to its east are temples of stone. In the village of Kambar is a spring called Bawan Sendh which during two months of the spring time is in agitation. It is always full and its water never decreases.

In Devsar in the village of Balau is a pool called Balau Nag 20 yards square in which the water is agitated: it is embosomed in delightful verdure and canopied by shady trees. Whosoever is desirous of knowing the prospects of the harvest, or whether his own circumstances are to be prosperous or unfavourable, fills an earthen vessel with rice, writes his name on its rim, and closing its mouth, casts it into the spring. After a time the vessel of its own accord floats on the surface, and he then opens it and if the rice be fragrant and warm, the year will be prosperous and his undertakings successful, but if it be filled with clay or mud and rubbish, the reverse will be the case.

Veshou is the name of a stream which issues picturesquely from an orifice in a mountain, and at the same place is a declivity down which the waters tumble from a height of 20 yards with a thundering roar. Hindu devotees throw themselves down from its summit and with the utmost fortitude sacrifice their lives, in the belief that it is a means of securing their spiritual welfare.

Kuthār² is a spring which remains dry for eleven years, and when the planet Jupiter enters the sign of Leo, it flows

¹ Ver is the old name of Shahābād. A description of this celebrated fountain may be read in Vigne's Kashmir, I, 332, and in Moorcroft, II, 250.

² This appears to be the Kosah Nāg of Vigne which he says is pronounced Kausar by the Muhammadans after the fountain in Paradise.

on the following Thursday and during the succeeding seven days is again dry and once more fills on the Thursday next following, and so continues for a year.

In the village of *Matalhāmah* is a wood in which is a heronry, the feathers are taken for plumes, and the birds

are here regularly fed.

Near Shukroh is a low hill on the summit of which is a fountain which flows throughout the year and is a place of pilgrimage for the devout. The snow does not fall on

this spur.

In Nagam is a spring called Nilah Nag, the basin of which measures 40 bigahs. Its waters are exquisitely clear and it is considered a sacred spot, and many voluntarily perish by fire about its border Strange to relate omens are taken by its means. A nut is divided into four parts and thrown in, and if an odd number floats, the augury is favourable, if otherwise, the reverse. In the same wav if milk (thrown in) sinks, it is a good omen, and if not, it is unpropitious. In ancient times a volume, which they call Nilmat, arose from its depths, which contained a detailed description of Kashmir and the history and particulars of its temples. They say that a flourishing city with lofty buildings is underneath its waters, and that in the time of Badu Shah,² a Brāhman descended into it and returned after three days, bringing back some of its rarities and narrated his experiences.

In the village of *Biruwā* is a spring and in its water lepers bathe early on the first day of the week and are restored to health. In the vicinity is a plateau, a pasture ground for cattle, the grass of which has peculiar fattening

properties.

In the village of Halthal of the parganah of Yech is found a quivering tree.³ If the smallest branch of it be

shaken, the whole tree becomes tremulous

Lar borders on the mountins of Great Tibet. To its north is a lofty mountain which dominates all the surrounding country, and the ascent of which is arduous. At its foot are two springs, two yards distant from each other, the waters of one being extremely cold and those of the other

The word is pronounced Cukar or Okar and signifies a heron. See Vigne, I, 306. The heronries are strictly guarded.

Badu Shah is Zainul Abidin (Vigne, II, 73).

^{*}Dr. King informs me that the Aspen (Populus tremula) occurs wild in the N. W. Himalaya. The P. Euphratics of which the leaves are as tremulous as the sapen, is also common in many parts

exceedingly hot. They are considered sacred and the bones of bodies are here reduced to ashes: the bones and ashes of the dead are cast into a large lake on the mountain and this ceremony is regarded as a means of union with the Divinity. If the flesh of an animal fall into it, a heavy fall of snow and rain ensues. The river called Sind which rises in Tibet, is wholesome to drink, and is so clear that the fish in it are visible. They strike them with iron spears and catch them also in other ways. Shahāb-u'ddinpur is on the banks of the Bihat, and about it are large plane trees which is a favourite resort. The Sind joins the Bihat at this point.

In Tulmulā is an area of about 100 bighas in extent which is flooded during the rains, and remains somewhat moist even after the waters have dried up. The people plunge in sticks of a yard in length, more or less, and work them about, and thrusting their hands into the holes pull out fish of four pounds weight and more, but common-

lv of small size.

In Satpur is a pool, the depth of which cannot be fathomed. It is held in great veneration and is a place of worship. Bhutesar is a temple dedicated to Mahādeva. Whoever approaches to pay his devotions, hears the sounds of ceremonial worship and no one can tell whence they proceed.

In Khoihāma which adjoins Little Tibet is a large lake called the Wular twenty-eight kos in circumference. The Bihat flows into it and its course is somewhat lost to the eye. Here Sultān Zainul Abidin built a large palace called Zain Lanka.\(^1\) Boats full of stones and branches of trees are sunk in the lake and pulled up by ropes after the lapse of three or four months, and many fish are taken that have homed there. The capture of water-fowl here affords considerable sport, and in the village of Ajas, stags are chased down to the lake and taken. Near Māchhāmu is an island covered with trees which when shaken by the wind, cause the island also to quake.

Saffron is also cultivated in *Paraspur*. It formerly held a lofty temple which when destroyed by *Sikandar* father of *Sultān Zainul Abidin*, a copper tablet was discovered on which was inscribed in *Sanskrit*, that after the

¹ See Vigne, II, 153. The legend of the Lanka islet is given in Maham mad Aāzam's *Hist. of Kashmir* translated by me in the A. S. Journal, XLIX, Part I, 1880.

lapse of eleven hundred years, one Sikandar would destroy it and gather for himself exceeding great chastisement.1

In the Parganah of Kamrāja at the village of Trahgām the residence of the Chaks is a fountain of sweet water called Chatarnag and in the middle is a stone building of great age. The fish grow to great size but whosoever touches them, is afflicted by some calamity.

Near Kargon is a defile called Soyam³ where an area of ten juribs of land becomes so hot at the time of the conjunction of Jupiter and Leo that trees are burnt up and a vessel of water if left on the ground will boil. A flourishing little town stands here. From Kamrāj is a defile, one end of which touches Kāshghar and on the west lies Pakli. where gold is obtained in the following manner. The skins of long-haired goats are spread in the fords of this river, with stones placed round them that the current may not bear them away. They are taken up after three days and left in the sun. When dry, they are shaken, yielding their three tolahs weight of gold dust. Gilgit is the name of another pass which leads to Kāshghar. Gold is there obtained by soil washings.

At two days' distance from Hāehāmun is the river named Padmati which flows from the Dārdu country. Gold is also found in this river. On its banks is a stone temple called Sāradā dedicated to Durgā and regarded with great veneration. On every eighth tithi of Shuklapaksha, it begins to

shake and produces the most extraordinary effect.

¹ Cunningham alludes to this at p. 102 and adds, 'The same story is told by Ferishta with the addition of the name of the Raja whom the translator calls BalnJt ta mistake for LJldit, the contracted form of Lalitaditya among the Kashmiris).

* Suhoyum in Vigne, (II, 281) who states that it lies near the village of Nichi Hama in the Parganah of Machiapora at the north-west end of the valley, and that 36 years before his visit an intense heat was found to issue from the spot. The phenomenon has several times occurred, a white smoke being occasionally seen to issue from the ground, but without sulphurous smell or fissures in the soil.

^{*}Kamrāj and Merāj were two large districts into which Kashmir was divided from the earliest times, the former being the north half of the valley below the junction of the Sind with the Jhelum, and the latter the south half, above that junction. Cunningham, p. 94. Vigue calls the village Tāragāon (II, 139) the village of the stars. The remains of ancient masonry round a fine spring were still to be seen, some of the blocks little mferior in size to these of Martand in size to those of Martand.

^{*}Few people can be traced through so long a period in the same place as these whom H. H. Wilson (Moorcroft, 11, 266, n.) identifies as the Dāradas of Sanskrit geography, and Daradræ or Daradæ of Strabo. He supposes them to be the Kāfirs of the Muhammadans, though now nominally converted to Islam. The surferous region of the Dāradas is mentioned by Humboldt (Cosmos II, p. 513. E. C. Otté) who places it either in the Thibetian high-lands east of the Bolor chain, west of Iskardo, or towards the desert of Gobi described also as auriferous by Hewen Thsang.

The system of revenue collection is by appraisement and division of crops, assessments for crops paying special rates and cash transactions not being the custom of the country. Some part of the Sair Jihāt cesses, however, are taken in cash. Payments in coin and kind were estimated in kharwārs of (Shāli) rice. Although one-third had been for a long time past the nominal share of the State, more than two shares was actually taken, but through His Majesty's justice, it has been reduced to one half. According to the assessment of Qāzi (Ali)* the revenue was fixed at 30 lakhs, 63,050 kharwārs, 11 taraks, each kharwār being 3 man, 8 sers Akbarshāhi. A weight of two dāms is called a pal, and 1 and 1 of this weight are also in use.

Seven and a half pals are considered equivalent to one ser, two sers are equal to half a man, and four sers to a tarak, and sixteen taraks to one kharwar. A tarak, according to the royal weights (of Akbar) is eight sers. Taking the prices current for several years, the Qazi struck an average of the aggregate, and the kharwar (in kind) was ascertained to be 29 dams, and the kharwar in money was fixed according to the former rate of $13\frac{8}{25}$ dams. The revenue, therefore, amounted to 7 krors, 46 lakhs, 70,411 dams. (Rs. 1,866,760-4-5), out of which 9 lakhs, 1,663 kharwars and 8 taraks were paid in money, equivalent to 1 kror, 20 lakhs, 22,183 dams. (Rs. 300,554-9-2). The revenue fixed by Asaf Khan, was 30 lakhs, 79,443 kharwars, of which 11 lakhs, 11,3301 kharwars were in money.

to the Qāzi's murder.

¹ The immenorial tradition in Kashmir considered the whole of the land as The immenorial tradition in Kashmir considered the whole of the land as the property of the ruler. Of some portions of the khilsa lands the sovereigns divested themselves by grants in jagir for various periods. The Sikhi made a general resumption, ousted the possessors of grants and reduced thousands to destitution. In Moorcroft's time (II, 125) the khilsa lands were let out for cultivation. Those near the city as Sar Kishti, head or upper cultivation, those more remote Pai-Kishti, or foot and lower. When the grain was trodden out, an equal division took place formerly between the farmer and the government, but the latter advanced its demands till it appropriated % of the Sar-Kishti and % of the P K crop. The straw fell generously to the share government, but the latter advanced its demands till it appropriated % of the Sar-Kishti and % of the P. K. crop. The straw fell generously to the share of the cultivator who was also permitted to steal a portion of his own produce by the overseer,—for a consideration. In the time of Zainu'l Añbidin, the rice crop (the staple) is said to have been 77 lakhs of kharwār. His weight-measures differ from those of Abul Fazl, a kharwār being 16 taraks, a tarak 6 3crs, a ser 20 pals, a pal 3½ Mahomed Shahi rupres, which (the rupre being 173-3 grains) should make the ser nearly 2 pounds. The actual ser was, however, not above one pound avoirdupois, and a kharwār or ass-load was therefore 96 pounds. A horse-load equalled 22 taraks.

* See pp. 347 and 411 of Vol. I, where further information is given regarding the evenue system, its exactions and the disturbances which led to the Qāzi's murder.

The cesses bāj and Tamghā, were altogether remitted by His Majesty, which produced a reduction of 67,824½ kharwārs, equivalent to 898,400 dāms. (Rs. 22,460). For the additional relief of the husbandman, five dāms on the price of a kharwār, were thrown in. Although the revenue, in kharwārs, of Asaf Khān was in excess of that of Qāzi Ali by 16,392 kharwārs, yet calculated by money the receipts are less, after deducting the remissions, by 860,034½ dāms (Rs. 21,500-13-7), because he estimated the kharwār in money which is of lower relative worth, above its value.

In the revenue returns forwarded by Qāzi Ali to the Imperial Exchequer, forty-one parganahs are taken while the return submitted by Asaf Khān contains but thirty-eight, there being thirty-eight in point of fact. For Qāzi Ali on a review of the question separated the two villages Karnā and Dārdu, of the parganah of Kamrāj, and dividing the parganah of Sāir i Mawāzi into two, constituted these into two parganahs. In former times certain selected towns of each parganah were denominated Sāiru'l Mawāzi (village-group) and were held as Khālisa. Qāzi Ali united forty villages of the Marāj side under the name of Parganahi Hāveli and retained eighty-eight villages of Kamrāj according to the former distribution, as parganah of Sāiru'l Mawāzi.

The whole kingdom was divided under its ancient rulers into two divisions, Marāj on the east, and Kamrāj on the west.

At the present day that a great part of the army in Kashmir has been withdrawn, the local militia consists of 4,892 cavalry and 92,400 infantry.

Sarkar of Kashmir.

Containing 38 Mahals. Revenue 3,011,618 kharwārs, 12 taraks, being equivalent to 62,113,040\frac{1}{2} dāms. (Rs., 1,552,826); out of which 9,435,006 kharwārs, 14 taraks is

Tanighā has been already defined at p 63 of this Volume, as being a demand in excess of the land revenue and bāj is simply a toll or tax and must here have a somewhat similar application, but there were various other taxes in excess of land revenue, such as Jihāt, Sāir Jihāt. Farua'āt and others whose nature is defined at p. 63. Elliot discusses the value of the terms at p. 6, Vol. II, of his Races of the North-West Provinces.

Tamphā occurs later under Kabul, signifying inland tolls.

^a Lands of which the revenue was the property of the government, not being made over in grants or gifts, Jägir or Inām to any other parties. Also lands and villages held immediately of government and of which the State is the manager or holder. Wilson, Gloss.

paid in money, equivalent to 12,501,880 dāms. (Rs. 312,547). Castes, various. Cavalry, 3,202. Infantry, 27,725.

The Maraj Tract.

Containing 22 Mahals. Revenue 1,792,819 kharwārs, equivalent to 35,796,122½ dāms, (Rs. 894,903), of which 670,551 kharwārs, 12 taraks are paid in money, equivalent to 8,885,248 dāms, (Rs. 222,131-3-2). Cavalry, 1,620. Infantry, 4,600.

City of Srinagar. Revenue 342,694 kharwārs, 12 taraks, in money, 342,996 kharwārs, 8 taraks; in kind, 1,698 kharwārs, 4 taraks.

Parganahs east of Srinagar, 3 Mahals.

			In kind	In money	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
			Khar- wārs Taraks	Khar- wārs Taraks			
Yech	**		144,102 0	62,034 4	5	50	Khamash?
Brang		•••	78,834 4	8,769 8	68	1000	and Zinal
Vihi	••		209,632 8	161,968 8	12	400	Bahtā, Brāhman.

Parganahs, north-east, 7 Mahals.

	In kind	In money	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Wular Phāk Dachhinpār Khāwarpār Khattār Maru Adwin 'Maru Wardwun, Vigne)	Khar- wārs Taraks 128,656 4 71,111 12 75,153 D 45,226 8 37,479 4	Khar- wārs Taraks 12,605 8 17,402 8 6,902 12 3,575 8 3,221 12 5,041 0	20 20 100 15 200 half	200 100 500 300 200	Dardah and Shāl. Khān. Khāwar. Dard.
Matan	190,431	18,62 }	bow- men 20	100	Bhāt.

Parganahs, south-east, 11 Mahals.

			ln kind		In money		Cavairy	Infantry	Castes
			Khar- wärs To	arak s	Khar- wārs T	arabs:			
Adwin		••	101,432	4	14,815	16*	1	100	Dard.
Yech	••	•••	96,369	ō	14,377	4	6	30	Brāhman.
Ranihāl	••		6,435				400	4000	Siher.
	••	• ••	40 horsel	oads	•••	!		1000	CHARL.
Bätu	••	••	3,515 besides tr	0 ansit	4,235	8	50	300	Nāik.
Devsar			85,644	8	822	8	300	000	Zinah.
Zinahpur		••	15.875	4	1,799	1	20		
Soparsaman		••	6,133 besides d on firewo		2,003	4	70	200	Kamboh.
Shādarah			39,167	0	8,550	12			Thakur.
Shukroh	••	••	45,224	ŏ	12,757	8	20	•••	Ashwär.
Nāgām	••	**	189,770	12	22,576	4	15	100	Bhās.
Ver	••	**	12,270	8	838	T !	500	5000	Sahsah.
ACI	••	••	12,210	•	000	!	~~~	3000	Sansan.

^{*}This must be a mistake for 12, as 16 taraks make a kha-wār: in the Arabic numerals the 2 and 6 are easily confounded. A horse load is 22 taraks.

1 Var. Sahah, Sansah, Nakhah.

Kamrāj Tract.

Containing 16 Mahals. Revenue 1,218,799 kharwārs, 12 taraks, equivalent to 26,316,918 dāms. (Rs. 657,922-15-2). In money, 272,9541 kharwārs, equivalent to 3,616,632 dāms. (Rs. 90,415-12-9). Cavalry, 1,590. Infantry, 16,965.

Parganahs, north-west.

			In kind	In money	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
Zinahkar Khoihāma		••	Khar- wars Taraks 13,253 0 83,670 12	K har- wars Taraks 32,55½ 0 15,522 0	50	100	Bhāt, Musalmān. Zinah.*

Var. Ahir.

Parganahs, south-west.

	In kind	In money	Cavalry	Infantry	Castes
	Khar- wārs Taraks	Khar- wārs Taraks			
Indarkol	9.553 4	7,238 0			Bhāt.
Desagner	18,830 12	3,352 8			Siyāhi.
Daton	4,799 4	523 0	30	110	Bhāt.
ratan	4,700 4	-	ر ا	***	Musalmān
Bānkal	115,233 12	20,280 4	200	500	Bakri.
Barni	57,098 12	13,383 0	35	30	Kahār.
Tallasan		4,435 4	30	30	Pandit.
			420		
Dinsu	53,2191	17,0381	150	400	Doni.
Dachhin Khāwarah ,.	36,222 4	20,653 0	25	300	Khasi, Kanku, Zinah.
Sāir u'l Mawāzi	192,641 4	18,553 IZ	•••		
Khoi	12,945 0	370	•••	15	Rawer.
Kamrāj	342,844 4	103,725 4	1000	10,000	Chak.
Karohan	115,474 0	29,779 12	•••	110	

SOVEREIGNS OF KASHMIR.

Fifty-three princes reigned during 1266 years.

T.

Ugnand.

Abhiman.

Damodar, his sons.

Thirty-five princes succeeded whose names are unknown.

11.

Lavah, (var. Lava.) Kishen, his son (var. Kish.) Kahgandra, his son. Surandra, his son. Godhara, of another tribe. Suran, his son. Janaka, his son. Shachinar, (var. Hashka, Bishka). Asoka, son of Janaka's paternal uncle. Jaloka, his son. Damodar, descendant of Asoka. Hashka, Zashka. three brothers. Buddhists. Kaniska.

III.

			37	16	D
Rājā	Ganand (Gonerda III) reigned		35	M. 0	D. 0
•	, , ,	•••		-	_
n	Bhikan (Vibhishana), his son	•••	53	_	0
,,	Indrajita, his son	•••	35	6	0
,,	Rāwana, his son	• • •	30	0	0
,,	Bhikan II, his son	•••	35	6	0
,,	Nara, (also called Khar), his son	• • •	39	9	0
,,	Sidha, his son		60	0	0
,,	Utpalāchah, his son	•••	30	6	0
,,	Hiranya, his son	•••	37	7	0
,,	Hirankal, his son	•••	60	0	0
,,	Abaskaha, his son	• • •	60	0	0
23	Mihirkal, his son	• • •	70	0	0
,,	Baka (Vaka), his son		63	0	13
,,	Khatnanda, his son	•••	30	0	0
,,	Vasunanda, his son	•••	52	2	0
11	Nara, his son	• • •	60	0	0
,,	Aja (Aksha), his son	•••	60	0	0
11	Gopāditya, his son (MSS. Kopārat)	•••	60	O	6
n	Karan, his son		57	0	11
,,	Narendraditya, his son		36	3	10
"	Yudishthira, his son	•••	4 8	0	10

IV.

Six princes reigned 192 years.

Pratapāditya, said to be	a descendant	t of			
Vikramāditya	•••	• • •	32	0	0
Jaloka, his son	• • •	•••	32	0	0
Tanjir, (Tunjina) his son	• • •	• • •	36	0	0
Bijai, relation to above	• • •	•••	8	0	0
Jayandra, (var. Chandra),	his son	•••	37	0	0
Ārya Rāj	***	•••	47	0	0

V.

Ten princes reigned 592 years, 2 months	s, 1 d	ay.	
	Y.	M	. D.
Meghavāhana, a descendant of Judishthira	34	0	0
Srishtasena, his son	30	0	0
Hiran, his son	30	2	0
Mātrigupta, Brāhman	4	9	1
Pravarasena, a descendant of Meghavahana	63	0	0
Judishthira, his son	39	8	0
Lakshman, called also Nandradit	13	0	0
Lakshman, called also Nandradit Ranaditya, his younger brother	30	0	Ō
Vikramāditya, his son	42	0	0.
Bālāditya, his younger brother, no issue	36	0	Ŏ
Seventeen princes reigned 257 years, 5 monte Durlabhavardhan, son-in-law of Bālādit Pratapāditya, grandson of his daughter Chandrapira, his eldest son Tārāpira, his brother Lalitāditya, another brother Kuvalayāpirā, his son Vajrāditya, his brother Prithivyāpirā, his son Sangrāpirā, grandson of Lalitāditya by a son	36 50 8 4 36 1 7 4	0 0 0 0 7 0 0 1 0	0 0 8 24 11 15 0 0
Jayāpira, ditto	31	0	0
Jajja, his brother-in-law	some	mo	onths
Lalitāpira, his son	12	0	0
Sangrāmapira, his brother	37	0	0
Brihaspati, son of Lalitāpira	12	0	0
Ajitāpira, or Ajayāpira, son of Prabhubāpira	36	0	0
Anangāpira, son of Sangrāmapira	3	Ō	Ō
Utpalāpira, son of Ajayāpira.	-	_	•

VI.

risteen princes reignea by years, 1	montn,	10	iays.
Avanti Varmā, of the Chamār caste	•••	2 8	8 3
Sankar Varmā, his son	•••	18	7 19
Gopāl Varmā	•••	2	0.0
Sankat, said to be his brother	•••	0	0 10

	Y.	M.	D.
Sugandhā Rāni, mother of above-mentioned			
Gopāl	2	0	0
Pārtha, son of Sukh Varmā	$1\overline{5}$		
Mārjit Varmā, son of Sukh Varmā, his			
brother	1	1	0
Chakra Varmā	10		_
Sura Varmā, his brother	1	0	
Pārtha, son of Mārjit	1	4	0
Chakra Varmā, second time	0	6	0
Sankar Vardhana, son of Mir Vardhana	3	0	0
Chakra Varmā, third time	3 2	0	0
Unmatt Avanti Varmā, son of Rājā Pārtha	2	2	0
Surma (Sura) Varma, second time, last of			
the Chamar princes	0	6	0
*			
VII.			
γ ει.			
Ten princes reigned 64 years, 3 months,	14 d	ays.	,
Jasasra (Jasaskar) Dev, a peasant	9		0
Buranit, an uncle's descendant	0	0	1
Sangrāma Deva, son of Jasaskar	0		7
Parva Gupta, one of his subjects	1		0
Khema (Kshema) Gupta	8		
Abhiman, his son	14	ð	
Nanda Gupta, his son		1	8
Tribhuvana		0	7
Bhimā Gupta, son of Abhiman	4		20
Diddā Rāni, mother of Abhiman	23	6	0
m	nths	17	davs.
Twenty-seven princes reigned 351 years, 6 mon			
Sangrāma, son of Adirāj, nephew of the Rān	i 24	2	0
Harirājā, his son	U	v.	22
Ananta, his son	5	5	0
Kalasa Deva, his son	26		0
Utkarsā, his son			222
Harsha, son of Kalasa	. 19		
Uchal orandfather of Harsha	. 10		
Riddha, son of Siddha, one of the murderers	3		night
of Uchal	, a.		hours
Salhan, brother of Uchal	•	0 8	3 27

	Y.	M.	D.
Susalha, brother of Salhan	7	10	0
Bhekhyājar, son of Haras		6 :	
Rājā Susalha, second time	2		
Jaya Singh, son of Susalha	27		
Parmānak, son of above	9	_	
Dati (var. and G. Danji Deva), his son	9		
Jas Deva, his younger brother	18		
Chag (Jag) Deva, son of above	14		
Rājā Deva, his son	23	3	7
Sangrāma Deva, his son	16	0 3	10
Rāma Deva, his son	21		
Lachhman (Lakshman) Deva, son of a			-
Brāhman	13		
Sinha Deva, chief of Labdar of Daskhinpārah	14		
Sinha Deva, brother of above	19		26
Rinjan of Tibet, a native of that country	10		
		non	
Adin Deva, relation of Sinha Deva	15		
Rāni Kotā Devi, wife of Adin Deva	0	6 1	.5
Thirty-two princes reigned 282 years, 5 month	hs, 1	day	٧.
A.H. A.D.	Y.	M.	D.
715 1315 Sultān Shamsu'ddin, minister of			
Sinha Deva		11	
750 1349 ,, Jamshid, his son		10	
752 1351 ,, Alāu'ddin, son of Shams-			
uddin	12	8	13
765 1363 , Shahābu'ddin	20	0	0
785 1386 ,, Qutbu'ddin, son of Hasan-			
uddin	15	5	2
799 1396 ,, Sikandar, his son whose			
name was Sankār	22	9	6
819 1416 , Ali Shāh, his son	6	9	0
826 1422 ,, Zainul Abidin, younger			_
brother of Ali Shāh	52		0
877 1472 ,, Hāji Haidar Shāh, his son	1		0
878 1473 , Hasan Khān, his son	12		0 5
	_		_
891 1486 ,, Muhammad Shāh, his son	2	7	0
902 1496 , Fath Shah, son of Adam	2	7	0
	2 9		0

				Y . :	М.	D.
911	1505	Sultan	Muhammad Shāh, a second time		<u>l</u>	_
		**	Fath Shah, a second time	0	9	8
		"	Muhammad Shāh, a third	-	1	U
			time	11	11	11
040	1505	53	Ibrahim, his son		8	
942	1535	17	Nāzuk Shāh, son of Fath			
			Shāh, (Ferishta, "son of Ibrahim, son of			
			of Ibrahim, son of Muhammad Shāh'')	1	Λ	Δ
			Muhammad Shāh, a fourth	1	0	U
		,,	time	34	8	10
		,,	Shamsi, son of Muhammad	-		
			Shāh	0	2	0
		**	Ismāil Shāh, his brother	2	9	0
		**	Nāzuk Shāh, a second time	13	9	0
- 45		,,,	Ismāil Shāh, a second time	1	5	0
948	1541		Haidar Gurgān	10	0	0
			Nāzuk Shāh, a third time	1	0	0
			Khān, son of Kāji Chak	10	6	0
971	1563	Husain	Chak, his brother	6	10	0
			ak, brother of Husain Chak	8	9	0
986	1578		Shāh, his son	1	0	2 0
			Mubarak Shah, one of his		4	05
		noble		0	1	25
			Chak, son of Sikandar, son	1	2	0
			āji Chak	1 5	3	0
		Vacuh	Shāh, a second time Khān, his son	1	0	Ö
		Lagui	abrement MED DVIII	_	9	•

Thus this series of 191 princes, reigning throughout a period of 4,109 years, 11 months and 9 days, passed

away.

When the Imperial standards were for the first time borne aloft in this garden of perpetual spring, a book called Rāj Tarangini written in the Sanskrit tongue containing an account of the princes of Kashmir during a period of some four thousand years, was presented to His Majesty. It had been the custom in that country for its rulers to employ certain learned men in writing its annals. His Majesty who was desirous of extending the bounds of knowledge appointed capable interpreters in its translation which in a

short time was happily accomplished. In this work it is stated that the whole of this mountainous region was submerged under water and called Sati Sar. Sati is the name of the wife of Mahadeva, and Sar signifies a lake. One day of Brahmā comprises 14 manvantaras. Up to the 40th year of the Divine Era, of the seventh manuantara. at which time Kashmir began to be inhabited, 27 (kalpas) each of four cycles (yug) as before mentioned, have elapsed and of the twenty-eighth three cycles, and of the fourth cycle, 4,701 solar years. And when, according to the legend which they relate, the waters had somewhat subsided, Kasyapal who is regarded as one of the most sublime amongst ascetics. brought in the Brahmans to inhabit the new region. When men began to multiply they sought to have a just ruler over them, and experienced elders, solicitous of the public weal met together in council and elected to the supreme authority one who was distinguished for his wisdom, his large understanding, his comprehensive benevolence and his personal courage. From this period dates the origin of their monarchical government which proceeded thus to the time of Ugnand 4,044 years prior to this the 40th year of the Divine Era.2 Ugnand fell by the hand of Balbhadra, the elder brother of Kishan in the battle fought at Mathurā between Kishan and Jarasandha rājā of Behār. Dāmodara (his son), to avenge his death marched against some of the relations of Kishan who were hastening to a marriage festival in Oandahar, and was killed fighting on the banks of the Sind. His wife being then pregnant and the astrologers foretelling that it would prove a son, Kishan bestowed on him the government of the province. Thirty-five princes succeeded, but through their tyranny their names are no more remembered. When Lavah ascended the throne, justice was universally administered and deeds met their just recognition. He founded in Kamrāj the great city of Lavabur the

¹ According to Tiessenthaler, he was called Cashapmir, from Cashapa grandson of Brahma and mer, a mountain or habitation. Baber mentions in sis Memoirs that the hill country along the upper course of the Indus was farmerly inhabited by a race called Kās from whom he conjectures that Kashmir received its name. The Kasta regio of Ptolemy applies to the race and seems to confirm his conjecture. Kasyapa was the son of Marichi the son of Brahma, and was father of Vivaswat the father of Mann. His name signifies a tortoise which form he assumed as Prajapati, the father of all, and had a large share in the work of creation. He was one of the seven great Rishis.—Dowson.

As the 40th year of Akbar's reign is A.H. 1003, commencing 5th Dec. 1594 and ending 25th Nov. 1595 A.D. the date of Ugnand would be B.C. 2449.

ruins of which are still to be traced. It is said to have held 800,000,000 houses. As the sage of Ganjah' well says:

House linked to house from Ispahan to Rai Like jointed canes, I've heard, stretch countlessly, So that a cat might trace the distant span From roof to roof twixt Rai and Ispahan; But if the tale my credit doth belie. The teller is its surety, faith not I.

When the succession devolved on Asoka the son of Janaka's paternal uncle, he abolished the Brahmanical religion and established the Jain faith.* His personal virtues adorned his reign, and his son Rājā Jaloka was distinguished for his justice, and his conquests were limited only by the ocean. On his return from Kanaui, then the capital of Hindustan, he brought with him a number of learned and enlightened men and of these his sagacity and perception of worth selected seven individuals. them he entrusted the administration of justice; to another the revenue department; to a third the finances; to a fourth the superintendence of the troops; the fifth took charge of the department of commerce; the sixth controlled the material resources of the state, and the seventh interpreted the mysteries of the stars. He had also a knowledge of alchemy. It is said that a huge serpent ministered to his commands, mounted upon which he could descend below water for a long space. Sometimes he appeared as an old man, and at other times, as a youth, and marvellous tales are related of him. Buddhism became prevalent about this

Daniodar (II) is said by some to have been one of the descendants of Asoka. He was a pious devout prince but was transformed into a snake through the curse of an ascetic. In the reign of Raja Nara the Brahmans prevailed over the Buddhists and levelled their temples to the ground. Raja, Mihirkal was a shameless tyrant, but by the strange freaks of fortune he made extensive conquests. As he was once returning homewards by the pass of Hastibhanj, an elephant lost its footing, and its screams and manner of falling caused him such amusement that he ordered a hundred ele-

which modern scholars have rejected.

Shaikh Nizāmi, who was born in that town. The lines occur in the Heft Palkar, one of the Khamsah or Five poems of Nizāmi.

* See Thomas's Juinaism or the Early Fatth of Asoka for this theory,

phants to be precipitated in a similar manner. From this circumstance the pass received its name, hasti signifying elephant, and bhanj, injury. During his reign, a large rock blocked up the ferry of a river, and, however much it was cut away, it yet increased again during the night to its ordinary dimensions. Remedies were proposed in vain. At length a voice came forth intimating that if touched by the hand of a chaste woman, the rock would displace itself. Time after time it was touched by women in succession, and when no effect was produced, he ordered the women to be put to death for incontinence, the children for bastardy, and the husbands for consenting to the evil, until three krors of human beings were massacred. The miracle was at length effected by the hand of a chaste woman, a potter by trade and caused great wonder. The Raja being afflicted by various diseases, burnt himself to death.

Rājā Gopadit possessed considerable learning and his justice increased the extent of his sway. The slaughtering of animals was forbidden throughout his dominions and high and low abstained from eating flesh. The temple which now stands on Solomon's Hill was built by his minister.

Rājā Judishthira in the beginning of his rule administered the state with an impartial hand, but in a short space through his licentious conduct and intimacy with base associates, his subjects became estranged from him, and the kings of Hindustān and Tibet were arrayed against him. The chiefs of Kashmir threw him into prison.

During the reign of $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ Tanjin (Tunjin) snow fell when the sun was in Leo (July, August). The crops were destroyed and a terrible famine threw the country into disorder.

Rājā Jayandra possessed a minister wise, loyal and virtuous, and void of levity and dissimulation. His equals bore him envy, and the wicked at heart but specious in appearance, sought his ruin and undermined his influence by underhand misrepresentations. As princes are on these occasions apt to err and do not investigate closely, forgetful of former experiences of what envy can effect, the minister was overthrown, and banished in disgrace. His strange destiny, however, did not deprive him of his composure. He allowed not grief to encompass him, but gladdened his days with cheerfulness of heart. His wicked enemies represented him as aiming at the throne, and the Rājā,

ignorant of the real facts, ordered him to be impaled. After some time had elapsed, his spiritual preceptor happened to pass that way and read on the frontal bone of his skull that he was destined to disgrace and imprisonment and to be impaled, but that he should again come to life and obtain the sovereignty. Amazed at learning this, he took down the body and secretly kept it and continued in supplication to the Almighty. One night the spirits gathered round and by their incantations restored the corpse to life. In a short time he succeeded to the throne, but his experience of life soon induced him to withdraw into retirement.

Meghavāhan was renowned for his virtues and gave peace and security to Hindustan as far as the borders of the ocean. After the death of Rāiā Hiran without issue, the chiefs of Kashmir paid allegiance to Rājā Bikramājit the ruler of Hindustan. Rājā Mātrigupta was a learned Kashmiri Brāhman. Bikramājit profited by his wisdom but did not advance his temporal interests. He, however, gave him a sealed letter to convey to Kashmir and furnishing him with a small sum of money for his expenses as he started, despatched him on his mission. The Brahman set out with a heavy heart. On his arrival in Kashmir, the letter was opened. It ran thus. 'The bearer has rendered important services at my Court and has experienced many reverses of fortune. On the receipt of this letter, let the government of the country be entrusted to him, and be this mandate obeyed under fear of the royal displeasure.' The chiefs met in council and vielded their submission.

Rājā Pravarasena had withdrawn from the country and lived in retirement in Hindustān. A devout and enlightened servaut of God predicted to him the good tidings of his future elevation to a throne. On the faith of this, he went to Nagarkot and possessed himself of that place. On hearing of the death of Bikramājit, Mātrigupta abdicated and setting out for Benares lived in seclusion. Pravarasena was universally distinguished for his justice and liberality. He founded Srinagar! the sapital of the country and

The old capital previous to the erection of Pravarasenapura is stated to have been founded by Asoka (Rāf Tarangini, i, 104), (B.C. 263—226). It stood on the site of the present PIndrethān and is said to have extended along the bank of the river from the foot of the Takht i Sulaimān to Pāntasok, a distance of more than three miles. It was still the capital in the reign of Pravarasena I, towards the end of the 5th century when the king erected a famous symbol of the god Siva, named after himself Pravaraswara. The new capital was built by Pravarasena, II, in the beginning of the 6th century. Anct. Geog. India, 97.

rendered it populous during his reign with 600,000 houses. With surpassing munificence he sent to Mātrigupta the aggregate of eleven years' revenue of Kashmir which that personage bestowed upon the indigent. Rājā Ranāditya was a just prince and made many conquests. In the neighbourhood of Kishtawār near the river Chenāb, he entered a cave with all his family and many of his courtiers, and was seen no more; many strange legends are related regarding him. Rājā Bālāditya invaded Hindustān and extended his dominions to the borders of the sea.

In the reign of Rājā Chandrapira the wife of a Brāhman appeared to him claiming justice, saying, that her husband had been killed and the murderer was undiscovered. He asked her if she suspected any one, to which she replied that her husband was of an amiable disposition and had no enemy, but that he often had disputations on points of philosophy with a certain person. This man was brought up but strenuously denied the accusation, and the complainant would not accept an ordeal by fire or water lest the man should employ some supernatural means of escaping it. The Rājā in his perplexity could neither eat nor sleep. An enlightened sage appearing to him in a vision taught him an incantation to be uttered over rice-meal scattered about. upon which the suspected person was to walk. If the footsteps of two people were observed as he passed over it, he was not to be suffered to escape. Through this suggestion the truth was discovered and punishment duly meted out. But as a Brāhman could not be put to death, an iron image of a man without a head was made and his forehead branded therewith.

Rājā Lalitāditya devoted himself to the prosperity of his kingdom and in the strength of the divine aid overran Irān, Turān, Fārs, Hindustān, Khata, and the whole habitable globe, and administered his dominions with justice. He died in the mountains of the north, and it is said that he was turned into stone by the curse of an ascetic, but others relate the story differently.

Rājā Jayāpira reached a lofty pitch of glory and his conquests were extensive. Ninety-nine thousand nine hundred and ninety-nine horses were bestowed by him in charity at Benares, and his gifts to the poor were on the same munificent scale. He asked of the elders whether the army of his grandfather Lalitāditya or his own were the

larger. They answered that his contained but 80,000 litters, whereas 125,000 of such conveyances were arrayed under his grandfather's standard, by which proportion he might judge of the numerical strength of his other retinue. When he had proceeded some distance on his march of conquest, his brother-in-law, Jajja, who was in Kashmir disputed the throne. The nobles of the king, in anxious fear for their wives and children, betrayed him and preferred their outward reputation before their true honour. The Rājā hastened alone to Bengal, and with the aid of troops from that country, repossessed himself of his kingdom, Jajja being slain in battle.

Rājā Lalitāpira took low companions into favour and associated with buffoons, and his wise councillors withdrew from the court. His minister finding remonstrance of no avail, retired from office.

Rājā Sankar Varmā conquered Gujarāt and Sind, and overran the Deccan, but left it in the possession of its ruler. Although in the beginning of his reign he followed a virtuous course, he lacked perseverance. The intoxication of worldly prosperity plunged him into every vice.

During the reign of Rājā Jasaskardeva, a Brāhman lost a purse of a hundred gold mohurs. Under the impulse of violent grief he resolved to make away with himself. The thief hearing of this, asked him how much he would be satisfied to take, if he discovered the purse. The Brāhman answered, "Whatever you please." The thief offered him ten mohurs. The Brāhman, sore at heart, appealed to the Rājā who inquired into the case, and sending for the thief ordered him to restore ninety mohurs, intending by this, that the amount the thief desired to keep for himself, should be the portion of the Brāhman.

In the reign of Sinhadeva, a Muhammadan named Shāh Amir who traced his descent to Arjun the Pandava was in the royal service. About this time Dalju the chief commander under the king of Qandahār, attacked and plundered the kingdom. The Rājā took refuge in the mountain passes and levied forcible contributions on the people, and sent them to him and entreated him as a supplicant. The invader withdrew, dreading the severity of the weather, and many of his troops perished in the snow. About the same time also, Rinjan, the son of the ruler of Tibet invaded the country which was reduced to great

distress. On the death of the Raja, the sovereignty devolved on Rinjan who was distinguished for his munificence. He appointed Shah Mir his minister whose religion, through intimacy and association with him, he eventually adopted.

When Rājā Adindeva died, the aforesaid Shāh Mir by specious flattery and intriguing, married his widow. In the year 742, A.H. (1341-2, A.D) he caused the khutbah to be read, and the coin to be minted in his own name and assumed the title of Shamsu'ddin and levied a tax of onesixth on all imports into Kashmir. It had been revealed to him in a dream that he would obtain the sovereignty of the kingdom.1

Sultan Alau'ddin issued an ordinance that an unchaste woman should not inherit of her husband.

Sultān Shahābu'ddin encouraged learning and proclaimed an equal administration of the laws. Nagarkot, Tibet and other places were overrun by him.

During the reign of Sultan Qutbu'ddin Mir Sayyid Ali Hamadani arrived in Kashmir and was received with great favour.

Sultān Sikandar was a rigid follower of religious tradition and a bigot. He overthrew idolatrous shrines and persecuted people not of his faith. During his reign, Timur invaded Hindustan and sent him two elephants. Sikandar desired to pay his homage to that conqueror, but on his road to the interview he learnt that it was reported in Timur's camp that the sovereign of Kashmir was bringing with him a present of a thousand horses. Concerned at the untruthfulness of this rumour he returned and sent his excuses. Ali Shah appointed (his brother) Zainul Abidin regent in his stead and set out for Hijāz. By the persuasion of foolish and evil advisers² and through inconstancy of purpose, he returned with the view of recovering his authority in Kashmir and aided by the Rājā of Jammu he took possession

*These, states Ferishta, were his father-in-law the Jammu Rājā, and the chief of Rajauri.

¹ Such is the literal translation according to the punctuation of the text which I suspect is in error. Ferishta states that Shamsu'ddin abolished the exactions of his predecessors and having repaired the ruin, caused by the invasion and exactions of Dalfu, by written orders fixed the revenue at 1/6th of the produce. The text as corrected runs as follows: "Assumed the title of Shamsu'ddin and fixed the revenue at one-sixth of the produce. Before his arrival in Kashmir, it had been revealed to him in a dream that he would obtain &c."

of the kingdom. Zainul Abidin set out for the Panjab and joined Jasrat of the Khokhar! tribe. Ali Shāh collecting a large army advanced into the Panjab and a great battle took place in which Ali Shāh was defeated and fell into obscurity while Zainul Abidin recovered the sovereignty of Kashmir. Jasrat leaving Kashmir advanced against Delhi but defeated by Sultan Bahlol Lodi retreated to Kashmir and with the assistance of an army from its monarch, conquered the Panjāb.

Zainul Abidin overran Tibet and Sind. He was a wise prince, devoted to philosophical studies and it was his fortune to enjoy universal peace. He was regarded by high and low as a special servant of God and venerated as a saint. He was credited with the power of divesting himself of his corporeal form, and he foretold that under the dynasty of the Chaks, the sovereignty of Kashmir would be transferred from that family to the monarchs of Hindustan, which prediction after a period of years was accomplished. His benevolence and love of his people induced him to abolish the capitation tax (levied on other than Muslims) and to prohibit the slaughtering of cows, as well as penalties and presents of all kinds. He added somewhat to the measure of the Jarib. His private revenues were drawn from copper mines. He often personally administered medicinal remedies2 and resolved all difficult undertakings with ease. Robbers were employed in chained gangs on public works. His gentleness of disposition dissuaded men from the pursuit of game, and he himself ate no flesh or meat. He caused many works to be translated from the Arabic, Persian, Kashmiri and Sanskrit languages. During his reign musicians from Persia and Turkestan flocked to his court; among them Mulla Uudi the immediate pupil of the famous Khwajah Abdu'l Qadir arrived from Khurasan, and Mulla Jamil who in singing and painting was pre-eminent among his contemporaries. Sultan Abu Said Mirza sent him presents of Arab horses and dromedaries from Khurāsān

According to Ferishta Jasrat Shaikha Ghakar imprisoned by Timur in Samarkand, escaped and founded or acquired a principality in the Panjab. Zianu'l Aabidin with his aid defeated Ali Shah who, according to one account was taken prisoner by Jasrat, and to another was excelled from Kashmir by his successful brother. This freebooter gave considerable trouble to the Sayyid dynasty and held his own against Rahlol Lodi when that chief governed Multan under Sayyid Muhammad. See Vol. I, 456, n. for the Gakkhars (as it is there spelt) and the reference to Delmerick's history of this tribe.

* Ferishta says that for the encouragement of the study of medicine, he specially favoured Sri Bhat an eminent physician, by whose advice, the Brahmans, expelled under Sikandar the Iconoclast, were recalled.

and Bahlol Lodi king of Delhi and Sultā Mahmud of Gujarāt were in friendly alliance with him.

Sultān Hasan, collecting an army invaded the Panjāb and encountering Tārtār¹ Khān (Lodi) in several actions devastated the country.

In the reign of Fath Shāh, Mir Shamsu'ddin one of the disciples of Shāh Qāsim Anwār,² came from Irāq and promulgated the Nur Bakhshi doctrines, from which period date the dissensions between Sunnis, and Shias in this country.

During the third reign of Muhammad Shāh when he recovered the kingdom by the help of Sultān Sikandar (Lodi of Delhi), Bābar invaded Hindustān.

During Sultan Ibrahim's domination, Abdul Makri represented to Sultan Babar that Kashmir might be conquered with little difficulty. Shaikh Ali Beg, Muhammad Khān and Mahmud Khān were therefore despatched to that country and obtained some success, but the intrigues of the people prevented a settlement and they returned with gifts and presents and Nāzuk Shāh succeeded to the government, Under the reign of Muhammad Shāh for the fourth time, the emperor Humayun ascended the throne of Delhi, and when Mirzā Kāmrān' was at Lahor, the officers formerly despatched to Kashmir (Ali Beg and Muhammad Khān) persuaded him that Kashmir could be taken with little trouble. The Mirzā therefore, despatched Mahram (Beg) Kokah with a body of troops to that country which they occupied. Massacres were frequent and their intolerable tyranny drove the people to rise till the Mughal chiefs sued for terms and withdrew. In the year A.H. 930, (1523-4) by command of Sultan Said Khan of Kashghar, his son

4 Brother of the Emperor, governor of Kabul and Qandahār, to whom Hamāyan had ceded the government of the Panjāb and the Indus frontier.

¹ The Delhi governor of the Punjāb and the country at the foot of the hills.
² Penshta places the accession of Path Shāh in A.H. 894 (A.D. 1488-9), about which time occurred the arrival of Shāh Qāsim son of Sayvid Muhammad Nur Bakksh, and the establishment of his doctrines as the prevailing creed. All religious grants and places of worship were that of this sect, among the most illustrious converts to which were the Chak trib.

the most illustrious converts to which were the Chak tribe

Be was the son of Ibrahim Mākri who was minister in chief to Muhammad Shāh during his second reign. Abdāl Mākri his son played a considerable part in the stirring events of this time and was eventually driven from court by the intrigues of the minister Malik Kāji. He went to India and incited Bābar to the conquest of Kashmir. Fearing that the inhabitants would be opposed to the foreign rule of the Mughals, the enthronement of Nāzuk the son of Ibrāhim was adopted as a pretext to conciliate the Kashmiris, who, on his instalment in authority, dismissed the troops of Bābar with conciliatory gifts.

Sikandar Khān and Mirzā Haidar advanced into Kashmir at the head of 10,000 troops by way of Tibet and Lār, and taking an enormous booty retired after a short time under terms of peace. In the year A.H. 948 (1541-2) entered Kashmir, by command of Humāyun a second time country, as has been related in former accounts, and took possession of a part of Great Tibet. Kāji Chak came to Hindustān and bringing with him the aid of an army from Sher Khān, engaged Mirzā Haidar but was defeated. The measures, so that he succeeded in having the Khutbah read and the coin minted in the name of Humāyun, the Kashmiris having previously read the Khutbah in the name of Nāzuk Shāh.

At the present time under the sway of His Imperial Majesty it is the secure and happy abode of many nationalities, including natives of Persia and Turkestan as well as of Kashmir.

CORRECT LIST OF RULERS OF KASHMIR.*

Historical Kings of Kashmir.

Kanishka.

Gananda III.

Mihir Kula.

Karkota dynasty.

Durlabha Vardhana

Pratāpāditya II or Durla-

bhaka.

Chandrapida ...

Tārāpida.

Lalitaditva Muktapida ... 736, 747.

Kuvalayapida

Vajrāditya

Bāppiyaka

Bappiyaka Prithivyapida

Samgrāmapida

Samgramapiqa

Jayapida

attested by coin or other evidence.

627-649 A.D.

713. 720.

end of the 8th Century.

Kalhana's Chronicle un-

Cippata Jayapida ... 826-838

^{*} Camb. Hist. of India, iii. 277-293.

Ajitapida	400	•••	850/1.	
Anangapida				
Utpalapida				
Line of Utpala	• • •	•••	855/856—939 A.D.	
Utpala		•••	died 853.	
Sukhayarman	•••		r. 855-56.	
Avantivarman			856-883.	
Sankaravarman			883-902.	
Gopālvarman		•••	902-904.	
Sankata	•••	•••	rule for 10 days in 904	
Sugandhā, Gopālvarman's				
widow	Span van man		defacto ruler 904-'6.	
Pärtha	•••	•••	906-921.	
Pangu	•••	•••	921-923.	
Chakravarman	• • •	•••	923-933, 935-937.	
Suravarman I		•••	933-934.	
Unmattāvanti	•••	•••	937-939.	
Suravarman II		***	939,	
		•••	939-949.	
Line of Viradeva		•••	939-948.	
Yasaskaradeva		***	948-49.	
Sangrāmadeva		***		
Line of Abhinava	•••	***	949-1003.	
Parvagupta	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•••	949-950.	
Kshemagupta(Diddā-Kshemā)			950-958.	
Abhimanyu	•••	•••	958-972 .	
Nandig a pta	• * •	•••	973.	
Tribhuvana		•••	973-975.	
Bhimagupta	• • •		975-980.	
Diddā	• • •	•••	980-811003.	
Lohara dynasty		•••	1003-1171.	
Sangrāmarāja	***	•••	1003-1028 A.D.	
Harirāja	• • •	•••	Rule for 22 days.	
Ananta	•••	•••	1028-1063 A.D.	
Kalasa	•••		1063-1089.	
Utkarsa	•••	•••	1089.	
Harsa	•••		1089-1101.	
Period of civil war and inter-				
necine strife			1101-1339.	
Uccala			1101-11,	
Salhana	•••	•••	1111-12.	
Sussala	•••	•••	1112-28.	
Jayasinha	•••	•••	1128-1155.	
Paramānuka	•••	•••	1155-1165.	
Vantideva	•••	•••		
A WILFIGE AS	***	•••	1165-1171,	

Line of Buppadeva		1171-1286.
Buppādeva		1171-1180.
Jassaka	•••	1180-98.
Jagadeva		1198-1212-13.
Rājadeva	•••	1212-13-1235.
Sangrāmadeva	•••	1235-52.
Rāmadeva	•••	1252-73.
Laksmandeva	•••	1273-86.
	•••	
Sinhadeva	• • •	1286-1301.
Tibetan dynasty		
Rinchana	•••	1320-23 .
Udyāndeva	• • •	1323-38.
Kotadevi	• • •	1338.
Muslim Sultans of Kashmir.		
Shamsuddin Shah		1346-1349.
Jamshed	***	1349-1350.
A 1 4 4 1	•••	1350-59.
C1 11 =1 1 11	• • •	1010 1050
	•••	
Qutbuddin	• • •	1394-1416.
Sikandar	• • •	1416-1420.
Ali Shah	•••	1410-1420. 1420-1470.
Zain-ul-ābidin	•••	
Haidar Shah	***	1470—Dec. 1471 or
II Chal		Jany. 1472. 1472-1489.
Hasan Shah	***	
Muhammad Shah	***	
70 (1 01 1		1529-1534.
Fath Shah	•••	1489-1497, 1498-99.
Ibrāhim Shah, I		1526-27.
Nāzuk Shah		1527-29, 1540, 1551-52.
Shamsuddin Shah	•••	1534-1540 .
A new line.		
Mirza Haidar Shah	444	Nov. 1540-1551.
Ibrāhim Shah		1552-55.
Ismail Shah		1555-57.
Habib Shah		1557-61.
Ghāzi Shah	•••	1561-1563, 64.
Nāsiruddin Husain Shah	•••	1564-1569-70.
Ali Shah	***	1570-1579,
T 1 (N. 11		1579-80.
37 6 (31 .1	•••	1579, 1580-88.
	•••	1575, 1000-00. 1586-89
Yaqub Shah	• • •	1 21CA) - CS4

Peoples of Kashmir.

- Bakhri—a clan claiming Rajput origin, found in several districts of the Panjab, converted to Islam by Bahauddin Zakariya, Rose, Glossary of Panjab tribes and castes, II, 39.
- Khasa—Khasaka tribe, mod. Khakhas, Stein, Chron. II, 519.
- Khawar—Var. Kahu,—Either Kahoi, a Jat clan found in Amritsar and Multan, or Kahut, another Jat clan found in Gujrat and Rawalpindi districts, Rose, 245.
- Khamash—Rose mentions a Jat clan Khamah, resident in Multan, ibid, 491.
- Bat, Bhat, or Bhatta,—Jarrett's classification of them as Muhammadans is not tenable, for there are Hindu Bhats as well, Rose, *ibid*, 94-101.
- Kambah—Kamboh, "one of the finest cultivating tribes" found also in the Panjab, claiming descent from Raja Karan and saying that their ancestor fled to Kashmir. They belong to different religious pursuasions. Rose, II, 442-446.
- Doni-Either Dhunia, a weaver caste or Dun, so called from Duhna to milk, hence milkman, Rose, II, p. 251.
- Chak-Either a Kamboh clan or a sept of Jats, Rose, II, p. 146.
- Shal-conjectured Chahal, Rose, III.
- Siyahi—Sahi?, sometimes pronounced Chhahi in Ludhiana, a Jat tribe claiming descent from Solar Rajputs, Rose, III, p. 342. Shahiya?
- Rawar—is it Rayar, a Jat clan of Amritsar? Rose, III, 332.
- Sahasu-Sahasni?, a Jat clan of Amritsar, Rose, III, 342.
- Thakur—representing the high-caste population of Kashmir, Rose, III, p. 326-329.

NOTES ON PLACES IN KASHMIR.

(Compiled by Prof. N. B. Roy)

P. 351. Qambar Ver—possibly the hill of Kamelana Kotta (anc. Kramavarta), a watch-station on the Pir Pantsal

range. Stein, Chron. II, 292. P. 352. Hasti Bhanj—Stein (Chron. Book I, n. 302) derives the name from Sanskrit hasti, elephant and W. Panjabi vanj to go. He describes this route in J.A.S.B., 1895, pp. 376 sq., Chron. II, 394.

Tangtalali-5 miles n. of Pir Pantsal pass. For de-

tails Stein (Chron. II, 398).

P. 356. Behat-Vyath or Vitasta, embodiment of Parvati. Stein, Bk. I, 29, its legendary origin and course above Srinagar. Chron. II, 411, 415. Cam. Hist. Ind., III, 286.

Mar-ancient name Mahasarit. (Stein, Chron, ii. This stream drains the Dal lake to the east of the city of Srinagar, and carries off the surplus waters of the lake towards the Vitasta (Jhelum)

Lacham-Kul-canal of Srinagar (Stein, Chron. II.

457).

Sayyid Ali Hamadoni,—For anecdotes about him. Vigne, I, 82-83; shrine, Moorcroft, II, 120, Percy Brown, II, 83.

P. 357. Brang -modern Bring.

Sendhbrar-mod. Sundbrar. Stein identifies it with the spring of the goddess Samdhya. The spring flows during uncertain periods in the early summer, three times in the day and three times in the night. (Chron. I, note 33. Chron. II). Sendhbrar-Vigne writes about this tirtha saying, -on the 15th of Har (corresponding to 13th June), several thousand people are assembled, nearly naked—and wait for the rising of the water; those who are nearest to it, shaking peacock's feather over it as an act of enticement and veneration. When the basin perceptibly begins to fill, the immense multitude exclaim Sondi, Sondi, (it appears), and then they fill their brazen water-vessels, drink and perform their ablutions and return towards their home. Read Bernier's description, Travels, Brock's ed., II, p. 153.

P. 357. Kokar Nag-a tirtha in the Bring valley, situated a mile above the village of Bidar. The seven fountains inside the temple, mentioned by Abul Fazl, are the spring now known as Sweda Nag. (Stein, 1899, J.A.S.B., 181, Chron. II, 469.

Iron mine—Located by Vigne, I, 337, he describes the route from Shahabad to Sof-ahun where the principal or in fact the only iron works of the valley are to be seen.

Vej Brar—modern Vija-brar, one of the most famous tirthas of Kashmir, so called from the ancient shrine of Siva Vijayeshwar. The place being situated on the way to Martand and Amarnath, is much frequented even at the present day. (Stein, J.A.S.B., pp. 173-175. Chron. II, 463).

P. 358. Nandi-marg—a beautiful mountain down situated on the eastern slopes of the Pir Pantsal range, about 12 miles s.e. of Supyan, 33. 34 N. 75 E. Bates, Kashmir

Gazetteer, 287. Vigne, I, 299.

Pampur—mod. Pampar, ancient Padma-pur, the chief place of the Vihi pargana. Stein, Chron. II, 450; Stein, J.A.S.B., 167.

P. 359. Zewan-mod. Zevan, ancient Jaya-van, in the Vihi pargana. Here is a pool sacred to Takshaka, the lord of snakes, which is visited annually by pilgrims. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 166, Chron. Bk. I, 220 note, 166).

Khriu—mod. Khruv, ancient Khaduvi. Stein noted an abundance of fine springs in and about Khruv, and a mystical diagram called Sayambhu chakra, above the village which is held sacred to Jvalamukhi Durga, Chron. II, 459.

Maru Adwin—Madivād-van valley situated along the range that forms the eastern frontier of Kashmir, running from the Zoji-la almost due south towards Kastawar. (Stein, Chron. II, 435). Vigne (Travels, i. 354) noticed here a tank, 100 yards square.

Achh Dal—misreading for Achabal, a short distance from Sundabrar. Here was formerly a country-house of the kings of Kashmir, and then of the Mughal Emperors. See Bernier's Travels.

Khattar—mod. Kutahar, in the valley of Arapath or Harsapath which opens to the east of Islamabad. Stein derives the word from Kapateshwar, a tirtha on the southern side of the valley close to the village of Kother. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 179, Chron. II, 467).

Kotihar—mod. Kother, near Achabal. Here is the deep spring of Pāpa-sudan (or Remover of sin), mentioned by Kalhan. Siva is believed to have shown himself here in the disguise of pieces of wood floating on the water.

(Stein, J.A.S.B., 179). The route to this *tirtha* is described fully by Vigne (i. 351).

Wular—Vular, ancient Holada. It is situated in the pargana of the same name, comprising the valley opening to the n.e. of the Vitasta, between Dachunpor and Vihi. (Stein, Chron. I, Bk. I, note 306, II, 460, J.A.S.B. p. 168).

Matan—Martand tirtha, situated in the eastern portion of the Lidar valley, at a distance of about 2 miles from Islamabad. For a description of its most famous temple, Vigne (i. 385-391), Moorcroft (ii. 255-256), Percy Brown

(Ind. Arch. i. 181), Stein (J.A.S.B., 176-178).

P. 360. Well of Babylon—The reference is to the imprisonment of two angels, Harut and Marut, in a well in Demavand for their submission to sin and temptation. (Encyclo. Islam, ii. 272). Vigne says that at a distance of 150 yards from the temple there was the residence of a faqir whose duty was to superintend the existence of a well called the Chah-i-Babul. (Travels, I, 361).

Kharwar-para—mod. Khovur-pur. The source mentioned here is a small river that feeds the northern branch of the principal tributary of the Bebat. (Stein,

Chron. II, 465).

Dachchhin-para—mod. Dachunpor, a district situated east of the confluence of the Vitasta and the Gambhira, and comprising the whole western side of the Lidar valley, and also the low-lying tract between the Vitasta and the lower course of the Visoka. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 170, Stein, Chron. II, 461).

Amarnath—Situated north of the Lidar valley but south of the high peak, (about 10 miles east-south of Zoji-La) that marks the eastern boundary of Kashmir. For a description of this tirtha which is the most popular of Kashmirian pilgrimage places, read, Stein, J.A.S.B., p. 94, 163-4, Chron. Vigne, II, 7-8, Moorcroft, II, pp. 252-53.

P. 361. Dal lake—Situated east of Srinagar, and forming one of the most favoured spots of the Srinagar valley. The floating gardens which covered its surface in Abul Fazl's time are described by Stein, J.A.S.B., 105, Chron. II, 417, Moorcroft, II, 115, 137-140, Vigne, II, 90-91, Drew, Jammu and Kashmir, 186.

Thid—ancient Thed which was adorned by king Aryaraja with mathas, divine images and lingas. Stein, Chron. II, 135. The seven springs mentioned by Abul Fazi

still exist, but other remains do not, Stein, J.A.S.B., 1879, Chron. II, 454.

Shalamar—Shalimar, this bagh along with Nishat and Nasim, form the three most delightful places on the Dal lake, Drew, History of Jammu and Kashmir, 187, described by Vigne, Travels, Vol. II, 100-101, Stein, Chron. II, 456 fn.

Ishibari—mod. Isabar, lying a short distance from the Nishat garden and Suresvari Ksetra, still sacred to Durga-Suresvari who is worshipped on a high crag to the east of the village. Of the several springs in and about Isabar, two are mentioned by Abul Fazl,—Suryasar and Shakarnag, one of them might be what is stated by Stein to be Guptaganga, forming the chief attraction of the place and filling an ancient stone-lined tank in the centre of the village, Stein, J.A.S.B., p. 161, Stein, Chron. II, 455.

Rambal—mod. Ranyal, anc. Hiranyapur, north of Srinagar, situated at the foot of the ridge running down to the opening of the Sindh Valley. Stein mentions the existence of a spring to the south of the village. Stein, I.A.S.B., 163, Chron. II, 456.

P. 362. Banihal—anc. Bansala. Stein says nothing about the temple of Durga mentioned by Abul Fazl, but he refers to a group of peaks sacred to Brahma, Vishnu and Siva. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 71, Chron. II, 393). The pass of the same name has always been a convenient route of communication towards the Upper Chenab valley and the eastern Panjab hill states, Chron. II, 392.

Ver—Old name of Shahabad pargana, comprising the valley of the Sandran river (Stein, Chron. II, 469).

Vernag—Situated in the Sandran valley. The stone temples of Abul Fazl's time have disappeared; their materials having been partly used for the construction of a fine stone enclosure which Jahangir built around the spring. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 182, Chron. II, 411, 469. Vigne, Travels, i. 332. Moorcroft, ii. 249).

Kambar—Bates mentions a village Kammar in the Shahabad valley, near the left bank of the Sandran river. Below this village lies at present the ziarat of Qadam Rasul. Kas. Gaz., 223, nothing is said about the spring.

Devsar—mod. Devasar, anc. Deva-saras, drained by the Visoka. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 183, Chron. II, 470).

Balau—probably anc. Bilava, about 4 miles north-east of Drabgam, Stein, Chron. II, 473.

Veshau—mod. Visoka. Stein refers to a place named Gudar where a small stream called the Godavari falls down the hill, as a tirtha of some repute (J.A.S.B., 184).

Kuthar—Jarrett suggests Kausar-nag, a lake two miles long described by Stein (J.A.S.B., 71). Stein, Chron. II,

393.

P. 363. Shukroh—Jarrett's identification with Zuyru (4 m. n. of the capital) is far-fetched. Stein identifies it with the modern Sukru, where the ancient tirtha of Kalyanpur (mod. Kalampur) still stands, on the high road from Pir Pantsal to Srinagar. The fountain of the Ain is that at the mod. Buda-hrar (anc. Bheda-giri). (Stein, J.A.S.B., 186).

Nila-nag—situated in a valley between two spurs descending from the Pir Pantsal range. Stein points out that Abul Fazl has here made the mistake of transferring to this spring the legends of the famous Nila-nag at Vernag. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 190, Chron. II, 475).

Biruwa—mod. Biru (anc. Bahurupa), situated west of Dunts and towards the Pir Pantsal range. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 192).

Halthal-Halathal in Yech. Stein took it for Salasthal

(Chron. II, 475).

Lar—anc. Lahara, comprises the whole of the valleys drained by the Sind and its tributaries. (Stein, Chron. II, 488).

P. 364. Shahab-ud-dinpur—Shadipur, at the confluence of the Vitasta and the Sindhu, (Stein, Chron. II, 379).

Tulmula—mod. Tulamul (anc. Tulamalya) situated in the midst of the Sind delta. According to Stein, the spring here is still held sacred. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 210, Chron. II, 488).

Satpur--

Bhutesar—in the narrow gorge of the Kankanai river, which flows past the south foot of the spur. Two miles above Vangath are found the ruins of some 17 temples of various size and dimension. These ruins were identified by Stein with the temple of Bhutesar. (Stein, J.A.S.B., 211).

Khoihama-mod. Khuyahom (anc. Khuyasrama) stretching in a semi-circle round the north shore of the Volur

lake. (Stein, Chron. II, 488, J.A.S.B., 209).

Volur lake—anc. Mahāpadmasaras, 12 kos n.w. of Srinagar, a most striking physical feature in the western portion of Kashmir. For details, Stein, Chron. II, 423, Moorcroft, II, 111.

Zain Lanka—built by Sultan Zain-ul-abidin, in the midst of the Volur lake. (Stein, Chron. II, 423). Described by Moorcroft, II, 224.

Machhaniu—Stein suggests that the village of Ratasum represents it, though there is a pargana of the name Manchahom. (Chron. II, 477).

Paraspur—anc. Parihaspur, the capital of Lalitaditya. The plateau on which it stood, is "about two miles from north to south and its greatest breadth is not much over a mile." The Badrihel canal bounds it on the north. In the S.W. part are the ruins of two large temples, much decayed but still showing dimensions which considerably exceed those of the great temple of Martand. On that part of the Udar which lies to the n.e. and towards the Badrihel nala, there is a whole series of ruined structures. The four great temples of Vishnu Parihasa-Keshava, Mukta-Keshava, Mahavaraha, and Govardhan-dhara, as well as the Rajvihar with its colossal image of Buddha, must all be looked for among the ruins. Extremely decayed condition." (Stein, Chron. II, 477, sec. iv, 194-204).

P. 365. Kamraj—anc. Krama-rajya, as distinguished from Maraj (Madhya-rajya). In modern times it designates only the parganas to the west and north-west of the Volur lake (Stein, Chron. II, 436).

Trahgam—anc. Tri-gami, mod. Trigam, 1½ miles u.c. of the Paraspur ruins. (Stein, Chron. II, 329, 479).

Kargon-Kherigam, a short way from Sardi (Stein, Chron. II, 282).

Soyam—(derived from Swayambhu) half a mile southwest of the village of Nichahom, in the Machipur pargana, where volcanic phenomena are observed in a shallow hollow formed between banks of clay and sand. Hot vapours issue from fissures in the ground. (Stein, Chron. I, Bk. I, note 34).

Haehamun—mod. Hayahom, on the pilgrim route to Sarada (Stein, Chron, II, 280, 486).

Padmate miswritten for Madmati (= Madhumati). Stein suggests that Abul Fazl here confuses the Madhumati

with the Kishanganga, which (latter) alone flows from the Dard country. The notice of gold being found in the river, clearly refers to the Kishanganga, which drains a mountain region still known as auriferous. (Stein, Chron. II, 247).

Dardu-mod. Dard.

Sarada tirtha-situated on a small hill above the junction of the Kishanganga and the Madhumati. (Stein, Chron, I. Bk. I, note 37, for temple ii. 284-287).

P. 368. Phak—comprising the tract lying between the east shore of the Anchiar, the range towards the Sind valley and the hills which enclose the Dal on the east and the south.

Khattar-Kutahar pargana, comprising the valley Arupath or Harsapatha opening to the east of Islamabad. Stein, Chron. Vol. II, p. 467.

Matan-comprising the plateau on which the temple

of Martand stands. Stein, Chron. Vol. II, 466.

P. 369. Adwin-Adavin, lies north of Divasar, reaching from the western end of Khur-Naravao to the lower course of the Visoka. Stein, Chron. Vol. II, 471.

Itch = Yech—anc. Iksika, comprises the tract to the

immediate vicinity of Srinagar. Stein, Chron. II, 475.

Batu-Bot, adjoining Adavin on the north-east, Stein,

Chron. II. 472.

Devsar-Divasar, adjoins the pargana of Shahabad Ver on the west and comprises the tract of alluvial plain drained by the Vesau, Stein, Chron. II, 470.

Zinahpur-Zainapur, comprising the northernmost

portion of Adawin, Stein, Chron. II, 471.

Soparsaman—Suparsamun, comprising the villages lying at the foot of the spurs descending into the plain west and north-west of Supiyan. Stein, Chron. II, 472.

Nagam-(anc. Nagram), situated north of Chrath

Pargana, Stein, Chron. II. 474. Zinahkar—Zaingir, comprises the fertile Karewa tract between the Volus and the left bank of the Pohur River, Stein, Chron. II, 487.

Khoihama—Khuyahom, stretches in a semi-circle round the north shore of the Volur lake. Stein, Chron. II.

488, Bates, 233.

P. 370. Indarkol-Mod. Andarkoth, (anc. Jayapura) comprises the marshy tract south of the Volur. Stein, Chron. II, 480).

Paraspor—comprising the well-defined little tract lying between the marshes on the left bank of the Vitasta immediately to the south-west of Shadipur. Stein, Chron. II, 300. According to Stein, the Paraspor Udar, until some sixteen years ago, continued to form a separate pargana, ibid, p. 333.

Patan—Anc. Samkarapur, situated on the direct road between Srinagar and Baramula. Stein, Chron. Vol. II, 481.

Bankal—Bangil, anc. Bhangila, situated between Firozpur and Patan, sloping down from the mountains to the morass on the left bank of the Jhelum.

Telkam—Tilgama, a very small pargana, adjoins Patan.

Dinsu—Dunts, west of Yech and close to Srinagar. Stein, Chron. II, 470.

Sair-ul-Mawazi—lying on the left bank of the Vitasta with Chrath. Stein, Chron. II, 474.

Khoi-Khuhy, north of Patan and Tilagam.

Karohan—Karnav, anc. Karnaha, north-west of Kashmir lying between the Kishanganga and the Kajanāg range. Stein, Chron. II, 405.

P. 378. Solomon's Hill—mod. Takht-Sulaiman, anc. Gopadri. The temple referred to is the shrine of Siva Jyesthesvara, built on the summit by Gopāditya; for the description of this tirtha, Stein, Chron. II, 159.

Sarkar of Pakli.

Its length is 35 and its breadth 25 kos. If is bounded on the east by Kashmir, on the north by Kator, on the south by the territory of the Gakhars, and on the west by Atak Benāres. Timur left a few troops to hold this tract, and their descendants remain there to this day. Snow lies perpetually on these mountains and at times falls on the plains. The period of winter is longer than the summer. The rainfall is somewhat similar to Hindustan. It is watered by three rivers, the Kishan Ganga, the Bihat and the Sindh. The language of the country differs from that of Kashmir, Hindustan or Zabulistan. Vetches and barley are the principal crops. Apricots, peaches and walnuts grow wild, it not being the custom to plant fruit trees. Game and horses, camels and buffaloes are of middling account: goats and poultry, plentiful. The rulers of this district generally paid tribute to Kashmir.

Sarkār of Sawād (Swāt).

It comprises three districts, those of Bimbar, Swāt and Bajaur. The first is 16 kos long by 12 broad and is bounded by Pakli on the east, Kator and Kāshghar² on the north, Atak Benāres on the south and Swāt on the west. Two roads approach it from Hindustān, viz., the Sherkhāni pass and the Balandari Kotal: although both routes are difficult to traverse, the first is the more rugged.

The second district (Swāt' is 40 kos in length by 5 to 15 in breadth. On the east lies Bimbar; to the north Kator (Kunar) and Kāshghar; to the south Bigrām³ and on the west Bajaur. It possesses many defiles. Near the Damghār pass which leads to Kāshghar is the town of Manglor⁴ the

¹ Ferishta says (p. 144) that Kattor or Katār is a place of note in the Kafiristān country, but in the maps Kunar occupies a corresponding position.

² By Kāshghar cannot be meant the well-known town of E. Turkestān which is too far removed, but Chitral ur Kāshkar, which, according to Erskine, which is too far removed, but Chitral ur Kāshkar, which, according to Erskine, (Bābar's Mēmofrs) is a corruption of Kāshghar with the territory of which it was long included. The Kushi or Akhassa rigio of Ptolemy beyond Mount there has neghang given its name to both Kāshghar and Kashmir.

I was long included. The Russia of Armussa right of Proteins beyond Mount Imans has perhaps given its name to both Käshghar and Kashmir.

3 Bigrām is said by Cunningham (p. 29) to signify "the city" par excellence and is applied to 3 other ancient sites near Kābul, Jalālābād and Peshāwar.

Masson derives the name from the Turki bi or be "chief" and the Hindi

^{*} Manglaur was the capital of Udyans, the Sanskrit name for the modern districts of Panjkors, Bajaur, Swat and Buner. It is mentioned by Hwen Thang 24 Mung-kie-li or Mangalu.

residence of the governor. It is entered by two routes from Hindustān, viz., the passes of Malkand Baj [Malakand] and Sherkhānah. It has no extremes of heat or cold, and though snow falls, it does not lie in the plains for more than three or four days; in the mountains it is perpetual. It is springtime here during the periodical rains of Hindustān. Rainfall occurs and the spring and autumn are very delightful. Its flora are those of Turkestān and India, wild violets and narcissus covering the meadows, and various kinds of fruit trees grow wild. Peaches and pears are excellent, and fine hawks and falcons are obtained. It also possesses an iron mine.

The third district (Bajaur) is 25 kos in length by 5 to 10 in breadth. On the east lies Swāt, on the north Kator and Kāshghar, on the south Bigrām, and on the west Kuner (and) Nurkil. Numerous passes lead from Kābul.

An ancient mausoleum² exists here, and there is a strong fortress which is said to be the residence of the governor. Amir Sayyid Ali Hamadāni died here and his body was conveyed to Khutlān by his last testament. Its climate is similar to that of Swāt, but the extremes of cold and heat are greater. It has only three roads, one from Hindustān called Dānishkol, and two from Kābul, one called Samaj and the other Kuner and Nurkil, the easiest of these being Dānishkol. Adjoining this and between the mountains and the Indus and Kabul rivers, is a plain, 30 kos in length by 20 to 25 kos in breadth.

The whole of this tract of hill and plain is the domain of the Yusufzai clan. In the time of Mirzā Ulugh Bag of Kābul, they migrated from Kābul to this territory and wrested it from the Sultāns who affected to be descended from a daughter of Alexander Bicornutus. It is said that this monarch left some of his treasures in these parts with a few of his kindred and to this day the descendants of this band dwell in these mountains and affect to show their genealogical descent from Alexander.³

² The text is here confused, and the translation has been made after correction from Babar's Memoirs.

See Elphinstone's Cabul. App. C, p. 617.

Brskine states that Kuner and Nurgl form another Tuman situated in the midst of Kafiristan which forms its boundary. Nurgil, says Baber, lies on the west and Kuner on the east of the Cheghan sarai or Kameh river, p. 143.

Under the present ever-during Imperial sway, of the lawless inhabitants of this country, some have been put to death, others imprisoned, while some happily dwell under their tribal rule.

Sarkar of Daur. Banu and Isakhel.

This territory is to the south-east of Kābul, and is inhabited entirely by Afghans. It is the principal settlement of the Shirani. Kararani and Waziri tribes.

Sarkar of Qandahar.

It is situated in the third climate. Its length from Qalāt Banjārah to Ghor and Gharjistān' is 300 kos: its breadth from Sind to Farah is 260 kos. On its east lies Sind; to the north Ghor and Gharjistan; on the south Siwi, and on the west Farah; Kābul and Ghaznin on the northeast. Its mountains are covered with perpetual snow which seldom falls in the city.

Eighteen dinārs make a tumān, and each tumān is equivalent to 800 dams [=Rs. 20]. The tuman of Khurasan is equal in value to 30 rupees and the tuman of Iraq to 40.*

Grain is for the most part taken in kharwars, the kharwar being equivalent to 40 Qandahari man, or 10 of Hindustān.

The capital of the district is Qandahār. Its longitude is 107° 40', and the latitude 33° 40'. It has two forts. The summer heats are extreme and the cold in winter is inconsiderable, but the ice-pits are filled in December and January. Once in three or four years a fall of snow occurs and is hailed with delight. Flowers and fruits are in abundance. Its wheat is extremely white, and is sent as a present of value to distant countries. At a distance of five kos is a hill called Azhdarkoh (the Dragon Hill) in which is a wonderful cave known as the Cave of Jamshid. People

country.

^{*}Its limits are defined by Brskine, (p. 152), within Herat on the west, Farah on the south and Ghor on the east. Encyclo. Islam, ii. 141, gives "Ghardjistan, a tract on the upper valley of the Murghāb in Afghan Turkistan, . . . the country now occupied by the Piroz Kohis." [J. S.]

*Tumān. Encyclo. Islam, 1v. 836. In the period of Mongol dominion, the tumān was 10,000 dinars=60,000 dirhems. Value varied from country to

enter with lighted lamps, but the oppression of its atmosphere prevents exploration of its extent. Eight kos from Qālāt is a large mountain in the side of which is a huge cave called Ghar i Shah (the King's Cave). Within it are two natural columns, one of which touches the roof of the cave and is 30 yards high. Water flows down it and enters a basin at its foot. The other is 11 vards in height. The waters of the Hirmand (Helmand) which rises between Balkh, and Kābul, flow in this direction along the skirts of the mountains. The meaning of Hirmand is 'abounding in blessings'. Maulānā Muinu'ddin in his history of Kurāsān records that it feeds a thousand streams. At a distance of 16 kos is a mountain, at the base of which is an area of land called Natil [Tānil], formerly full of watercourses, where melons are grown in great quantity and perfection. The mountain has several clear springs. There is also an iron-mine, and at the foot of the mountain is an iron-foundry for the smelting of the ore, a work of ancient times.

West of Qandahār is a long torrid tract of country, (Garmsir) through which flows the Hirmand. One side of it touches the Dāwar! territory, and on the other Sistān There are many forts and much cultivation on both sides of the river. In this neighbourhood once stood a large city, the residence of the Sultāns of Ghor, and many ruins still exist of the palaces of its ancient kings.

Between the *Hirmand* and Qandahār is the well-known city of *Maimand*, described in old astronomical tables.

Wheat and barley are called Safedbari. The jarib of sixty (square) yards is used for measurements, but they reckon 30 yards of this according to the Hijāzi jarib, each yard of 24½ digits, the gaz there in use; equal altogether to 54 gaz of Qandahār. In the exchequer, out of every ten kharwārs, two are taken for the minister of finance on account of revenue and jihāt cesses. Cultivation is reckoned under seven heads. In the registers, the best kind of land is marked with an 'Ain [Arabic letter] and calculating the

¹ Dāwar or Zamin Dāwar, lies west of the Helmand, below the hills, in S.W. Afghanistan.

^{*}Var. and G. safedari. I am disposed to think the marginal reading correct and that it signifies white crops in contradistinction to the sabzbari or green crops that follow lower down, though it is not easy to see why rice should be relegated to the green, rather than the white class. There are, however, two kinds of shall rice, the white requiring deep water and the red needing only a moist soil.

produce of each jārib at 3 kharwārs, 24 man are taken as revenue. Thus:

Nο.	Kind of land.	Distinguishing Marks. Arabic letter.	Pròduce in Kharwārs.	Revenue in mans
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Best, Best and Medium, Medium, Medium and Poor, Poor, Poor and Poorest, Poorest,	'ain toi 'ain toi dal toi dal dal-dal, dal dal-dal	3 24 2 14 1 30 man.	24 20 16 12 8 6

But if the husbandman is incapable of sustaining this class of assessment, the produce is divided into three heaps, two of which are taken by the tenant, and the third is again subdivided into three shares, two of which go to the revenue department and the third is charged to incidental expenses.

The revenue from grapes also is taken by agreement and by paying a special rate. In the latter case experts appraise the average outturn of the vineyard and exact 4 bābaris for each kharwār. Under the reigns of Bābar and Humāyun the rate was fixed at 2 bābaris and 4 tangahs. The babari is one miskāl weight and 2½ are equivalent to the rupee. Besides these three (wheat, barley, grapes), upon nine other articles called sabzbari, 7½ bābaris are taken for every jarib, formerly rated at 5 bābaris, viz., rice (Shāli), musk-melons, water-melons, cucumbers, onions, turnips, carrots and lettuce. On other crops than these, two bābaris were formerly taken, the Turkomāns exacting three.

In the torrid tract (above-mentioned, between Dāwar and Sistan), the safedbari crops are divided into three heaps according to the Qandahār custom and all crops paying special rates are registered under the 'Ain and Toi class (No. 2), and for every jarib. 50 man of the torrid tract (Garmsir) equalling 20 man of Qandahār, are taken. The kharwār of this district is 100 man, equivalent to 10 man of Hindustān. Grapes are treated in the same manner as at Qandahār. All articles under Sabzbari, pay two babaris on each jarib.

In the Dāwar tract, produce under safedbari is apportioned in three heaps as described above and the exchequer receives for every 4 jaribs, one kharwār weight of Dāwar, which is equavalent to one kharwār and ten man of Qandahār, and for other produce, one kharwār on three jaribs.

Sarkar of Qandahar.

Containing 24 Mahals. Revenue 8,114½ tumāns, 39,600 dinārs; 45,775 sheep; 45 Balochi horses; 3,752,977 kharwārs of grain; 420 man of rice; 2 kharwārs of flour; 20 man of clarified butter. It furnishes 13,875 Cavalry and 25,260 Infantry. Qandahār city—5,270 tumāns in cash; 35,120 kharwārs of corn; 550 horse; 1,000 foot.

Dependencies east of Qandahār.

- Territory of Duki, has a fort of unbaked brick. 6 tumāns in money; 1,800 kharwārs of grain; 12,000 sheep; 15 Balochi horses; Afghāns of the Tarin and and Kākar tribes; 500 horse, and 1,000 foot.
 - of Pashang; has an old fort of unbaked briek. 33 tumāns in money; 3,200 sheep; 500 kharwārs of grain; 1,500 horse and 1,500 foot.
 - of Shāl, has a mud fort; 4½ tumāns in money; 940 sheep; 780 kharwārs of grain; Afghāns of Kāst and Baloch; 1,000 horse, and 1,000 foot.
 - of Mashtang, (Mastang) has a mud fort; 10 tumāns and 8,000 dinārs in money; 470 kharwārs in grain. Afghāns of Kasi, and Baloch 100 horse and 500 foot.
 - of Khelgari, 12 tumāns in money; 415 kharwārs of grain; 200 horse, 300 foot.
- Tribe of Pani, 60 sheep, an Afghan clan, 1,000 horse, 1,000 foot.

^{&#}x27;Under the Caliphs, the land-tax was usually rated at \(\) of the produce of wheat and barley if the fields were watered by public canals; \(\) if irrigated by wheels or other artificial means; and \(\) if altogether unirrigated. If arable land were left uncultivated, it seems to have paid 1 dirhem per jarib and \(\) if probable produce. Of dates, grapes, garden produce, \(\) was taken either in kind or money; and \(\) of the yield of wines, fishing, pearls and generally of products not derived from cultivation, was to be delivered in kind or paid in value even before the expenses had been defrayed. The customs and transit dates, for which unbelievers paid a double rate, and the taxes on trades, manufactures and handigrafts were also sources of public revenue. Sir H. Bliot. (Arabs in Sind, p. 78). For Aurangzib's revenue regulations, based on Islamic orthodox doctrines, see J. Sarkar's Mughal Administration, Ch. XI.

Tribe of Abdali, formerly paid revenue 1,000 sheep; fixed in the time of the Qazilbashis? at 100 tumans, 400 horse, 600 foot.

,, of Abdali, 2,800 sheep, 5 kharwars of butter. Afghans

2,000 horse, 3,000 foot.

,, of Jamandi, responsible for 11 tumans and 4,000 dinārs. Afghāns, 30 horse, 20 foot.

Surkh Rābāt i Balochān, revenue included under city of Oandahar. 50 horse, 50 foot.

Dependencies south of Qandahar.

Qalāt Banjārah, has a strong mud fort. 30 Balochi horses, 30 camels,—Baloch—500 horse, 500 foot.

Shorābak, 1,200 sheep. Afghans. 200 horse, 100 foot.

Tribe of Bisakh, 225 sheep. Afghans. 200 horse, 300 foot. of Mirkhani, 9 tumans in money, 3,250 sheep.

Afghans. 200 horse, 400 foot., of Maswani, 200 sheep. 7 man of butter. Afghans. 50 horse, 100 foot.

Dependencies north of Qandahār.

Territory of Qalāt Tartuk [? Barluk] has a very strong mud fort. 520 tumāns, 9,600 dinārs in money. 4,346 sheep; 1,171 kharwārs (of grain?) 1 man of butter; 1 kharwar of rice. Ghilzai Afghans. 2,200 horse, 3,820 foot.

Hazārah Dahlah, [Duhna] 1,454 sheep; 20 kharwārs of grain: 200 horse, 500 foot.

Hazar Banjah Banji, [?] 160 sheep; 15 horse, 50 foot.

Territory of Tarin, has a strong fort. 15,000 sheep; 1,000 kharwars of grain. Hazarah tribe. 1,500 horse, 3.000 foot.

Dukl signifying a hill in the language of the country and may be opposed to Deshi, or plain Rrskine's Bāber, p. 164.

This name (Qizil, red, bāsh, head) was given to the seven Turkish tribes, descendants of the captives released by Timur at the request of Safiu'ddin ancestor of Shaikh Ismail the first of the Suffavean monarchs. To the gratitude of these Carmanian captives the Safi, (Anglice Sophy) dynasty of Persia owed its elevation to the throne. See the XIVth Chapter of Malcolm's History of Persia. Round the red cap was twisted a turban in 12 plaits to the memory and in honour of the 12 Imams. D'Herbelot. The term is applied represently to the Persians and is an employed by Rāber. generally to the Persians, and is so employed by Baber, p. 181.

Dependencies west of Qandahar.

Territory of the torrid tract (Garmsir). 602 tumans, and 8,000 dinārs in money; 12,000 kharwārs of grain. 200 horse, 2,000 foot.

of Zamin Dāwar, 1,200 horse, 1,000 foot. Tribe of Siahkhanah, 42 tumans; 30 horse, 70 foot. Fort of Kushk Nakhod, has a mud fort, revenue included under city of Qandahār.

Sarkar of Kabul.

It is situated in the third and fourth climates. Its length from Atak Benäres on the Indus to the Hindu koh is 150 kos; its breadth from Qarābāghi of Qandahār to Cheghan Sera, 100 kos. It is bounded on the east by Hindustan; on the north-west by the mountains and Ghor; between to the north lies Anderab of Badakshan, the Hindu koh intervening; on the south by Farmul and Naghr. Adequate praise of its climate is beyond the power of pen to express, and although its winter is severe rather than moderate, it occasions no distress. The torrid and cold belts are so contiguous that the transition may be made from one to the other in a single day. Such approximation of summer and winter pasturage in an inhabited country is uncommon. Snow falls both in the plains and on the mountains; in the former from November and on the latter from September: Baber states that the snowfall in the direction of Hindustan does not pass the crest of the Badam Cashmah.² This doubtless was the case in those days, but at the present time it extends to the crest of the Nimlah, and indeed as far as the Khaibar pass. Even in summer

* The pass of Bädäm Chashmah lies south of the Käbul river between Little Käbul and Bärikäb. Brakine.

According to Tieffenthaler 11 royal miles from Ghazni (about 191/ common miles) on the road to Qandahar, I, 21. The greater part of the account of this province is taken without acknowledgment by Abul Fazl from the Memoirs of Bābar, which should be in the hands of the reader for comparison and illustration of this brief sketch. Chenghānserāi contains one village only, according to Bābar, and lies in the entrance of Kafiristān. The large river known as the Chenghānsarāi river comes from the north-east behind Rajaur. Another smaller stream from the west after flowing through Pich, a district of Kāfiristān, falls into it. Naghr is sometimes written Naghz. It is now unknown but Brakine conjectures it to have been on the upper course of the Kurram, and Farmul probably Urghun where the Persian race of Farmulis still exist. Nismatu'llah (Dorn's History of the Afghāns, p. 57) says that Farmul was originally the name of a river running between the borders of Kābul and Ghami and the dwellers on its banks were called Farmulis. See Elphinstone's Cabul, p. 315 for a fuller account of this division of the Tajiks.

time covering is needed during the nights. There are various delightful fruits, but the melons are not so good. Agriculture is not very prosperous. The country is surrounded on all sides by lofty mountains, so that the sudden invasion of an enemy is attended with extreme difficulty.

The Hindu koh separates Kābul from Badakshān and Balkh, and seven routes are employed by the people of Turan in their marches to and fro. Three are by the Panjhir2 (valley), the highest of which is over the Khawak pass; below this is Tal, and the next lower in succession, Bazarak. The best of these is Tul but it is somewhat long as its name implies. The most direct is over the heights of Būzārak. Between the high range and Parwan are seven other heights called Haft Bachah (the Seven Younglings). From Anderab two roads unite at the foot of the main pass and debouch (on Parwan) by the Haft Bachah. extremely arduous. Three other roads lead by Paran up the Ghorband valley. The nearest route is by the pass of Yangi-yuli,3 (the new road) which leads down to Waliyan and Khinjan; another is the Qibchak pass, also somewhat easy to traverse, and a third is the Shibertu. In the summer when the rivers rise, it is by this pass that they descend by way of Bāmiān and Tālikān, but in the winter the Abdarah route is chosen, for at this season, all other routes but this are closed.

Bābar confirms or originates this fact, and adds that those raised from seed brought from Khurāsān are tolerable. He praises those of Bokhāra, but pronounces those of Akhsi, a district north of the Jaxartes, to be beyond comparison the best.

The word is so written by Babar, but, according to Cunningham, (p. 32), the true name is Panchin, the Araba writing f for the Indian ch. The modern

spelling is Panjshir.

I have corrected the inaccuracies of the text by the true readings in Baber. Baber himself passed through Bāmlān and by the Shibertu Kotal on his march from Khorasan to Kabul in February 1507. Three of these roads, the τριοδον of Strabo, leading to Bactria parted at Opiān near Charikār, the Hupiān of Bāber, identified with Alexandria Opiana by Cunningham who gives the routes as follows:

The north-east road, by the Panjshir valley, and over the Khāwak pass to Anderāb.

^{2.} The west road by the Kushan valley, and over the Hindu Kush Pass to Ghori.

^{3.} The south-west road up the Ghorband valley and over the Hājiyak

⁽Hājigak) Pass to Bāmiān.

The first of these roads, he continues, was taken by Alexander on his march into Bactriana from the territory of the Paropamisadæ, and by Timur on his invasion of India. The second road, he supposes Alexander to have followed on his return from Bactriana, as Strabo mentions the choice of another and shorter route over the same mountains. The third was taken by Changiz Khān after his capture of Bāmiān; by Moorcroft and Burnes on their journey to Bokhara.

There is also a road leading from Khurāsān to Qandahār which is direct and has no mountain pass.

From Hindustān five roads* are practicable. 1. Kara-pah, which after traversing two defiles, leads to Jalālābād. This route is not mentioned by Bāber and doubtless was not used in his time. 2. Khaibar, this was formerly somewhat difficult, but by the command of His Majesty it has been made easily practicable for wheeled conveyance, and at the present time travellers from Turān and India take this route. 3. Bangash which is reached by crossing the Indus at the Dhankot ferry. 4. Naghr. 5. Farmul, by which the Indus must be crossed at the Chaupārah ferry.

Eleven languages are spoken in this province, each nationality using its own, viz., Turkish, Mughal, Persian, Hindi, Afghāni, Pushtu, Parāchi, Geberi, Bereki, Lamghāni and Arabic.¹ The chief tribes are the Hazārahs and Afghāns, and the pasturage of the country is in the hands of these two clans. The Hazārahs are the descendants of the Changhatai army, sent by Manku Qāān to the assistance of Hulaku Khān. These troops were sent to these parts under the command of his son Nikodār Oghlān. Their settlements extend from Ghazni to Qandahār and from Maidān to the confines of Balkh. They number more than 100,000 families, and the third part of which consists of cavalry. They possess horses, sheep and goats. They are divided into factions, each covetous of what they can obtain, deceptive in their common intercourse and their conventions of amity savour of the wolf.

The Afghans consider themselves the descendants of the Israelites. They assert that their remote progenitor, named A/ghan, had three sons, viz., Saraban to whom the Sarabani clan trace their lineage; the second, Ghurghusht from whom the Ghurghustis claim descent, and the third Batan to whom the pedigree of the Batani tribe is ascribed. From these three branches they developed into their several

holds, tents and sometimes by kettles. Erskine's Baber.

In Dorn, Abdur Rashid, surnamed Pathan. Rose's Glossary of Punjab Castes and Tribes, for more accurate information.

[&]quot;The best account of the passes between India and Kābul is C. R. Markham's paper on "The Mountain Passes on the Afghan Frontier of British India', in the Journal of the Royal Geographical Society, 1879. Also Holdich. Babar add. Pashāi; Gabri is said in the Khulāsatu'l Ansāb, to be a place Lit. houses; the Tartars reckon the numbers of their families by house-

clans, each distinguished by its eponymous tribarch. The following septs unite in SARABAN, viz., Tarin, Baraich, Miyānah, Kharshin, Shirāni, Urmar, Kāsi, Jamand, Kheshgi, Katāni, Khalil, Mohmandzai, Dāudzai, Yusufzai, Kaliyāni, and Tarkalāni. From CHURGHUSHT spring the Surāli (var. Surāni), Jilam, Orakzai, Afridi, Jagtāni, Khattaki, Kararāni, Bāwar, Mansub, Kākar, Nāghar, Bāni, Maswāni, Pani, and Tāran. To BATAN are ascribed the Ghilzai, Lodi, Niyāzi, Lohāni, Sur, Bani, Sarwāni and Kakbor.

It is said that Mast Ali³ Ghori whom the Afghans call Mati had illicit intercourse with one of the daughters of Batan. When the results of this clandestine intimacy were about to become manifest, he preserved her reputation by marriage, and three sons were born to him, viz., Ghilzei, Lodi, and Sarwāni.

Some assert the Afghans to be Copts, and that when the Israelites came to Egypt from Jerusalem, this people passed into Hindustan. The tradition is too long to be condensed within narrow limits, but it is noticed in passing as a fanciful digression.

There are many wild tribes, such as the Khwājah Khizri, Qāqshāl, Maidāni. Uzbek, Kalatki, Parānchi, Nilpurchi, Bakderi, Bahsudi, Sidibāi, Tufakandāz (matchlockmen), Arab, Gilahbān (shepherds) and Tuqbai but not as numerous as the first mentioned, and most of them at the present time have become settled colonists.

The City of Kābul is situated in the fourth climate. Its longitude is 104° 40′, and its latitude 34° 30′. It is one of

According to the Khuldsat-u'l Ansāb (Dorn, p. 127) the Katānis possess no territory but are scattered in single families. From Niāzi descend the Musakhail, Isakhail, Sambal Saharangh, conjointly called Niāzis: they reside about the town of Makhad on the banks of the Indus as far as Dera Ismail Khān. The descendants of Pani reside about Shikārpur. Another account places them, after their expulsion from their country, about Jeypur and Jodhpur where they subsist by traffic and carry merchandise to the Deccan. Nāghar's descendants reside about Dera Ghāzikhān, and Kākaris near Qandahār. The word 'zai' or 'zacy' as Raverty writes the word, signifies son', and answers to Mac, Fitz, and O. Suffixed to the tribal name, it means 'a man' of the particular clan.

Probably a misscript for Gagiyāni.
 According to Dorn, Shāh Husain, Prince of Ghor, (pp. 46, 48, Part II).
 Matu was the name of Shaikh Patni's daughter and Shāh Husain not being of Afghān extraction, his descendants were called by the maternal name of Mati. The name of Ghilzai was given on account of the clandestine amour, 'ghii' signifying thief, and 'asi' born, a son.

the finest of ancient1 cities, and is said to have been founded in the time of Pashang. It possesses a double earthwork fortress of considerable strength. To the south-west of the fortified town is a low hill which is a source of much beneficence, called Shāh Kābul,2 doubtless with reference to an edifice erected upon it by one of its former kings. Upon its summit stands the citadel, and there was a separate ridge named Aqābain. As it somewhat overlooked the fort, it was included within its precincts by royal command. Skirting its base are fair embankments, pleasure-gardens and delightful groves, amongst which the Shahr Ara (Pride of the City) are especially beautiful. The city is watered by two streams. One of these, called the Jui Khatiban, enters from Lalandar and flowing through the Shahr Ārā passes by the city; the other, the Jui Pul Mastan,3 more wholesome and limpid than the former, from the narrows of the Deh i Yaqub winds past the Delhi Gate and runs on to Deh i Mamurah. Near this a canal called Mahum Anagah' has been brought, which is of extreme convenience, and adjacent is the Gulkanah quarter fair to the eye and dear to the heart. From the hill (of Shah Kabul) flow three streams citywards; at the head of one is the shrine of Khwajah Hamu [Shams]; the second, according to popular belief, had been visited by the prophet Khizr; the third is over against (the tomb of) Khwājah Abdu's Samad known as Khwājah Roshanāi. The wise of ancient times considered

Shevaki and has a course of about five miles. I. G.

It was the old capital of the country, says Cunningham, before the Macedonian conquest, and Ibn Haukal states that inauguration at Kābul was a necessary qualification for government in a king. Tieffenthaler names 4 gates, viz., Lahor, Kābul, Nalbandi and Fatouhi, adding that near this last was an ancient castle with mud walls. It was pulled down by Ahmed Abdāli, and the houses in front of the Fatouhi gate razed to the ground. A new fort was then erected of brick work 'sur un lieu elevé', and its garden laid out by the governor.

Erskine says that there is a hill south of Kabul on which Qabil (Cain) * Erskine says that there is a hill south of Kābul on which Qābul (Cam) the founder, is said to have been interred, but the only hill south-west is that known as Bābar Baūshāh where Bābar himself was interred, and is the great holiday resort of the people. Bābar's description is as follows: "There is a small ridge which runs out from the hill of Shāh Kābul and is called Aqābain, and there is besides another small hill on which stands the citadel. The fortified town lies on the north of the citadel." Brekine identifies Aqābain wich that now called Ashikān Arifān, which connects with Bābar Bāda hāh. The Bālā Hissār is on the same ridge further cast and south-east of the town. The beneficence of the Shāh Kābul mentioned in the text, is due to tiree streams that issue from it, two of which are in the vicinity of the due to tirree streams that issue from it, two of which are in the vicinity of the shady and retired Gulkanah, the scene, as Bābar not regretfully notes, of many a delauch. The position of the citadel and of the conjoined hills, has been carefully described by Forster, Travels, p. 73.

It is a canal derived from the river Logar as it enters the plains of Charabi and less a constant of the citadel and of the conjoined hills, has

The name of Akbar's nurse (Anagah) who attended him from his cradle and exercised a backstair influence that affected many political fortunes.

Kābul and Qandahār as the twin gates of Hindustān, the one leading to Turkestan and the other to Persia. The custody of these highways secured India from foreign invaders, and they are likewise the appropriate portals to foreign travel.

In Kābul as well as in Samargand and Bokhāra, a parganah which comprises towns and villages is called a Tuman. The Tuman of Bigram is called Parashawar, the spring season of which is delightful. Here is a shrine greatly venerated called Korkhatri, visited by people especially yogis from distant parts.

The Tuman of Neknihal' is one of the dependencies of Lamghan. The residence of the governor was formerly at Adinahpur but is now at felālābād. There is here no snowfall and the cold is not so severe. Nine streams irrigate the cultivated lands; the pomegranates have no seed-stones. Near Jelālābād is the Bāgh i Safā³ (The Garden of Purity) a memorial of Babar, and adjacent to Adinahpur is the Bagh i Wafa (The Garden of Fidelity) another relic of the same monarch. To the south lies the stupendous range of the Safed koh (The White Mountain) with its perpetual snows from which it derives its name. In this neighbourhood is a low hill4 where when it snows in Kābul, a similar snowfall occurs.

¹ This shrine, is mentioned by Bābar as one of the holy places of the Hindu jogis who came from great distances to cut off their hair and shave their beards at this spot. He rode out to Bigram to see the great tree but was not shown the shrine in 1505. Fourteen years later his curiosity was gratified. Gor Khatri was once a Buddhist monastery, (I. G.) then rebuilt into a Hindu temple, and now used as a sarāi.
¹ In the I. G. Nangnihār and by Bābar Nangenhār or Nekerhār, the district south of the Kābul river in the province of Jelālābād, that on the north, bounded on the west and east by the Alingār and Kunar rivers, being Lamghān. It lies along the Kābul river on the south, and the name is said to mean 'mine rivers'. The I. 'G. affirms it to be a distortion of the ancient name of Nagarahāra, identified by Lassen with the Nagara of Ptolemy regarded by Cunningham as identical with Jelālābād. Adinahpur is south of the Kābul river.

A garden of this name was planted by Babar at Keldeh-Kehar (Kuller Kaher) near Pind Dādan Khān, eleven years after that of the Bāgh i Wafā near Adinahpur south of the Kābul river. It was situated 10 kos from Bahrah in the middle of the hill of Jud on a level plot of ground in the centre of which was a lake which received the water of the surrounding hills and was about five miles in circumference. Bahrah or Bhirs is marked in the maps

²⁰ kos from Kuller Kaher, but the name is said to be common in the district.

Bābar is more explicit. 'On the south of the fort of Adinahpur is the Swrkh-rud (runs into the Kābul river between Jagdalik and Gandamak). On the north is a detached mass of mountain dividing Nangenhār and the Lamghānāt. Whenever it snows at Kābul, the snow falls also on the top of this mountain by which means the people of the Lamghānāt can tell when it snows at Kābul.

The Tumān of Mandrāur: monkeys here abound. The Alishang river uniting with the Alingār joins the Bārān, while the Cheghān Sarāi river flowing through the northeast quarter enters Kator.

The Tumān of Alishang is surrounded by lofty mountains covered with snow in which is the source of the Alishang river. The inhabitants are called $K\bar{a}firs$. In the vicinity is a tomb asserted by the people to be that of $L\bar{a}m$ the father of Noah, called also Lamek (Lamech). The people here pronounce the $k\bar{a}f$ like a ghain, and hence the currency of the name (Lamghān).

The mountainous Tumān of Najrāo² also is peopled by the kāfirs. Instead of lamp they burn the chilghozah.³ There is also an animal called the Flying Fox,⁴ which flies upward about the height of a yard. There is also a rat which exhales the smell of musk.

Charkh is a village of the Tumān of Loghar which gives its name to Maulana Yaqub Charkhi. Sajāwand is also one of the well-known villages of this Tumān.

The mountains of the Tuman of Badrao (?) are the home of kafirs and wild Hazarahs and Afghans.

The Tumān of Alsā⁵ is situated intermediately between the toriid and cold belts. Birds cross this tract about the beginning of spring and good sport is had.

It lies north-east from Kābul in the hill country according to Bābar, who adds that their inhabitants are wine drinkers, never pray, fear neither God nor man, and are heathenish in their usages.

The seed of the Pinus gerardiana; the cone, which is as big as a man's two fists, and also the tree itself, said to be derived from chihal 'forty' and ghoza a 'nut'.

*Copied from Bābar whose account is as follows: "It is an animal larger than a squirrel with a kind of leathern web stretching between its fore and hind feet like a bat's wing. It is said that they can fly a bowshot from a higher tree to a lower one. I myself have never seen them fly, but have let one go beside a tree which it quickly clung to and ascended, and when driven away, expanded its wings like a bird and came to the ground without injury." This must be the flying squirrel, which does not fly though wing-handed, but is supported by its membrane as it leaps.

Bābar, Alah-sāt, which Brskine says is now called Tugow. "It lies two of three farsangs east of Nairão from which you advance straight towards Alah-

three farsangs east of Najrão from which you advance straight towards Alahsãi." Rābar places it between the cold and warm belts, and says that the birds take their flight across in the spring. Powlers sit behind, scream and raise nets 35 the flights of fowl approach and intercept them. In the winter they happen to pass over a vineyard they are no longer able to fly and are caught. A similar story is told of some fields near Whitby. (Notes to are sent to Hindustan.

Bābar's words are: 'The river of Cheghansarāi, after passing through Kaferistān from the north-east, unites with the river Bārān, in the Baluk of Kāmeh and then passes onwards to the east.'

The Tumān of Bangash' furnishes' 7,000 Cavalry and 87,800 Infantry, viz.:—

		Cavalry	Infantry
Mohmand	•••	500	500
Khalil	• • •	500	6,500
Dāudzai		3,000	37,000
Gagiyāni	•••	500	4,500
Muhammadzai		400	4,000
Sini		100	1,400
Utmānkhail		50	850
Ghilzai		100	2,900
Khizrkhail		3 0	950
Sherzād		20	1,400
Kharguni [Khar Kuli]		10	200
Khatlaki		200	4,000
Abdu'r Rahmāni		100	2,500
Afridi		500	10,500
Oruk, (Orakzai)	• • •	500	5,500
		6,510	82,700

The Tuman of Gardez² has a strong fort. The houses are for the most part three and four stories high.

Ghaznin is situated in the third climate, and is also known as Zābul, and was the capital of Sultān Mahmud, Sultān Shahābu'ddin and several other monarchs.

This territory was formerly called Zābulistān, and some reckon Qandahār as included within it. Here is the last resting-place of Hakim Sanāi and many other saintly personages. The winter season is said to resemble that of Samarqand and Tabriz. A river runs from north to south which waters all the arable tracts. The cultivators are put

Occupies the lower grounds from Gardez to Kohat. Babor says it is infested by Afghan robbers such as the Khugiāni, Khirilchi, Buri and the Linder.

^{*} Upwards of sixty-five tailes south-east from Kābul. Bābar says that the Daroghā of the Tumān of Zurmat, south of Kābul and south-east of Ghazni, resides at Gardez which is not named as a separate Tumān. Next follows the Tumān of Farmul omitted by Abui Fazl. It is notable only in the fact that the Shaikhzidahs, who were treated, as Babar says, with such distinguished favour in Hindustān during the time of the Afghāns, were all of Farmul and descended from Shaikh Muhammad Musalmān.

This tomb is mentioned by Elphinstone, Cabul, 433. He was a mystic of high authority and repute whom the great Sufi Maulana Rum looked up to as his master. He flourished under Bahram Shah, son of Masaud Shah of Ghazni (A.D. 1118-52) to whom he dedicated his Hadiqat ul Haqaiq. He left also the usual Diwan which is necessary to every Persian poet's fame or ambition. He is said to have died in 1131 at the age of 62. Encyclo. Islam, iv. 146; Browne, Lit. History of Persia, ii. 317.

to great trouble as fresh soil has to be supplied each year to fertilize the land and it becomes then more productive than that of Kābul. The metal called ruin' is here abundant and is imported into Hindustan. In the time of Babar there was here a tomb which shook whenever the praises of Muhammad were recited. The investigations of acute observers discovered that this was effected by fraud of relicmongers.2 There is also a spring into which if any filth be thrown, a thunderstorm ensues with a fall of snow and rain.

The Tuman of Daman i koh3has a profusion of flowers

and its spring and autumn are matchless in beauty.

In the Tuman of Ghorband the variety of floral hues is beyond expression. Three and thirty species of tulips here bloom and one kind named the rose-scented tulip breathes the fragrance of the blush-rose.4

Mines of silver and lapis-lazuli are also found. Near the mountains is a sandy tract called Khwajah Reg i Rawan3 and from this quicksand, the sound as of drums is heard in

the summer time.

In the Tuman of Zohak and Bamian, the fortress of Zuhāk is a monument of great antiquity, and in good preservation, but the fort of Bamian is in ruins. In the mountainside caves have been excavated and ornamented with plaster

The beautiful plain is better known as Koh Daman, the hill skirt of the Paghman range. The gardens of Istalif at its north extremity, gay with flowers, its limpid ice-cold streams, the Arghwan trees with their vivid blossoms of scarlet and yellow seen in no other part of the country its groves of oak and spreading plane trees have excited the eloquent admiration

It is needless to say that the nomenclature of native flora by Persian or Indian writers is extremely unscientific and vague, and beyond a few well-known kinds, the rest are indiscriminately expressed by a shuffling of the few

known kinds, the rest are indiscriminately expressed by a shuffling of the few botanical terms they possess, and the same name does duty for more than one flower. The etymology of Ghorband is given by Bābar from band, a steep hill pass, and ghor, the country to which it mainly leads.

This is mentioned by Bābar. The name of Khwājah Reg i rawān (Khwājah quicksand) appears in the margin of Riphinstone's Turki copy of or Three Priends who have given this name to a fountain in the Koh Dāman (Khwājah Seh Yārān) mentioned by Bābar. The other two are Khwājah Maudud Chaahti and Khwājah Khawend Said, p. 147.

² Composed of four sers of copper to 1½ of lead. See Vol. I, p. 41.

^a Albiruni in his Chronology, Chap. XIII alludes to the "famous well in the mountains of Farghāna" which causes rain if contaminated and adduces several similar traditions. Bābar says that he made strict inquiry for the well, but no one could give him the slightest information about it. The discovery of the fraud at the tomb is due to his observation. A scaffolding had been erected over it, so contrived, that it could be set in motion when any one stood upon it, so that a lookeron imagined it was the tomb that moved. He directed the persons who attended the tomb to come down from the scaffolding, after which no number of prayers or praises could persuade it to stir.

and paintings. Of these there are 12,000 which are called Sumaj and in former times were used by the people as winter retreats. Three colossal figures are here: one is the statue of a man, 80 yards in height; another that of a woman 50 yards high, and the third is that of a child measuring 15 yards. Strange to relate, in one of these caves is placed a coffin containing the body of one who reposes in his last sleep. The oldest and most learned of antiquarians can give no account of its origin, but suppose it to be of great antiquity. In days of old the ancients prepared a medicament with which they anointed corpses and consigned them to earth in a hard soil. The simple deceived by this art, attribute their preservation to a miracle.

The territory of Kābul comprises twenty Tumāns. The Emperor Bābar in his Memoirs sets down the revenue at twenty lakhs of Shahrukhis, inclusive of Tamgha² imposts, equivalent to three lakhs and twenty thousand Akbar Shāhi rupees, the rupee being reckoned at forty dāms.

At the present time notwithstanding the remission of various taxes, by the blessing of this ever-during rule, the revenue has reached the amount of six krors, seventy-three lakks, six thousand, nine hundred and eighty-three dāms. (Rs. 1,682,674-9). The increase is to be attributed to the improved state of the cultivation, and also that Parashāwar and Ashtaghar³ were not included in the former account, and lastly, that the revenue officers of that time were not as capable as they are at present.

Sarkar of Kabul.

Containing 22 Mahals: Revenue 80,507,465 Dāms in money: Suyurghāl 137,178 Dāms. Cavalry, 28,187. Infantry, 212,700.

¹ The punctuation in the text is clearly misplaced.

² Inland tolls. See Vol. I, 189, but Baber's words are: "The amount of the revenue of Kābul, whether arising from settled lands or raised from the inhabitants of the waste, is eight lakks of Shāhrukhis." The word 'twenty' bist must be a copyist's error for hasht eight, as the Akbar Shāhi rupee being equal to 2½ Shāhrukhis, the whole would give exactly three lakks and twenty thousand rupees. Erskine notes temple as the stamp tax. All animals, goods, clothes &c. brought into the country are stamped or marked and a tax col-

A corruption of Hashtnagur, now a sakel of the Peshäwar district. The "eight towns" of which it was composed were Tangi, Shirpas, Umrani, Turangani, Uamānzai, Rajur, Chāreads and Parāng. The last two are seated close together in a bend of the Kābul river and the situs of all are shown in Map IV. of Cunningham's Anct. Geog., p. 46.

City of Kābul—Revenue, 1,275,841 Dāms. Cavalry, 7,000 Infantry, 15,000.

Dependencies east of Kābul.

•	Revenue. D.	Suyurghāl. D.	Cavalry.	Infantry.	Tribes.
Tumān of Bigrām , Neknihāl (Nangnihar) Buluk i Kāmah (not recorded)	9,692,410 11,894,003	1,224	200	5,000	***

North.

	Revenue. D.	Suyurghāl. D.	Cavalry.	Infantry.	Tribes.
Tuman of Maudraur	2,684,880		50	500	•••
Alishang	3,701,150	1948	50	5000	Alishāng
A lamentin	1,544,670	1	500	1000	Lamghani.
Buluk Najrão	2,045,451		3000	3000	Kāfir.
Tumën of Loghar	3, 193, 214	22,960	50	500	
, Badrão	413,885		50	500	
Alsāi	600,000		4**	5000	Dilazāk.
Panjhir (Panjshir)	461,940		***	35,000	

South.

	Revenue.	Suyurghāl. D.	Cavalry.	Infantry.	Tribes
Tumān of Baugash Ko-	3,332,347		7,087	87,800	Afghān.
hast, Karbasti	701,620		300	5000	Orakzai &c.
Naghr (var. Naghz)	854,000		1000		Afghān, Ba- nukhail.*
" Gardez	2,030,002		200	1000	Afghān.
n Maiden	1,606,799	1,864	2000	•••	Hazārah Maidāni.
" Chaznin	3,768,642	1,076	1000	5000	•••

^{*} Variant, Shahu Khail.

West.

	Revenue. D.	Snyurghāl. D.	Cavalry.	Infantry.	Tribes.
Fumān of Farmul Dāman i koh	 325,712 16,461,785		1000 5000	5000 30,000	
,, Ghorband	1,574,760		3000	5000	Hazārah and Tur- komān.
,, Zohāk Bāmiān	 861,750	•••	200	1000	

In the year 77 of the Flight (A.D. 696-7) Abdu'l Malik b. Marwan removed Umayyah b. Abdu'l Malik from the government of Khurasān and conferred it upon Hajjāj b. Yusuf of the tribe of Thakif, and sent Abdu'llah b. Abu Bakr to Sistān, who levied an army, marched against Ranthel, king of Kābul. The latter unable to withstand him took refuge in the depths of the mountains. Abdu'llah not realising the difficulties of his undertaking eagerly pursued. The mountaineers barricading the passes with stone breastworks, blocked his road. The invading force was hardpressed and reduced to extremity through want of provisions. Abdu'llah was therefore compelled to purchase a retreat with the sum of 700,000 dirhams, equivalent in present money value to 3,00,000 rupees. Shuraih b. Hāni in indignation at the compact advanced to an engagement notwithstanding his being stricken in years, and fell bravely fighting. Hajjāj on hearing of the event, reprimanded Abdu'llah and removed him from his command. In the year 80 (A.D. 699) he appointed Abdu'r Rahman b. Muhammad Ashath to conduct the war against Ranthel and bestowed on him the government of Sistan and the adjacent territory. Abdu'r Rahmān on his arrival in Kābul adopted the former tactics, but prudently occupied each defile with his pickets and performing prodigies of valour, secured a large booty. The difficulties of the country, however, prevented its permanent occupation. Hajjāj disapproving his retreat sent him a severe reprimand in the following terms: "Although your exertions during the present year have been strenuous, the retribution demanded by your dishonourable retreat is that immediately on the receipt of this letter, you take possession of the country. Should you, through persistence in your own opinions or through fear of

the consequences to yourself, refuse to comply and defer operations till the coming year, you are removed from your command, are hereby required to look upon Ishaq b. Muhammad as your commander and to place yourself under his orders." Abdu'r Rahman, confiding in the strength of possession, disloyally formed a compact with his officers and refusing submission, made peace with the king of Kābul and marched against Hajjāj. The conditions of peace were that Abdu'llah if victorious should altogether withdraw from Kābul and in no way molest it, but if defeated, the king should on his part afford him protection and assistance. Hajjāj was enraged at this rebellious conduct, and gave him battle outside the walls of Tustar. Abdu'r Rahman was victorious, and Hajjāj retreated to Basrah. A second engagement took place in which the rebel was defeated and took refuge in the fortress of Bast [in Luristan] which was held by one of his lieutenants. This accursed of God and man, with a view to ingratiate himself with Hajjāj, seized him with the intention of surrendering him to Hajjāj. The king of Kābul, on being informed of the circumstance, set out with the greatest expedition and releasing him, returned with him to Kābul. On several subsequent occasions, with the assistance of the king, he continued the war but without success. In the lunar year 84, (A.D. 703) Ranthel overcome by the persuasion and seductive promises of Hajjāj, sent Abdu'llah to him as a prisoner. The latter resenting the dishonour, whilst on the road, threw himself from a precipice and was killed.

In A.H. 107 (A.D. 725-6) under the caliphate of Hishām b. Abdu'l Malik, Amin b. Abdu'llah Qashari, governor of Khurasān conquered Ghor, Gharjistān, the territory of Nimroz² and Kābul and made (the latter) his capital. From that time continuously under the dynasties of Umayyah and Abbās, it was held by the governor of Khurasān, until under the Sāmānis, Alptegin a slave of that House, withdrew from their obedience, took possession of Ghaznin and Kābul and asserted his independence. On his death Sabuktegin father of the great Mahmud succeeded to the kingdom, and it continued under the House of Ghazni. From this it passed to that of Ghor and thence into the pos-

Now Shuster in Khuzistän. It was first conquered in A. H. 20 in the Caliphate of Omar.

**Usually applied to Sejestän: Elliot. Arabs in Sind. p. 172.

session of their slaves, one of whom was Tāju'ddin Eldoz. The kings of Khwārizm succeeded, yielding in turn to the Great Qāān Changiz Khān. From him it reverted to Timur and is held by his descendants. May its fortune, through the enduring justice, unstinted clemency and ever increasing wisdom of the Imperial House, be blessed by an unfading prosperity.

AIN 16.

The Karoh or Kos.

The system of survey and measurement, as promoting the interests of civilization having deeply engaged the attention of His Majesty, directions were issued for the ascertainment of distances and their determination by the standard measure of the kos. The kos was fixed at 100 $tan\bar{a}bs$, each consisting of 50 $Il\bar{a}hi$ gaz, or of 400 poles $(b\bar{a}ns)$ each pole of $12\frac{1}{2}$ gaz. Both of these measurements give 5000 gaz to the kos.

Whenever His Majesty travels, the distances are recorded in pole-measurements by careful surveyors, and their calculations are audited by the superintendent and inspector.

Sher Khān fixed the kos at 60 jaribs, each of 60 Sikandari gaz which measurement is employed in the Delhi country. In Mālwah it consists of 90 tanābs of 60 gaz each and in Gujarāt is called the cow kos, that is, the greatest distance at which the ordinary lowing of a cow can be heard, which is put by experts at 50 jaribs. In Bengal it is called

^{*} See p. 61 of this Volume. This subject is discussed by Elliot. (Races, N.-W. p. II. 194). Cunningham (Anct. Geog. of Ind. App. B. p. 571) and Tieffenthaler (I. 23). To the measurements of Abul Fazi, I may add the length of the kes, as fixed by Bābar. On Dec. 19th, 1526 he gave orders, as his Memoirs record, to have the distance measured between Agra and Kābul; that at every 9 kos, a minār should be raised 12 gaz in height surmounted by a pavilion; that at every 10 kos, a post-house for 6 horses should be pleced. The kos was fixed in conformity with the mil according to the following verse in Turki.

Four thousand paces are one mil Know that the men of Hindustan call it a kuroh. This pace is a cubit and a half; Every cubit is six hand-breaths; Each hand-breadth is six inches; and again each inch Is the breadth of six harleycorns. Know all this.

The measuring lands, was to consist of 40 gaz or paces, each meas ring one and a half of the cubit that has been mentioned and so equal to nine hand-breadths, and 100 of these lands were to go to one kos.—Erskine adds that the larger gas or pace was 9 hand-breadths; the smaller or cubit, 6 hand-breadths.

dhapiyah, which is the distance that a fast runner can traverse at one breath. Some assert that it is the distance within which a green leaf placed on the head of one who

walks rapidly, will become dry.

In ancient tables of measurement by farsakh of distances and magnitudes, it is recorded that the circumference2 of the globe according to the method of the old geographers, was 8,000 farsakh, but 6,800 of the modern school, while all agree in defining a farsakh as three kos. The former made the kos 3000 gaz, each gaz of 32 digits. The latter fixed it at 4000 gaz, each of 24 digitis. The digit with both was the breadth of six ordinary barley-corns placed front to back in succession, and the breadth of each barley corn was equal to the thickness of six hairs of the mane of a Turki horse. To short-sighted superficial observers, it would appear that these two systems differ in their estimate of the kos, but it is clear to the perspicacity of the far-seing that their conclusion is the same, and the apparent difference is caused by the variance in the number of the digits as may be proved by the rule of proportion. This consists of four numbers, the first bearing the same ratio to the second, as the third does to the fourth, as for instance, two is to four as eight is to sixteen. Of the properties of this relation one is this that the product of the extremes is equal to the product of the means, as is evident from the example above mentioned. The proof is given in the 19th proposition of the 7th book of Euclid's where the apparent contradiction is removed. The ratio of 3000 to 4000 is the ratio of 24 to 32. Although the four numbers are here

The word is Hindi and means a short run according to Wilson's Glossary, about 1/4 of a kes or half a mile.

The circumference of the earth, according to our calculations is 24,897 miles and the farsakh is about 3½ English miles; there are of course many local variations. Hamdu'llah Mustaufi, the author of the Nuzhat'ul Qulub, says that the farsakh under the Kaianian dynasty contained 3 miles of 12,000 fact that of Physician was 15,000 models in Arabbilla and Armenia. feet; that of Khwarizm was 15,000 yards; in Azarbijān and Armenia, 12,000 yards, while in the two Ira'ks and the neighbouring provinces it was reckoned at 9000 yards, and in some other places at 8000.

at 5000 yards, and in some other places at 8000.

The Elements of Buclid were restored to Europe by translations from the Arabic which were begun to be made under the Caliphs Harun and Mamun at a time when the very name of that geometrician had disappeared from the West. Nasiru'ddin Tusi (see p. 4, n. 4 of this Volume) in the preface to his Arabic Edition of the thirteen books of the Elements, describes their original composition by Buclid and the subsequent addition of two books by Hypsicles. From it I transcribe the enunciation of the proposition referred to in the just to in the icat.

When four numbers are proportionals, the product of the 1st and 4th= the product of the 2nd and 3rd, and if the product of the 1st and 4th = the product of the 2nd and 3rd, the ratio of the 1st is to the 2nd as the ratio of the 3rd to the 4th."

severally distinct, the product of 3000 and of 32 which are the extremes, is equal to the product of 4000 and of 24 which are the means, namely, 96,000. Thus the result in both is the same, and the discrepancy in the number of yards is through the difference in the number of digits. Each farsakh therefore consists of 12,000 gaz (of 24 digits) according to the measure of the moderns or of 9000 (of 32) digits) according to the gaz of the ancients. The properties and virtues of these proportional numbers are manifold. Among them are the following: If one of the extremes be unknown, multiply the means together and divide by the known extreme, and the quotient is the unknown extreme. For instance in the given example, if 2, the first extreme, be unknown, by multiplying the means together which are 4 and 8, we get 32. Dividing this by 16, the quotient (2) is the unknown extreme. In the same way, if the other extreme, which is 16, be unknown, by dividing the product of the means by 2, the known extreme, the quotient is 16. Again, if the unknown quantity be one of the means, we divide the product of the extremes by the known mean, and the quotient is the unknown mean. For example, if 4, the first mean, be unknown, by dividing the product of the extremes, which is 32, by the known mean which is 8, the quotient is 4. And if the second mean, 8, be unknown, by dividing the product of the extremes by 4, the quotient is 8.

By the same means the distance and altitude from the base of a given object can be ascertained. A staff of a given height is fixed upright. Its shadow and that of the elevate object are measured. The ratio of the shadow of the staff to the staff is proportional to the ratio of the shadow of the object-height to the height itself. Again, a staff is fixed in the ground in the same line with the height to be measured and regarded from such a point that the line of vision may pass over the top of the staff to the summit of the objectheight: the ratio of the distance from the standpoint of vision to the base of the staff is to the height of the staff as the ratio of the distance from the same point to the base of the object is to the height of the object. And if the altitude of an object be measured in a mirror or water and the like, a position must be taken whence the incident line of vision may strike the summit of the (reflected) object-height. The ratio of the distance of the reflected summit from the foot of the spectator is to his height as the ratio of the distance

of the same point from the base of the object is to the height of the object. And if it be required to find the depth of a well, the observer must stand where his line of vision traversing the brink of the well touches the level bottom of the well on the side opposite to him. The ratio of the aistance of the brink of the well from the foot of the observer is to his height as the breadth of the well is to its depth.*

Some take the barid as the standard measure of length

and make.

1 barid	equal to	3 farsakh.
1 farsakh	13	3 mil.
1 mil	2.9	12,000 bāa (pole).
1 bāa	3.7	4 gaz.
1 gaz	1 9	24 digits.
1 digit	,,	6 barleycorns.6 hairs of a mule's tail.
1 barleycorn	**	o nairs of a mule 8 tan.

According to the Hindu philosophers-

8 barleycorns strippe of husks and laid breadth-ways make 24 digits ", 4 dast ".	d
2000 dand ., 4 karoh .,	1 karoh or kos. 1 yoojana.

Some measure by the steps of a woman with a water-jar on her head and carrying a child in her arms, reckoning a

thousand such steps to a kos.

Praise be unto God that the institutes of imperial administration have been completed and a general survey of the Empire, by the aid of divine grace, placed upon record. The numbers of the tribal contingents and the chronology of the ancient kings with some other particulars have cost considerable labour, and from the conflicting accounts received, I was well nigh relinquishing the task, but the decrees of fate cannot be resisted. I have set down what has best commended itself to my judgment, hoping that it may win lusive from the light of public acceptance and its errors escape the carping of illiberal criticism.

END OF VOLUME II.

This method of calculating distance and aboutles is more scientifically given with illustrations in the Siddhanta Stramani of Pundit Bapu Deva,

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ĀʿĪN-I AKBARĪ



'AIN-I-ĀKBARI

OF

ABUL FAZL-I-'ALLAMI

Vol. III

(An encyclopædia of Hindu philosophy, science, literature and customs, with the life of the Author and Akbar's wise sayings)

Translated into English

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Revised and further annotated by SIR JADU-NATH SARKAR,

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

Colonel Jarrett's English translation of the Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. III. (first published in 1893-'96) has been long out of print, though there is always a demand for it and second-hand copies are now selling at fancy prices. But a mere reprint of his edition would not do justice to the present state of Oriental scholarship and would naturally disappoint the modern reader. Jarrett began the preparation of his translation about 1890, that is fully 57 years ago. Among the authorities he most frequently quotes in his notes are D'Herbelot's Bibliotheque Orientale (1697 A.D.), D'Ohsson's Histoire des Mongols (1834), De Guignes's Histoire Generale des Huns (1756), Max Muller's History of Sanskrit Literature (1859), Davies's Hindu Philosophy, Colebrooke's Essays (1805-37) and Elphinstone's History of India (1841).

Since then a complete revolution in our knowledge of these branches of orientology has been effected by the publication of Hastings's Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics, the Encyclopædia of Islam, the Grundriss (Indo-Aryan ed. by Buhler and Iranian by Geiger and Kuhn), Winternitz's History of Sanskrit Literature, and the histories of Hindu Philosophy by Radhakrishnan and S. N. Das Gupta, besides many learned special monographs. In Oriental geography, the work of the modern French and German explorers in Arabia, Persia, Syria and Africa is, except for one or two of the earliest published, entirely unrepresented in Jarrett's notes, and how valuable their information is we can judge by contrasting his remarks on any place-name with the account of it given in the Encyclopædia of Islam.

Thus, the first task of an editor of Jarrett's translation is to modernise his notes and elucidations by sweeping away his heaps of dead leaves. My second aim has been to lighten the burden of his notes, many of which are not only obsolete in information but prolix to the extent of superfluity. It is, I hold, a mistake of the translator's duty to try to make a modern reader get all his ideas of Hindu philosophy, literature, science and mythology, or Islamic hagiography, topography and science from an English translation of Abul Fazi's Ain-i-Akbari.

Abul Fazl's original work was meant to serve as a handy encyclopædia for readers of Persian who knew no other language and had no access to standard works even in the Persian and Arabic languages. The modern reader, versed in English, will find very much fuller and far more accurate information on these subjects in the voluminous encyclopsedias and standard monographs in the English language which have been published in our own times. The law of copyright would probably not permit me to transfer column after column of matter from these modern works to my footnotes, as Jarrett has done with the works of D'Herbelot and other antiquated sources. I have, therefore, totally omitted his lengthy quotations from these authors and given instead exact page references to the Encyclopædia of Islam, the Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics, and other modern authorities, which are available to serious students in the libraries of learned societies and Universities.

I have also economised space and saved the reader from frequent unnecessary interruptions by the omission of the notes on the emendations of the printed Persian text made by the translator. The editing of many of the volumes in the Persian and Arabid section of the Bibliotheca Indica series, was not done with the necessary care and accuracy, as learned circles have found to their vexation. Therefore all obvious misprints and wrong readings have been silently corrected in this new edition of the translation and hundreds of notes of the first edition under this head eliminated. For example, on p. 68, we had "Lakhnauti, in Bengal" followed by the translator's note "The text has Nek for Bang," Such errors, due to the careless placing of dots (nugta) by copyists or proof-readers, are too obvious to raise any doubt; this note has been excluded by me as unnecessary. But in every really important case, where the emendation of the text raises a vital question or leaves room for difference of opinion, the notice of such emendation has been retained in the new edition.

Abul Fazl's copyists or their successors made many errors and omissions in the matter of the latitude and longitude of places, all of which were corrected with meticulous care by Jarrett; I have retained all his corrections but dropped his references to the errors in the Persian text. On p. 104, Jarrett himself admits in despair, "The whole (geographical) list of Abul Fazl is the work of a scribe, not of a geographer".

Abul Fazl's professed aim in writing the Ain-i-Akbari was to give the Persian-reading world of his day a clear idea of the literature, philosophy, arts and sciences of the Hindus, and the saints and heroes of India; but he also tried to adorn the subject by giving a brief account of the Muslim world, both in and out of India,—by means of a short compilation from well-known Arabic and Persian authorities composed outside India. The portions of the Ain which serve the second purpose, make no claim to originality and have no historical value; their accuracy is vitiated by Abul Fazl's possession of very poor manuscripts of the Arabic works used by him. It is therefore not worth the while to note every one of the mistakes he (or his copyists) made for this reason.

No remark made above should be taken to cast any reflection on Col. Jarrett's scholarship or belittle the stupendous task that he accomplished with immense industry and deep and varied learning,—combining the wisdom of the East and the West,—in translating and annotating the Ain-i-Akbari, volumes II and III. He had to translate a very difficult book from a few badly transcribed and unhelpful texts, and to throw light on a wide range of technical subjects current in the middle ages but now obscure.

As will be seen. I have ventured to differ from him and given my own version in only four cases of importance,—viz., the trick for curing gluttony (p. 432 of this edition), Alexander's stratagem against l'orus (p. 440), the benefits of hunting (p. 451), and Akbar's principles of marriage (p. 449); the remaining examples of change are mostly verbal. In all other places the changes made in the present edition consist merely of the omission of obsolete or useless notes, the compression of prolix or partly irrelevant ones, and the modernisation of the information in all the notes that remain. Jones's translation of the Hitopadesa (p. 438, note 11), has been corrected as he had dropped the word iba (=as if) of the original Sanskrit verse. The next most noticeable difference in this edition is the omission of all Greek extracts and literary quotations from Latin. This change has been rendered necessary by the difference between the class of readers whom Jarrett had in view in 1890* and those who will mostly consult this second edition of 1947. The present conditions of paper supply and printing in Calcutta

^{*} On p. 54 of his edition, Jarrett, in referring to the holy city of Medinah, distinguished it not by the English epithet of the "best known", nor by the French phrase par excellence, but by a Greek phrase meaning the same thing and printed in Greek type!

made such compression and omission necessary, if this edition was to be printed at all.

Abul Fazl, unlike Al Biruni, admittedly had no personal knowledge of the Greek and Sanskrit languages. Therefore, with Sachau's English version of Al Biruni in our hands, we do not require the detailed correction or amplification of Abul Fazl's notes on Indian science and philosophy down to the time of Al Biruni, where the ground is better covered by that greater scholar. The real value of the Ain-i-Akbari lies in what it tells us about India under Muslim rule after Al Biruni's time (c 1020 A.D.) and the much ampler details about Hindu philosophy and manners that Abul Fazl derived from the pandits engaged for his "Imperial Gazetteer" by order of Akbar. This latter portion alone has been fully annotated in the present edition.

The considerable amount of space saved by the rejection of hundreds of useless notes and the compression of many others of the first edition, has been put to a better use by employing a larger type and clearer spacing. This is of a special value in a book bristling with oriental proper names and technical terms. The reader of this new edition will, I hope, also appreciate the help that I have tried to provide for him by dividing the book into numbered chapters and sections, and adding descriptive section headings and summaries of contents, in imitation of the device employed in Professor Cornford's recent translation of Plato's Republic, which has been highly commended in England.

The elaborate system of transliteration at present followed by the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal in its Journal; could not be observed in this edition for three reasons: (1) The Society has changed its system several times during the last sixty years, so that no particular method can be rightly regarded as definite and final. In the case of a long volume in the Bibliotheca Indica series which has been issued in periodical fasciculi and completed after many years, (such as Beveridge's translation of the Akbarnamah), two different methods of romanising Oriental words are found in the earlier and latter parts of the same book!

(2) Jarrett has not been uniform in his system of transliteration in this volume and his system (or systems) are not the one ruling in the Society at present. He represents kāf-i-qalmun sometimes by k with a dot below it, and sometimes by q. His 'ain is a with a dot below it, and his hamza is a with an inverted comma, and so

on. If we had to follow the latest system of romanisation throughout this second edition, the press-copy prepared from the printed first edition would have been scrapped up and the whole book typed again and the typescript collated with infinite labour. Hence, too, certain breaches of uniformity on some pages.

(3) Only two presses here possess all the discritical marks, and they can use them only in hand setting up, while linotype composition was considered necessary for this edition. To get over this difficulty, I have been compelled to follow a simple and practical method of romanising, using only two discritical marks, namely \bar{a} for the long vowel and an inverted comma to mark 'ain, while the two $k\bar{a}/s$ have been represented by q and k respectively. But no distinction could be made between the two t's, the two h's, the three s's, and the four z's of the Arabic alphabet; nor has the underlining and underdotting of letters been possible. As this is not a book on Arabic philology, the general reader will hardly feel any loss from the absence of the host of discritical marks, while the learned will be easily able to trace the Persian (or Sanskrit) equivalents of the words in question, as they are mostly well-known.

The index has been prepared by Prof. N. B. Roy. Instead of giving merely the names of places and persons or oriental terms without any explanation as in the index of the 1st edition, he has tried to help the reader by inserting the positions of places and the English renderings of most of the oriental words, besides plenty of cross references (e.g., Yajna and Sacrifice, Jyotisha and Astronomy, &c.) In order to save paper the obscure place and personal names which occur only once in the book have been omitted in my index. For the same reason, only the significant portions of Jarrett's preface to the third volume are reprinted below.

Dec. 1947.

JADUNATH SARKAR.

ABUL FAZL AND AL BIRUNI COMPARED—THE GREAT MERITS OF THE Ain-i-Akbari.

The range and diversity of its subjects (i.e., of the Ain-i-Akbari) and the untiring industry which collected and marshalled, through the medium of an unfamiliar language, the many topics of information to their minutest details, treating of abstruce aciences, subtile philosophical problems, and the customs, social, political and religious of a different race and creed, will stand as an enduring

monument of his learned and patient diligence... Though there is much to be desired, his comprehensive and admirable survey yet merits the highest praise....

He laboured under the disadvantage of unfamiliarity with Sanskrit, and he had to take the statements of his Pandits tested through translations at second-hand. He found his Hindu informants, as he says, of a retrograde tendency, spinning like silk worms, a tissue round themselves, immeshed in their own opinions, conceding the attainment of truth to no other, while artfully insinuating their own views, till the difficulty of arriving at any correct exposition of their system left him in a bewilderment of despair. His description of the nine Schools of Philosophy has the merit of being, as far as it goes, scrupulously precise.

After a careful study of both these authors (Al Biruni and Abul Fazl), I am the more convinced that Abul Fazl borrowed the idea and arrangement of his work from his great predecessor. have shown in his account of the Sarkar of Kabul instances of direct plagiarism from the Memoirs of Baber, and in his lives of Moslem Saints in the third Volume, verbatim extracts without acknowledgment from the Sufic hagiography of Jami'. The same volume displays other examples suggestive rather than definite, of his indebtedness to an author whom he never names. difference between the two men in this particular is most remarkable. Al Biruni's reading was far more extensive and scholarly. The Sanskrit sources of his chapters are almost always given, and Sachau's preface has a list of the many authors quoted by him on astronomy, chronology, geography, and astrology. He was also acquainted with Greek literature through Arabic translations, and in comparing its language and thought and those of Hindu metaphysics, selects his quotations from the Timaeus and its commentator the Veo-Platonist Proclus, with judgment and rare ability. And he rarely fails to record his authorities. With Abul Fazl it is the reverse. He rarely names them, and borrows from every side without scruple as without avowal. The difference in the manner of the two authors is not less conspicuous. Al Biruni quotes freely from his authorities, and where these seem to exaggerate or to be inaccurate, his citations are followed by some sharp brief commentary which gives a ceaseless interest to his pages . . .

His treatment of these topics is throughout scholarly, showing extensive reading and precision of thought acquired by a study of

the exact sciences. Abul Fazl, on the contrary, transcribes either from existing werks or from oral communication. His compilation is extremely careful and carried out with the most laborious and marvellous exactitude, but it is unenlivened by those masterly criticisms which give Al Biruni his unique position among Eastern writers

When all is said, however, which a strict impartiality must weight in counterpoise to Abul Fazl's sterling merits, there remains ample justification for the high place held by this great work in the West as well as the East, and as a record of the extension of the Mughal empire of India under the greatest of its monarchs and the ability with which it was administered, it must always remain of permanent and fascinating interest. It crystallizes and records in brief, for all time, the state of Hindu learning, and besides its statistical utility, serves as an admirable treatise of reference on numerous branches of Brahmanical science and on the manners. beliefs, traditions, and indigenous lore, which for the most part still retain and will long continue their hold on the popular mind. Above all, as a register of the fiscal areas, the revenue settlements and changes introduced at various periods, the harvest returns, valuations and imposts throughout the provinces of the empire, its originality is as indisputable as its surpassing historical importance. The concluding account of the author and his family and the persecutions to which they were subjected will, perhaps, be read with as much interest as any other portion of the work.

H. S. JARRETT.

Calcutta, 17th May, 1894.



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ETHNOGRAPHY OF HINDUSTAN

PREFATORY REMARKS

[The author's object in writing this account is to show that the Hindu religion has true and sublime conceptions of the Deity.]

[P. 1] It has long been the ambitious desire of my heart to pass in review to some extent, the general conditions of this vast country, and to record the opinions professed by the majority of the learned among the Hindus. I know not whether the love of my native land has been the attracting influence or exactness of historical research and genuine truthfulness of narrative, for Banākiti, Hāfiz Abru and other ancient chroniclers have indulged in vain imaginings and recorded stories that have no foundation in fact. Nor were the motives altogether these, but rather that when I had arisen from the close retirement of studious application and discovered somewhat of the ignorance and dissensions of men I formed the design of establishing peace and promoting concord. My original desire now renewed its possession of me, but a multiplicity of occupations prevented its gratification until the turns of fate brought about the composition of this striking record which has already branched out into such numerous details. Although my pen had occupied itself with the description of the Subahs and had briefly recorded the annals of Hindustan, and now that the ambition of my heart had attained the time of its realisation, not content with [P. 2] the information I had already acquired, I had recourse to the knowledge of others and set myself to gather instruction from men of true learning. As I was unfamiliar with the science of terms in the Sanskrit language and a competent interpreter was not available, the labour of repeated translations had to be undertaken, until by good fortune and my own steadfastness of purpose, my object was at length

attained. It then became clear that the commonly received opinion that Hindus associate a plurality of gods with the One Supreme Being has not the full illumination of truth. for although with regard to some points and certain conclusions. there is room for controversy, yet the worship of one God and the profession of His Unity among this people appeared facts convincingly attested. It was indispensable in me, therefore, to bring into open evidence the system of philosophy, the degrees of self-discipline, and the gradations of rite and usage of this race in order that hostility towards them might abate and the temporal sword be stayed awhile from the shedding of blood, that dissensions within and without be turned to peace and the thornbrake of strife and enmity bloom into a garden of concord. Assemblies for the discussion of arguments might then be formed and gatherings of science suitably convened.

[The various causes of misunderstanding and quarrels between different religions in India.]

Notwithstanding that at all periods of time, excellent resolutions and well-intentioned designs are to be witnessed and the extent of the world is never lacking in prudent men, why does misunderstanding arise and what are the causes of contention?

This is confirmed by Colebrooke. "The real doctrine of the Indian Scripture is the unity of the Deity, in whom the universe is comprehended; and the seeming polytheism which it exhibits, offers the elements and the stars and planets as gods. The three principal manifestations of the divinity, with other personified attributes and most of the other gods of Hindu mythology, are indicated in the Veda. But the worship of deified heroes is no part of the system: nor are the incarnations of deities suggested in any portion of the text which I have yet seen, though such are sometimes hinted at by commentators." H. H. Wilson in commenting on this passage admits that the worship of the Vedas is for the most part domestic, addressed to unreal presences and not to visible types, and not idolatry. Vishnu. P. Pref. ii. [H. S. J.] See also Max Muller on henotheism, and Hastings, Encyclopædia of Religion, vi. 283 and 289; viii, (:)-811. [J. Sarkar.]

The *First* cause is the diversity of tongues and the misapprehension of mutual purposes, and thus the alloy of ill-will is introduced and the dust of discord arises.

Secondly, the distance that separates the learned of Hindustan from scientific men of other nationalities who thus are unable to meet, and if chance should bring them together, the need of an interpreter would preclude any practical result. An accomplished linguist capable of mastering the intricacies of science and the abstruse speculations of philosophy among various nations and competent to give them luminous and efficient expression, is very rare. Even at the present time, when through His Majesty's patronage of learning and his appreciation of merit, the erudite of all countries are assembled, and apply themselves with united effort in the pursuit of truth, so proficient a person is not to be found. Such as thirst after the sweet waters of wisdom and who leaving their native land undertake the wanderings of travel and with diligent assiduity employ their energies in the acquisition of various languages, are indeed uncommon. It needs a seeker such as Anushirwan, who amidst the pomp of empire should yet search for the jewel of wisdom, and a minister like Buzurjmihr, void of envy, as his counsellor, and both king and minister combined, to discover a coadjutor so unique and one so upright and intelligent as the physician Barzawaih, and then to send him with abundant means disguised as a merchant to Hindustan in order that with this capital stock-in-trade he might obtain the interest of acquired wisdom; and again this sagacious personage, making no distinction between the absence or presence of his employers, must be diligent in his inquiries and succeed in the accomplishment of his desire through the frankness of his demeanour and his largesse of gold. Or the occasion would demand an indefatigable and lofty intellect like that of Tumtum the Indian, who to receive the instruction of the divine philosopher Plato, passed from Hindustan into Greece and freighting

his caravans with the requisites of travel, set himself to face the dangers of seas and deserts, and with the medicinal simples of wisdom perfected his spiritual health and the harmonious [P. 3] balance of his soul. Or a powerful mind and vigorous body such as Abu Maashar of Balkh, enamoured of wisdom, who holding exile and his native country and toil and ease undissociated, travelled into India from Khorāsān and garnered a store of knowledge at Benares and carried it as a gift of price to the learned of his own land.

Thirdly, the absorption of mankind in the delights of corporeal gratification, for men regard the absence of beauty in an object as placing it beyond the pale of existence and therefore not to be thought of as worth acquisition or productive of enjoyment. Their fastidiousness is averse from listening to accounts of foreign peoples even by way of apologue. And forasmuch as their moral obliquity refuses to lend an ear and the glitter of this deceptive world lets fall a veil of ignorance before their eyes, what must be their state and how may grace illumine for them the lamp of guidance?

Fourthly, indolence. Men account what is ready to hand as more precious than the chance of future possession and prefer ease to exertion. They will not undertake the trouble of profound investigation, and content with a superficial view, will not move a span's length to acquire a deeper insight. He alone is the true promoter of wisdom who, setting before his resolve the investigation of the concealed beauties of meaning, under the guidance of assiduous research and undaunted desire, plants his foot in the dread wilds of research, and reaches the goal of his ambition undismayed by countless labours, sustaining the burden of the road by the force of capacity on the shoulders of his ever resolute will.

Fifthly, the blowing of the chill blast of inflexible custom and the low flicker of the lamp of wisdom. From immemorial time the exercise of inquiry has been restricted, and questioning and investigation have been regarded as precursors

of infidelity. Whatever has been received from father, director, kindred, friend or neighbour, is considered as a deposit under Divine sanction and a malcontent is reproached with impiety or irreligion. Although the few among the intelligent of their generation admit the imbecility of this procedure in others, yet will they not stir one step in a practical direction themselves.

[It is only by meeting on a common platform of study and discussion that different religions can be correctly understood and their true worth appreciated. This book will promote that aim.]

Sixthly, the uprising of the whirlwind of animosity and the storms of persecution have stayed the few earnest inquirers from uniting to discuss their individual tenets and from meeting in friendly assemblies in a spirit of sympathy, and from distinguishing2 commonalty of bond from vital estrangement, under the guidance of impartiality, in order that error may be severed from truth and the why and the wherefore weighed in the scales of sound judgment. Even just monarchs, unconscious of their obligations, have herein neglected them. Arrogance and self-interest have intervened and occasions of intercourse have been marred by perplexities. Some have taken refuge in silence; others have found evasion in obscurity of language, while others again have extricated themselves by time-serving utterances. If temporal rulers had interested themselves in this matter and assuaged the apprehensions of men, assuredly many enlightened persons would have delivered their real sentiments with calmness of mind and freedom of expression. Through the apathy of princes, each sect is bigoted to its own creed and dissensions [P. 4] have waxed high. Each one regarding his own persuasion as alone true, has set himself to the persecution of

⁷ I select a variant relegated to the notes, in place of the text, and amend the doubtful reading that follows by omitting the be before āzaram. With this alteration the difficulty is cleared and its simplicity recommends the correction.

other worshippers of God, and the shedding of blood and the ruining of reputation have become symbols of religious orthodoxy. Were the eyes of the mind possessed of true vision, each individual would withdraw from this indiscriminating turmoil and attend rather to his own solicitudes than interfere in the concerns of others. Amidst such unseemly discord, main purposes are set aside and arguments disregarded. If the doctrine of an enemy be in itself good, why should hands be stained in the blood of its professors? And even were it otherwise, the sufferer from the malady of folly deserves commiseration, not hostility and the shedding of his blood.

Seventhly, the prosperity of wretches without principle who deceitfully win acceptance by affected virtue and rectitude. Such as these do much harm and truths are obscured through unrecognition.

Cease, Abul Fazal, cease! The manifestations of divine wrath are illimitable and infinite are the marvels of their record. Loose not thy hand from the cord of peace seized by thy good intention. Follow out thy long projected design. Though some of thy hearers will attain to wisdom and meet in rejoicing union, yet many will fall into sorrows and reap bewilderment. Thanks be to God that thou art not a hostage to the lament of ignorance nor the extoller of those that are in bonds.

CHAPTER I

THE BOUNDARIES OF HINDUSTAN AND A BRIEF DESCRIPTION THEREOF.

India—Its Boundaries, Seasons, Natural Beauty, and Crops

Hindustan is described as enclosed on the east, west and south by the ocean, but Ceylon, Achin, the Moluccas, Malacca and a considerable number of islands are accounted within its extent. To the north is a lofty range of mountains. part of which stretches along the uttermost limits of Hindustan, and its other extremity passes into Turkestan and Persia. An intermediate region lies between this and the vast frontiers1 of China, inhabited by various races, such as Kashmir, Great and Little Tibet. Kishtāwar and others. This quarter may therefore be likened to another ocean. With all its magnitude of extent and the mightiness of its empire it is unequalled in its climate, its rapid succession of harvests and the equable temperament of its people. Notwithstanding its vast size, it is cultivated throughout. You cannot accomplish a stage nor indeed travel a kos without meeting with populous towns and flourishing villages, nor without being gladdened by the sight of sweet waters, delightful verdure and enchanting downs. In the autumn and throughout the depth of winter the plains are green and the trees in foliage. During the rainy season which extends from the close of the Sun's stay in Gemini to his entry into the sign of Virgo2, the elasticity of the atmosphere is enough to transport the most dispirited and lend the vigour of youth to old age. Shall I praise the refulgence of its skies or the marvellous fertility of its soil?

² Middle of June to end of August.

Lit. Chin and Machin, feigned or believed by Orientals to be the descendants of Japhet and applied by metonymy to express the full extent of the Chinese dominions.

[Noble character of the people of India, monotheism the universal root of their religious belief, while their image-worship is not idolatry, but an "aid to flxing the mind and keeping the thoughts from wandering".]

Shall I describe the constancy of its inhabitants or record their benevolence of mind? Shall I portray the beauty that charms the heart or sing of purity unstained? Shall I tell of heroic valour or weave romances of their vivacity of intellect and their lore? The inhabitants of this land are religious, affectionate, hospitable, genial and frank. They are fond of scientific pursuits, inclined to austerity of life, seekers after justice, contented, industrious, capable in affairs, loyal, truthful and constant. The true worth of this people shines most in the day of adversity and its soldiers know not retreat from the field. When the day is doubtful, they dismount from their steeds and resolutely put their lives to hazard, accounting the dishonour of flight more terrible than death, while some even disable their horses before entering the fight.

They are capable of mastering the difficulties of any subject in a short space of time and surpass their instructors, and to win the Divine favour they will spend body and soul and joyfully devote their lives thereunto. They one and all believe in the unity of God, and as to the reverence they pay to images of stone and wood and the like, which simpletons regard as idolatry, it is not so. The writer of these pages has exhaustively discussed the subject with many enlightened and upright men, and it became evident that these images of some chosen souls nearest in approach to the throne of God, are fashioned as aids to fix the mind and keep the thoughts from wandering, while the worship of God alone is required as indispensable. In all their ceremonial observances and usage they ever implore the favour of the worldillumining sun and regard the pure essence of the Supreme Being as transcending the idea of power in operation.

Brahmā, of whom mention was formerly made, they hold to be the Creator; Vishnu, the Nourisher and Preserver; and Rudra, called also Mahādeva, the Destroyer. Some maintain that God who is without equal, manifested himself under these three divine forms, without thereby sullying the garment of His inviolate sanctity, as the Nazarenes hold of the Messiah. Others assert that these were human creatures exalted to these dignities through perfectness of worship, probity of thought and righteousness of deed. The godliness and self-discipline of this people is such as is rarely to be found in other lands.

They hold that the world had a beginning, and some are of opinion that it will have an end, as will be mentioned hereafter.

An astonishing circumstance is this, that if an alien wishes to enter the Brahman caste, they would not accept him, and were one of these to adopt another religion and subsequently desire to revert to his own, he would not be suffered so to do save in case of his apostasy under compulsion. They have no slaves. When they go forth to battle or during an attack by an enemy, they collect all their women in one building, and surround it with wood and straw and oil, and place on guard some trusty relentless men, who set fire to it when those engaged in fight despair of life, and these chaste women vigilant of their honour are consumed to death with unflinching courage.

In times of distress, moreover, should any one, though unconnected by ties of intimacy, implore their protection, they are prompt to aid and grudge neither property, life nor reputation in his cause³.

The same things were observed by the Chinese pilgrim Yuan Chwang in the 7th century: "The ordinary people, although they are naturally light-minded, yet they are upright and honourable... They are faithful to their oaths and promises... In their behaviour there is much gentleness and sweetness." (Beal, i. 83.) And of the Marathas: "The disposition of the people is honest and

It was also the custom in former times for each warrior in battle to challenge a foe and to encounter none other than him. [P. 6]

[The Soil and its Produce—Arts and Crafts of the People of Hindustan.]

The soil is for the most part arable and of such productive power that the same land is sown each year and in many places three harvests and more are taken in a single twelvemonth and the vine bears fruit in its first year.

Mines of diamond, ruby, gold, silver, copper, lead and iron abound. The variety of its fruits and flowers proclaim its luxuriance. Its perfumes and melodies, its viands and raiment are choice and in profusion. Its elephants cannot be sufficiently praised, and in parts of the country the horses resemble Arabs in breed and the cattle are uncommonly fine. But for its lack of cooled water, its excessive heats, the scarcity of grapes, melons and carpets, and of camels, it was open to the cavils of the experienced.4 His Majesty has remedied these deficiencies. Saltpetre is now extensively used for its cooling properties, and high and low appreciate the benefit of snow and ice brought down from the northern mountains. There is a slender fragrant root called khas (the oderiferous grass Andropogon Muricatum) of which, under His Majesty's instructions, the fashion of constructing trellised chambers has come into vogue, and upon this if water be sprinkled, another winter arises amid the summer heats. Skilled hands from Turkestan and Persia under His Majesty's patronage, sowed melons and planted vines, and traders began to introduce in security the fruits of those countries, each in its season and with attention to their quality, which occasioned an abundance here when they were not procurable in their own. Through the favour of His Majesty, all

simple;... to their benefactors they are grateful; to their enemies relentless. If they are asked to help one in distress, they will forget themselves in their haste to render assistance." (ii. 256) J.S.

products of art, and the manufacture of woollen and silken carpets and of brocades were extensively encouraged, and by means of the royal countenance so fine a breed of camels has been produced as to be equal to the dromedaries of 'Iraa.

A summary view of India having been now given, I shall proceed with more particularity, still proffering but little out of much and recording one among a thousand details.

THE COSMOGONY OF THE HINDUS: STORIES OF CREATION.

More than eighteen opinions on this point have been professed and extraordinary narratives put forward, and each describes a different genesis. It will be sufficient to mention three of them. The first is that God who has no equal, taking upon himself the form of man appeared under the special manifestation called Brahma already alluded to, and by his mere volition produced four sons, Sanak, Sanandan, Sanātan, and Sanatkumār. Each of these was commanded to engage in acts of creation, but lost in rapture of contemplation in the divine essence they neglected to comply. In anger, the Supreme being formed another design and came forth from his own forehead under another semblance and name as Mahādeva. His sublime immensity unfitted him for creative action. Ten5 other sons issued from his volition and then from his body he fashioned the forms of male and female. The former was called Manu and the latter Satarupā. These two are the progenitors of mankind. [P. 7.].

^{&#}x27;The reference is to Babur, who writes in his memoirs: 'Hindustan is a country of few charms; there are no good horses, no good dogs, no grapes, musk-melons or first-rate fruits, no ice or

cold water. There are no running waters in their gardens and residences. (Beveridge's tr. 518. J.S.)

A variant has, 'two'.—The text has incorrectly Satruka, for which error Abul Fazl is responsible. The Vishnu Purana says that he divided his male being into eleven persons. Next he created himself the Manu Swayambhuva and the female portion of himself he constituted Sata-rupa whom the Manu took to wife. There are also other complications of birth and intercourse which may be pursued by the curious in the Purana itself. p. 51 et seq.

Secondly, it is maintained that God6 the Creator of the world, manifested himself under the form of a woman whom they call-Mahā-Lachhmi. Three qualities are incorporated with her, Satva, Raja and Tama. When she willed to create the world, through the instrumentality of Tama, she manifested herself under another form which is called Mahā-Kāli and also Mahā-Māyā. By her union with Satva, a further genesis proceeded called Saraswati, and at her command each brought forth a male and female and these two forms she herself inspired with life. Thus two beings were born of each. From Mahā-Lachhmi sprung Brahma under the form of a man, and Sri under the guise of a woman who is also called Sāvitri. From Mahā-Kāli, were brought forth Mahā-deva and Tri the latter of whom is also distinguished as Mahā-bidya and Kāmdhenu, and from Saraswati came forth Vishnu and Gauri. When these six forms took birth, Mahā-Lachhmi proceeded to their conjugal union, and joined Brahma with Tri, Gauri with Mahā-deva, and Sri with Vishnu. The conjunction of Brahma and Tri produced an egg' which Mahā-deva divided into two parts, from one of which originated the devatās, daityas and the like super-

the pranmand or egg of Brahma is applied by Albiruni to the whole æther on account of its supposed spherical shape and its division into upper and lower and he says that when the Hindus enumerate the heavens they call them in their entirety, Brahmand.

[The latest and best account of Hindu Cosmogony and

[&]quot;Hari, the lord of all, called also Janardana (from Jana, "men" and Arddana, 'worship'—'the object of adoration to mankind'). He is the one only God, taking the designation of Brahma, Vishnu and Siva, according as he creates, preserves or destroys:—This is the invariable doctrine of the Puranas. See Wilson, Vishnu, P. p. 19. The three qualities or attributes are shared by the Hindu Triad; Brahma being the embodiment of Raja-guna, the desire that created the world; Siva that of Tama-guna, the attribute of wrath; and Vishnu is Satwa-guna or the property of mercy and goodness. The Brahmand or egg of Brahma is applied by Albiruni to

Cosniclogy is the one by H. Jacobi in Hastings's Encyclo. of Religion, iv. 155-160. Varāha-Mihir the author of Surya-Siddhānta, died in 587 A.D. The old notes of Jarrett based on Bentley have been omitted here. J. S.]

natural beings; from the other, men, animals, and the vegetable and mineral worlds.

The Third opinion is accounted the most authentic. In the work called Surva-Siddhanta composed some hundreds of thousands of years ago, it is circumstantially related that towards the end of the Satya-yuga, flourished the great Demon Maya. That sage was lost in astonishment at the wonders of creation, and confounded by his own ignorance, applied himself to a supplication of the Sun to discover the mode in which creation was effected and passed some thousands of years in these entreaties and desires. After he had undergone surpassing trials, that bestower of radiance on the heavens and the earth appeared to him under a beautiful form and asked him what he desired. He said. "Draw back the veil from the marvels of the stars and the skies and from the mysteries of wisdom and illuminate the darkness of my understanding with the light of knowledge. It was answered: "Thy desire shall be granted. In a certain shrine unite in spirit with me and a celestial being shall appear and instruct you in wisdom." The seeker was comforted. He waited in expectation at the shrine appointed and near the close of the Satya-yuga, the giver of his desire appeared. The sage entered into much questioning regarding the mysteries of heaven and earth and received replies that satisfied him. [8]. The questions and answers were compiled in one volume under the name of the Surya Siddhanta, and to this day the astronomy, of entire Hindustan is based upon it. In this work the origin of creation is said to be from the Sun, which is regarded as a divine manifestation. The Almighty Creator of the world formed a hollow sphere of gold composed of two parts which he rendered luminous with somewhat of His own glory and it was called the Sun. The Sun produced the signs of the Zodiac and from the same source sprung the four Vedas, and afterwards the moon, the ethereal fluid, air, fire, water and earth, in this order. From

the ether he produced Jupiter; from the air, Saturn; from fire. Mars; from water, Venus; and from the earth, Mercury. Through the ten portals of the human frame-work he brought various matter into being. The ten portals are thus numbered: the two eyes, the two ears, the nose, the mouth, the navel. the anterior and posterior foramina, and the tenth, the crown of the head, which last is closed. It opens, however, at the time of death in some of those who are about to quit life and body, and this is considered singularly auspicious. His Majesty has increased the number of portals by the two breasts, and counts the number as twelve. After a long course the human race became of four kinds as shall be presently related.

ON THE INFERIOR AND SUPERIOR COSMIC PHENOMENA.

The Hindu philosophers maintain that the elements have a spherical forms and they have added Ether to the number. They hold it to pervade all things and that no space is void of it. They do not incline to the notion of a celestial substance (āsmān) but adopt the account of the spheres on the system of the Almagest of Ptolemy. The Zodiac is divided into twelve signs, each of which is termed "rās."

They are as follows: -

- 1. Mesha.
- 2. Vrisha.
- 3. Mithuna.
- 4. Karkaja

- 1. Aries.
- 2. Taurus.
- 3. Gemini.
- Cancer.

Ether is so called by the Greeks from its being in perpetual

The authorities for this are Arya-bhata, Vasistha and Lata. Albiruni, 26.

flow. Arist., De Cælo, iii.

"Ptolemy's first book of the Almagest treats among other matters of the spherical form and motion of the heavens, the spherical form of the earth and its location in the centre of the heavens and of the two circular celestial motions which all the stars have in common.

- 5. Sinha.
- 6. Kanyā.
- 7. Tulā.
- 8. Vrischika.
- 9. Dhanu.
- 10. Makara.10
- 11. Kumbha.
- 12. Mina.

- 5. Leo.
- 6 Virgo.
- 7. Libra.
- 8. Scorpio.
- 9. Sagittarius.
- 10. Capricornus.
- 11. Aquarius.
- 12. Pisces.

The Persian, Egyptian and Greek sages affirm the existence of a colourless body which is transparent and is not subject to growth, increase, decrease, disruption, conjunction nor dissolution, neither does it admit of tenuity nor density nor generation nor decay. It is not compounded of hodies variously organised, neither is it affected by heat, cold, moisture, nor dryness, nor can lightness or gravity be predicated of it.[9] It possesses life and continuity of existence, and is not subject to desire or anger. It is called "asmān." The general opinion is that the Universe (to pān) includes nine spheres, but some think eight, others, eleven,

Capricornus was represented on ancient monuments with the fore part of a goat and the hind part of a fish. The Hindu Makara, according to the Sanskrit verses of Snpati, quoted by Sir W. Jones, (1, 336) is a sea-monster with the face of an antelope. The question at once presents itself as to the relative antiquity of the Greek and Indian Zodiacal signs. [H. S. J.] On the relation between Greek and Hindu astronomy, see Kaye in J.R.A.S., 1910, p. 759 and J.A.S.B., 1911, p. 813, and the volume on Astronomy in the Grundriss. The relation between Hindu and Arab astronomy is best described briefly in Hastings, Encyclopædia of Religion, xii. 95, the writer of which article has treated the same subject again in Ency. Islam, i. 497-502. [J. S.]

These are the attributes of the Pradhana, (chief principle or primary crude matter) ascribed to it by the Sankhya philosophy. It is independent and co-ordinate with primary spirit. See Vishnu P, p. 9 et seq. The greater part of this passage is almost identical with the description of the word. falk, the Arabic equivalent of asmān, in the Istilāhāt u'l Funun, pp. 1134-5 quoted from the Hidayat u'l Hikmat (Institutis philosophise recta) of Maibudi. I have not been able to trace the passage in the latter work verbatim, but in scattered references only. The notion is taken from Aristotle. De Cælo, iii.

others, seven, and it is even affirmed that there is but a single Kosmos.

The Hindu philosophers acknowledge the existence of the planets and fixed stars, but assert that their substance is of water12 congealed like hail, and that they receive their light from the sun. Others maintain that it is from the moon, and that these luminous bodies dominate the aspects of fortune. They also hold the connection of a celestial spirit with each. Some suppose the stars to be human beings, who by suppressing the emotions of anger and desire, and by mortification and moral beauty of life, have reached this exalted eminence.

NAMES OF THE PLANETS13 AND THE DAYS OF THE WEEK.

Sanichar is Saturn (Saturday). Brihaspati is Jupiter (Thursday). Mangal is Mars (Tuesday). Aditya, the Sun (Sunday). The Hindus have more than a thousand names for the sun. His Majesty knows by heart the whole of these and uses them in his prayers, but the name Suraj is the one in common use among all classes. Sukra is Venus (Friday) Budh is Mercury (Wednesday). Soma is the Moon (Monday).

12 The 19th Chap, of Albiruni's India begins with the same subject and the similarity of treatment and expression, though not of the order, is so striking that, as I have before had occasion to observe, there is little doubt of Abul Fazl's indebtedness to this author. Albiruni's handling of any subject he discusses is that of a philosopher who is master of it; Abul Fazl is purely the compiler and scribe.

¹⁸ Albiruni mentions this in his LV Chap. "The Hindus believe regarding the bodies of all the stars that they have a globular shape, a watery essence, and that they do not shine, whilst the sun alone is of fiery essence, self-shining and per accidens illuminates other stars when they stand opposite to him. They reckon according to eyesight among the stars also, such luminous bodies as in reality are not stars, but the lights into which those men have been metamorphosed who have received eternal reward from God. The Vishnu-Dharma says: "The stars are watery and the rays of the sun illuminate them in the night. Those who by their pious deeds have obtained a place on the height, sit there on their thrones, and when shining, they are reckoned among the stars!" Sachau's Trans. II, 64.

Each of these planets has several names, and each day of the week has a special connection with and is named after its planet, with the addition of the word 'wār.' Thus, Sunday which begins the week is called Aditya-wār; Monday, Soma-wār; Tuesday, Mangal-wār; Wednesday, Budh-wār; Thursday, Brihaspati-wār; Friday, Sukra-wār; Saturday, Sanichar-wār.

THE INSTITUTION OF THE Gharyāl.

This is a round gong of mixed metal, 4 shaped like a griddle but thicker, made of different sizes; and suspended by a cord. It may not be sounded except by royal command, and accompanies the royal equipage.

The Hindu philosophers divide the day and night and four parts, each of which they call pahr. Throughout the greater part of the country, the pahr never exceeds nine gharis nor is less than six. The ghari is the sixtieth part of a nychthemeron, and is divided into sixty parts, each of which is called a pal which is again subdivided into sixty bipal.

In order to ascertain and indicate the time, a vessel of copper or other metal is made of a hundred tanks, weight. In Persian it is called pingan, as an ancient sage sings,

[10] Why reck'st thou of a world whose span A clepsydra doth mete to man?¹⁵

gold, tin, copper and silver. The ordinary bell-metal is an alloy of 80 parts of copper and 20 of tin, though some English bells have been found to consist of copper, tin, zinc and lead.

¹⁵ These lines are from Hadiqah of Hakim Sanāi, p. 298, of the lithographed edition. The clepsydra was known in Greece in the time of Aristophanes and was used for regulating the time allowed for speeches of accused persons before courts of justice. But in this, the water was allowed to escape through the orifice of the vessel. (See Lewis' Ast. of the Ancients, p. 182.)

It is in the shape of a bowl narrower at the lower part. twelve fingers in height and breadth. A perforation is made below to admit of a golden tube being passed through of the weight of one Māshā, and in length the breadth of five fingers. It is placed in a basin of pure water in a place undisturbed by the wind. When the bowl is full of water, one ghari is elapsed, 15a and in order that this should be known to far and near, the gong is struck once, and for the second time, twice. and so on. When a pahr has elapsed, the number of gharis expired therein is first sounded and then more deliberately from one to four (according to the pahr), thus announcing the pahr struck. Thus when it is two pahr, (twelve o'clock), the gong is struck twenty-sixth times, taking the pahr at eight gharis. The Emperor Baber in his Memoirs writes: "When at the end of a pahr a certain number of gharis had elapsed. this number was sounded while the pahr just expired was unknown. I ordered that the number of the pahr should be repeated after a brief interval." The Hindu philosophers account 360 breathings of a man in good health as a ghari of time, and each is formed of six inspirations and respirations, of which 21,600 are drawn in the course of a nychthemeron.

The Hindu hour-glass is thus described in the Surya Siddhānta, Chap. XIII. "The copper vessel (in the shape of the lower half of a water jar) which has a small hole in its bottom and placed upon clean water in a basin, sinks exactly sixty times in a nychthemeron, is called the Kapāla Yantra. In the Vishnu Purāna, p. 631, it is said to be "a vessel made of 12½ Palas of copper, in the bottom of which there is to be a hole made with a tube of gold, of the weight of 4 Māshas and 4 inches long." A commentary is more explicit. "A vessel made of 12½ Palas of copper, and holding a Prastha, (a Magadha measure) of water, broad at top and having at bottom a tube of gold of 4 Māshas weight, 4 fingers long, is placed in water, and the time in which the vessel is filled by the hole in the bottom is a Nādika." It is therefore clear that there must be a pipe of the metal and of the length given, and not a simple aperture only. See a paper on Horometry in the As. Res. V. 87.

THE ORDER OF THE SPHERES.

The first is the Earth, over which is Water, but not encompassing it entirely. Above this is Fire, towards its northern extremity shaped like a myrobalan. Above this again is the Air, but its concave surface is not spherical. The Air is of nine kinds. Bhuvayu, is the atmosphere extending up to the height of forty-seven kos from the globe of the earth. It is volatile in every direction and is the region wherein rain. thunder and lightning take their origin. Avalia is the air from the last-mentioned body to the moon. Pravaha, from the second to Mercury. Udvaha from the third to Venus. Samvaha, from the fourth to the Sun. Suvaha, from the fifth to Mars. Parivaha, from the sixth to Jupiter. Paravaha, from the seventh to Saturn. Pravahānila, from the eight to the fixed stars. Day and night are formed by the revolution of this wind, with a movement from east to west, the other seven winds reversing this order of motion. 16 But their more authoritative opinion is that those seven form the Pravahānila. and are named after the seven planets and all revolve from east to west.17 Their knowledge does not extend beyond the fixed stars. Ether transcends all other spheres and is unfathomable.

order are supposed to acquire the property of causality one to the other. The order in all the Purānas but one is the same according to Wilson (Vish P.), and agrees with the text. The seven winds occur in this order in the Siddhānta Siromani which adds; "The atmosphere extends to the height of 12 yojanas from the earth. Within this limit are the clouds, lightning, &c. The Fravaha wind which is above the atmosphere moves constantly to the westward with uniform motion. As the sphere of the universe includes the fixed stars and planets, it therefore being impelled by the Pravaha wind is carried round with the stars and planets in a constant revolution." Wilkinson's Translation, p. 127.

¹⁷ Compare with this the direction of the planes of the winds and their names according to the Moslem theory, in Albiruni's Chronology of Anc. Nations, Sachau, p. 341. In Vol. 1 of his India. (p. 280 Sach.) Brahmagupta says "The wind makes all the fixed stars and the planets revolve towards the W. in one and the same

The mean motions of the planets which they call Madhyama differ from the Greek reckoning in the seconds and thirds. Thus, in a nychthemeron [P. 11] extending from midnight to midnight, the Surya-Siddhānta gives the following calculations.

			Degrees.	Minutes.	Seconds.	Thirds.
Moon Mercury) Venus }	•••	•••	13	10 59	34 8	53
Sun Mars Jupiter Saturn	•••	•••	0 0	31 4 2	26 59 0	28 9 23

According to the Greeks.

	_		Degrees.	Minutes.	Seconds.	Thirds.
Moon	•••	•••			35	2
Mercury Venus	•••	•••				19
Mars Jupiter	•••	•••	<u> </u>		27	40 16
Saturn		•••				35

revolution, but the planets move also in a slow pace to the E. like a dust atom moving on a potter's wheel in a direction opposite to that in which the wheel is revolving." Albiruni considers their speaking of the wind as a motor is intended only to facilitate the idea to the vulgar comprehension, but when they come to speak of the first mover (God) they at once lay aside comparison with the wind whose essence is not moving but is a body acted upon by external influence. According to the Surya-Siddhānta the rapid movement of the planets is caused by the wind Pravaha.

The motion of the Planets is considered of their essence and is of equal velocity in all. When calculated in kos their rate of motion is said to be 11,858 yojana¹⁸ and 3 kos in the space of a nychthemeron, and their direction is from west to east. The difference in their periods arises from the greater or less extent of their orbits, the superior being greater than those lower in position.

The progression of the fixed stars they consider to be somewhat similar to that of the planets, but differing from the Greeks, they assert that with regard to the Lunar stations, there is a motion of 54 seconds in one year, or one degree in 66 years and 8 months. They compute that the asterisms advance 27 degrees from the beginning of Aries, or according to another calculation, having advanced 24 degrees, they have a retrograde motion till they reach the 28th degree of Pisces whence they return to Aries, and the same movement re-commences. The Ursa Major which is called in Sanskrit Sapta-rishi (the seven Sages) has a precession in one year of 17 seconds, 47 thirds from west to cast, or one degree in

¹⁸ A yojana is four kos. Albiruni in his India, Chap. XV, (Sach. I. 167) makes 1 krosa=1 mile or 4,000 yards, and 1 yojana=8 miles or kroh or 32,000 yards. Some, he adds, thinks that the krosa=1/4 farsakh, and so make the farsakh of the Hindus 16,000 yards, but this is not so, as this latter (farsakh) is=1/2 yojana. Sachau has made a slight oversight in this last passage by translating 1 krosa=1/2 yojana. But this cannot be as he already says above that 1 yojana=8 krosa. The Farsakh is reckoned by Albiruni in his V Chap. as 3 miles, and=1/2 yojana which being reckoned above at 32,000 yards, gives the length of the farsakh necessarily at 16.000. But with this result he appears to quarrel.

In the Surya-Siddhānta, the precession of the equinoxes is thus described: "The circle of Asterisms librates 000 times in a great Yuga (that is, all the Asterisms at first move westward 27°. Then returning from that limit they reach their former places. Then from those places they move eastward the same number of degrees, and returning thence come again to their own places. Thus they complete one libration or revolution as it is called). Bapu Deva. Burgess has a long note on this mode of statement in his translation, p. 100.

200 years and 6 months, and accomplishes its revolution. One sect considers the operation of these forces to depend solely on the power of the Almighty.

The ancient Greeks, including Aristotle, were ignorant of the motion of the fixed stars and Hipparchus observed a few²⁰ with a motion from east to west in the Zodiac, but he was unable to calculate their dimensions. Ptolemy determined the motion of the stars in longitude to be one degree in a hundred solar years. Ibn Aalam and others reckoned sixty. The observations of Nasir'uddin Tusi agree with this last, but Muhyiddin Maghrabi²¹ and a number of experts at the same observatory discovered that Aldebaran, the Heart of Scorpio (a Scorpii), and others, advanced a degree in 66 years. In the Curgāni Tables (of Ulugh Beg) this is made to occur in 70 Yazdajirdi years, each of which is 365 years without a fraction.

²⁰ M. Montulca observes that Hipparchus, according to Ptolemy, suspected that only the stars in the Zodiac or in its vicinity had been disturbed in position as if, being the nearest in some measure to the great route of the planets, they had been more exposed to share in their motion. But he soon discovered that the movement was general around the poles of the Zodiac, and he transmitted a large number of observations on the fixed stars for the use of his successors. They served to assure Ptolemy of the perfect immovability of the fixed stars with regard to each other and of the movement of the whole starry sphere around the poles of the Zodiac. Hist. des Math. 265, 1.

²¹ Called al Maghrabi from his residence in Spain and Africa. He was spared in the sack of Aleppo by Holagu and associated with Tusi at Maragha in A. H. 658. He thus took part in forming the Ilkhani Astronomical Tables. He had a wide reputation as a philosopher and mathematician. D'Herb.

Ptolemy following the steps of Hipparchus, established conclusively his theory of the movement of the fixed stars. In comparing the longitudes of several of these with those found by Hipparchus, he showed that they had advanced parallel to the Ecliptic by 2° 40′ since his day and as 265 years had since then elapsed, he concluded the movement to be one degree in 100 years. The more exact calculation of modern days shows it to be one in 72. Hist. des. Math. I. 225.

CIRCUMFERENCES OF THE SPHERES.2

The Plan	nets.	Yojanas.	Kroh.	
Moon Mercury Venus Sun [12] Mars Jupiter Saturn	•••	4,331,500 8,146,908 51,375,764 127,668,255	3 2- and a fraction a fraction 3 1 2 less a fraction	
Fixed Stars Lither, beyond sun's rays traverse	which the	259,890,012 18,712,080,864,000,000	•••	

The minutes of the diameters of each of the planets bear a proportionate ratio to the minutes of their circumference.²³

3 8	Mustard seeds Barley corns	.	Barley com.
24	Digita	ě	Digit. Cubit (Dast).
4	Cubits	e e	Dand.
	Dand	la	Kos.
4	Kos.) = i	Yojana.

LUNAR STATIONS.

Each of these is called Nakshatra, and they are 27 in number, severally divided into 13 degrees and 20 minutes.

²⁵ These distances are given in Albiruni's LV Chap, in two computations with some variance between each other and those of the text. They are also given in 12th chapter of the Surya-Siddhānta with some slight variation from the text.

This sentence is not in two MSS. and as it stands, appears incomplete. The remaining terms of the proportional are missing, and are probably the number of yojanas of the diameters, to the yojanas of the circumferences. Thus the minutes of the diameter of the moon are to the minutes of her circumference, i.e., 21600, as the number of the yojanas of the diameter, i.e., 480, are to the yojanas of the circumference of her whole sphere, and in the same way with the Sun, as shewn by Albiruni, Chap. LV.

Altogether 221 stars. The moon never tarries in any one station more than 65½ gharis or less than 54½.

Three degrees and twenty minutes of the 21st Nakshatra to 48' of the 22° Nakshatra have, for certain purposes, been

Asterisms.	No. of stars		
1 A (A-iatia)		•••	3
1. Aswini (Arietis) 2. Bharani (Musca)			3 3 6 5 3 1 4 3 5 5 2 2 5
2. Bharani (Musca) 3. Krittikā (Tauri Pleiades)	•••		6
4. Rohini (Tauri Aldabaran)	•••		5
5. Mrigasira (Orionis)	***		3
6. Ardra (Orionis))
7. Punarvāsu (Geminorum)	***		4
8. Pushya (Cancri)			3
9. Aslesha (I and 2 Cancri)	•••		5
0. Maghā Leonis Regulus)	•••		5
1. Purvā-phālguni (Leonis)			2
2. Uttarā-phālguni (Leonis)	***		2
3. Hastā)Corvi)	***	•••	5
4. Chitra (Virginis, Spica)	***		į.
5. Swāti (Bootis; Arcturus)	***		į.
6. Visakha (dibra)			4
7. Anurādhā (Scorpionis)	***		4
6. Jyeshthā (Scorpionis, Antares)	***		3 11
9. Mula (Ccorpionis)			П
). Purvāshādhā (Sagittani)	• • •		4
I. Uttarāshādhā (Sagittarii)			3
2. Abhijit (Lyri)	••		
3. Sravana (Aquilæ)	***		3
f. Dhanishthä (Delphini)			4
i. Satabhishā (Aguarii)		I	
o. Purvābhadrapadā (Pegasi)			
. Uttarabhadrapadā (Andromedæ)	• • •		
B. Revati (Piscium)			

Note. I have taken the stars from Bapu Deva's translation of the Surya-Siddhānta.

²⁴ 'A complete revolution of the moon,' says Sir W. Jones in his paper on the Indian Zodiack (As. Res. II. 293) with respect to the stars, being made in 27 days, odd hours, minutes and seconds, and perfect exactness being either not attained or required by the Hindus, they fixed on the number 27 and inserted Abhljit for some astrological purpose in their nuptial ceremonies. It consists of 3 stars between the 21st and 22nd stations." According to Albiruni, Abhijit is the Falling Eagle. An Nasr al Wāqi.

The Greeks reckoned 28 Lunar Stations and assigned 12 degrees, 51 minutes and 26 seconds to each. They are as follows.28

Names of the Lunar Stations.					Magnitudes.	
1.	Al Sharatan (Arietis)	• • •		2	3rd.	
2.	Al Butain (Arietis)		1	3	5th.	
3.	Al Thurayya (Pleiades)	• • •		6	5th.	
4.	Aldabarān (Tauri)	•••		Ĭ	lat.	
5.	Al Hakaah (Orionis)	•••			nebular26	
6.	Al Linnal (Committee)	•••		3 2 2 2	3rd and 4th.	
7.	Al Diaz (Caminam)	• • •		2	2nd.	
8.	Al Nathrah (Pæsepe et duo		Cancril	2	4th.	
9.	Al Tarfah (the eye of Leo;			_	1	
	gether, one belonging to L				;	
	to the stars outside the figu			2	! 4th	
10.	Al Jubrah (Leonis)			4	one of the	
	(4th.	
П.	Al Zubrah (Leonis)	•••		2	2nd.	
12.			***	Ī	lst.	
13.				5	. 3rd	
14.				. 1	ist.	
15.			***	3 2	4th.	
16.	Al Zubānā (Libræ)			. 2	2nd.	
17.	Al Iklil (Scorpii)			3	4th.	
18.	Al Kalb (Sorpii)	•••		ī	2nd.	
19.	Al Shaulah (Scorpii)	• •	•••	•	2nd.	
2 0.	Al Naāim (Sagittarii)	• •	• • •	4	3rd.	
21.	Al Baldah, a blank circular	enace	of the		1	
<i>a.</i>	heavens	opacc	01 1			
22.	Saad Al Dhābih (Capricorni)	•••	***	2	3rd.	
23.	Saad-Bulaa (Aquarii)	• •		. 2	3rd and 4th	
29. 24.	10 1 ALC LIA III	• • •			3rd and 5th	
24. 25,	(Saad) Al Akhbiyah (Aquari)		* * *	4	3rd.	
25. 26.	Makadam (Alfanak al Assau	el (Par	line	2	2nd.	
	Mukaddam (Alfargh al Aww	(Page	(asi)		1	
27.	Muakkhar (Alfaragh Althani Andromedæ)	(1. ega	and	. 2	2nd.	

In all 66 or 67 stars.

In the following table will be found various particulars regarding the Planets.

25 Abul Fazl gives only the Arabian names. I take the Greek

equivalents from Albiruni's Chronology, Sachau, p. 343.

24 Ptolemy considered them one cloudy star and called them the nebulæ in the head of Orion. Albiruni, See also Humboldt's Cosmos, Vol. III, pp. 120-22, Otte.

wanting in all the MSS. The entries were probably left to be made at a later time, and either forgotten or the information was never obtained. The details were the diameters and dimensions of the planets and their distances from the earth's centre in farsakhs and yojanas according to the Hindus, to Ptolemy and to modern astronomers, but as Albiruni observes, the Hindu astronomers themselves are not agreed in their computations. Pulisa reckons the diameter of the earth as 1,600 yojanas, and its circumference as 5026 14/15, whilst Brahmagupta reckons the former at 1,581 and the latter at 5,000 yojanas. The table of Yaqub-b-Tārik, will be found in Albiruni's India, Vol. II, p. 68.]

MAGNITUDES OF THE FIXED STARS.

The Hindu philosophers reckon seven magnitudes as follows:—

Magnitudes.	Minutes.	Seconds.	Yojanas.	Kos,	Dand.	Cubit.	Digit.
Diameter of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th	7654321	30 15 30 0 0 0	90,239 75,199 66,175 48,127 36,095 24,063 12,031	2 2 2 3 0 3 3	700 1,250 1,580 238 678 1,119 1,559	 2 3 1 2	 2 13 1 12

The Greeks mention six. The first they call the greatest (Akbār) and the sixth, the least (Asghar), and each comprised three degrees, the great, the mean and the less, each more

²¹ Humboldt remarks that at the period of Mongolian supremacy in the 15th century, when astronomy flourished at Samarkand under Ulugh Beg, photometric determinations were facilitated by the sub-

important in proportion to its degree.27 The intervals of the hexade were measured by sixths. Some supposed that a diameter of a star of the 1st magnitude was six times the diameter of the smallest; but a manifest error occurred in calculating the volumes and distances intervening, by concluding that the volume of a mean star of the 1st magnitude must therefore be six times larger than the volume of a star of the 6th magnitude. But Euclid has demonstrated in the last proposition of the 12th Book of the Elements. that circles are to one another as the squares on their diameters. that is, if the ratio of one diameter to another be one-half or less, there will be three times the ratio between the spheres. For instance, if the diameter of one sphere be half the diameter of another, the smaller sphere will be 1/2 of 1/2 of 1/2 or 1/8 of the larger; and if the diameter be 1/3, the smaller sphere will be $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{27}$ of the larger, and so on. Therefore, if the case be as those have conjectured, the volume of a star of the 1st magnitude will be greater than that of one of the 6th by a very considerable difference.

The largest of the fixed stars that have been observed, is 222 times, and the smallest of them twenty-three times as large as the earth. From their multitude they cannot be numbered, but the position of 1022 has been fixed.²⁸

division of each of the six classes of Hipparchus and Ptolemy into three subordinate groups: distinctions being drawn between the

small, intermediate and large stars of the second magnitude.

28 This is the catalogue of Hipparchus which gives the longitudes and latitudes of the number described, by their position in the constellations as shown in the 8th book of the Almagest. Montucla observes that only 1,022 were observed, though there are a great many more, and some among them visible to the naked eye, but the number is far below what is vulgarly imagined. Hist. des Math. 1, p. 295. I add on the authority of Humboldt. (Cosmos III, 143) that Pliny could count only 1,600 stars visible in the fine sky of Italy. In this enumeration he had descended to stars of the 5th, whilst half a century later Ptolemy indicated only 1,025 stars down to the 6th magnitude. The number of stars visible to the naked eye in the horizon of Berlin, Humboldt gives as 4,022 and in that of Alexandria 4,638.

Of these-

15	are of	the	1st Mag	nitude.	474	are o	f the	4th	Magnitude.
45	••	••	2nd	,,	217	••		5th	,,
208	,,	**	3rd	,,	49	,,	**	6th	••

There are besides, 14 whose magnitudes are not catalogued, nine of which are obscure and five nebular. This is the theory of Ptolemy. According to Abdul Rahmān-b-Cmar al Sufi,²⁹

37	are	of the	2nd	magnitude
200		**	3rd	,,
421		,,	4th	••
267	,,	••	5th	,,
70	,,	••	6th	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
	a	and four	r neb	

There is little known of this astronomer, but that he was a native of Rai, and according to D'Herbelot, preceptor of Adhadul Daulah of the Bowide dynasty. Hammer Purgstall gives the date of his death in A. H. 376, (A. D. 986) at the age of 85. He was the author of a work on the fixed stars with illustrations and two [three] others less important. [See Ency. Islam, i. 57.]

CHAPTER II

DESCRIPTION OF THE EARTH

The Earth is spherical and its centre is the centre of the Universe. The elevations and depressions caused by the action of water or violence of the winds do not affect its spheroidity. Its circumference is 5,059 yojana, 2 kos, 1,154 dand. The ancient Greeks reckoned the circumference to be 8,000 farsakh² and its diameter 2,545 5/11 farsakh. Modern geometers give [16] 6,700 farsakh for the circumference and 2,163 7/11 farsakh for the diameter. All concur in making one farsakh equal to 3 miles.

The Hindu philosophers have the following rule for determining the diameter and circumference. To find the circumference. Multiply the given diameter which they call biyāns by the multiplier 3,927 termed gunit, and divide the product by the divisor 1,250 called bhāg; and the quotient, labdhi will be the circumference. To find the diameter. Multiply the given circumference by 1,250 the former divisor, and divide the product by 3,927, the former multiplier, and

¹ The calculations are discrepant. Pulisa reckons 5,026 14/15 and its diameter 1,600, while Brahmagupta gives 5,000 and 1,581 respectively and Ibn Tārik 6,596 9/25 and 2,100. Albiruni, *India*, I, p. 312, II, p. 66.

The calculation of Eratosthenes (276-196 B. C.), determined by a method identical with that which would be employed by a modern astronomer, gives the circumference at 250,000 stadia; Posidonius (135 B. C.) made it 240,000 stadia or 30,000 miles. Lewis. Astron. of the Anc., pp. 199-215.

अवास, byāsam. Sansk. biyāns. गुणक, gunak. Sansk. gunit. भागक, bhājaka. Sansk. bhāg.

The rule in the Surya-Siddhōnta is to multiply the square of the diameter by 10, and the square root of the product will be the circumference. The diameter is taken at 1,600 yojana. Pulisa reckons the relation of the diameter to the circumference as 1,250:3,927, and Brahmagupta as nearly 12,959:40,980. Albiruni, 11. 71—72.

the quotient will be the diameter. The rule of Archimedes as given in Greek works, is accepted by the Hindus in the same manner, as an approximate calculation. The gist of the rule is that the relation of the diameter to the circumference is the ratio of 7:22, or about thrice the diameter and one-seventh. Any given diameter is multiplied by 22, and divided by 7, the quotient being the circumference. Again the circumference multiplied by 7 and divided by 22 gives the diameter. The fraction, however, is really less than 1/7 and greater than 10/71. It is evident that the Hindu rule was unknown to the Greeks or they would have vaunted it in their own praise. Glory be to Him who alone knoweth the relation of the diameter to the circumference.

Now the method of ascertaining the diameter of the (earth's) circumference was after this manner. On a level plain by means of instruments like the astrolabe, the armillary sphere or the quadrant of altitude, taking the elevation of the north pole of the Equinoctial, they proceed northwards, or southwards on the meridian line guided by the astrolabe, and raise the vertical indices above the plane of the circle so that they cover one another. And thus a distance is traversed which exceeds, or is less than the elevation above-mentioned by one degree. If the advance be to the north, it will increase; if to the south, the reverse. The distance from beginning to end is measured and the result forms a degree Thus the circumference is found.

According to Albiruni. Archimedes defined it to be something between 10/70 and 11/70. (Chap. XV, p. 80), but the statement of Abul Fazl is correct. The book of Archimedes on the Dimensions of the Circle consists of three propositions. 1st, every circle is equal to a right angled triangle of which the sides containing the right angle are equal respectively to its radius and circumference. 2nd the ratio of the area of the circle to the square of its diameter is nearly that of 11 to 14. 3rd, the circumference of the circle is greater than three times its diameter by a quantity greater than 10/70 of the diameter, but less than 1/7 of the same. Smith. Art. Archimedes.

The ancients by this operation found the degree to be 22 farsakh and 2/9 or 662/2 miles. When the plain of Sanjär near Mausil, was selected by the Caliph Al Mamun for this experiment, Khālid-b-Abdu'l Malik Marwarudi with a body of scientific men went towards the north, and Ali-b-Isā [17] Usturlabi with another to the south. The former party found the degree longer than the latter: for when each had measured their respective distances, it was found to be 18 farsakh or 562/3 miles. The difference between the two was 2/3 of a mile. 5 Mamun as a test, asked the two parties the distance between Mecca and Baghdad. According to the above calculation, multiplying 12° 40′ by 562/3 miles which is a degree, they made the distance to be 720 kos. By the order of the Caliph the most level and shortest route between the two cities was measured and the difference was found to be slight. It is strange that the accurate (Nāsiruddin) Tusi in his Tazkirah (u'l Nasiriyah. Liber Memorialis de astronomia) should ascribe to the ancients what is related of the astronomers of Maniun's age regarding the measurement of a degree in the plain of Sanjar. Mulla Qutbu'ddin Shirazi7 in his Tuhflat (u'l Shāhiyah, Donum regium) and other works, expresses the opinion of the moderns in regard to the astronomers of that Caliph, in the manner I have related. There has been undoubtedly a slip of the pen in the Tazkirah. The Hindu astronomers make the degree 14 yojanas, 436 dand, 2 cubits and 4 digits, and explain it after the former manner.

we have not the true length of their measures.

Hāji Khalifah gives the year of his death as A. H. 720

(A. D. 1370). He composed the astronomical work alluded to, for the Emir Shah Muhammad-b.-Mutazz-b.-Tahir.

Mr. Reuben Barrow [in his notes in Gladwin's trans. of the Ain,] here remarks, that from the spheroidity of the earth, the degrees ought to increase towards the north: but this difference

is much greater than it ought to be according to theory.

Mr. Barrow here notes in Gladwin's work, that as the true length of a degree is between 69 and 70 miles, and there is reason to believe that the measures could not be far wrong, it follows that

Also on a level plain at sunrise they regulate the course of gharis by means of the Siktajantra which is an instrument like an hour-glass, measured for 60 gharis. With this they walk eastwards. After 84 yojanas and a fraction, there is a difference of one ghari and the day advanced by that time. This multiplied by 60 gives the circumference of the Earth.

DESCRIPTION OF THE INSULAR CONTINENTS.

The Hindu philosophers describe the terraqueous globe as comprising seven insular continents and seven seas, the whole area of land and sea measuring 7,957,750 yojanas.

1. Jambu Dwipa⁹ is an island surrounded by the ocean, and is the habitation of the human race and the greater part of the animal creation. They consider it together with half the ocean, as equal to a half of the whole globe. The breadth of the ocean is 130 yojanas, and the breadth of the island is

The description of these islands, their extent, position and reference to European Geography, form a literature of their own, too disputed and uncertain in their details for dogmatism, were the Puranic Cosmography credible enough to be worth it. "Manifold are the opinions of people," says Brahmagupta, "relating to the description of the earth and to Mount Meru, particularly among those who study the Purānas and the religious literature." I content myself with indicating for reference, Chaps. XX to XXXII

of Albiruni, and the Vishnu Purana.

Mr. Reuben Barrow's note on this is as follows: "Their intent was evidently to measure a degree of longitude in a parallel circle. The principle of the method was the same as that of our modern longitude watches; and the general practice was to adjust the Siktajantra to the time of the meridian they set out from: and to go eastward till the difference of the times shewn by it and by observation appeared to be one ghari. For if the instrument was exact, whatever meridian it was carried under, it would still continue to show the time under the meridian of the first place: and if the place arrived at was one degree more to the east, the time found at that place (whether by the sun's rising or any other method) would be one ghari more, and so in proportion; and this is what is meant by the day being more advanced. The Hindus must doubtless have observed the necessity of allowing for the change of declination in the time of sunrise; but according to the mode prescribed by the author, it would be requisite to restrict the time of making the experiment to that of the solstice."

1,265 yojanas, of which 65 are water, and the superficial area of this island with the sea is 3,978,875 yojanas, of which 417,360 are water. They say that in the centre of the Earth is a mountain of gold like an axis, and that part of it which with reference to Jambu Dwipa is above the Earth, is called Sumeru and is 84,000 yojanas [18] high. They believe that the degrees of paradise are on its summit and around its sides. It is said to be the same depth below the surface, and this is known as Badwānal and extraordinary fables are told of it. This is the account of the fanatical traditionists of this people, but the learned among them, like the Greeks, do not admit of a height over 21/3 farsakh.

- 2. Shāka-dwipa: half the sea bounds it on one side, and its superficial extent is 427,424 yojanas. Beyond this is a sea of milk, of 801,097 yojanas.
- 3. Shālmali Dwipa; 320,120 yojanas. Beyond this is a sea of curds, of 633,553 yojanas.
- 4. Kusha Dwipa: 286,749 yojanas. Beyond this is a sea of butter, of 459,792 yojanas.
- 5. Krauncha Dwipa: 181,684 yojanas. The sea beyond is the juice of sugarcane, of 250,504 yojanas.
- 6. Gomedaka Dwipa: 86,580 yojanas. The sea beyond is of wine, of 71,648 yojanas.
- 7. Pushkara Dwipa: 14,204 yojanas. Beyond is the sea of sweet water, of 28,160 yojanas.

The breadth of each sea is 130 yojanas, and the breadth of each island, 70 yojanas. In these six last Dwipas, are located the degrees of the lower regions. The seven seas measure together 3,079,474 yojanas and the dry land 4,878,278 yojanas.

The habitation of men and animals extends to the 53rd degree of latitude, being 728 yojanas.

DESCRIPTION OF JAMBU DWIPA.

The legends regarding the six islands being beyond the limits of credibility. I put them aside and confine myself to a few particulars regarding lambu.

Dividing the ocean, at each of the four cardinal directions with relation to the equatorial line, stands a city whose fenced walls are of bricks of gold. 1. Yamakoti. The earth's longitude is reckoned from this, but in the Greek treatises the Hindu canon is said to be based (as 0) of longitude) on Gangdizh,10 the Greeks being really unaware from what point their [19] longitude was taken. 2. Lanka." 3. Siddhapura. 4. Romaka. Each of these is distant 90 degrees from its neighbour and 180° from that which is opposite to it. The mountain Sumeru is distant 90° from each. The northern sides of these lie under the equinoctial circle which in Sanskrit is called Vishuva-vritta. This circle passes over the zenith of the inhabitants of these four cities, and the sun twice in the year reaches the zenith, and day and night throughout the year are nearly equal. The greatest altitude of the sun is 90°. His progression is from Lanka to Romaka, from thence to Siddhapura, continuing to Yamakoti and back to Lanka. When the sun is in the meridian of Yamakoti, it is sunrise at Lanka, sunset at Siddhapura, and midnight at Romaka, and when it is midday in Lanka, it rises at Romaka, sets at Yamakoti, and is midnight at Siddhapura. When he is in the meridian of Romaka, it is sunrise at Siddhapura, sunset at Lanka and midnight at Yamakoti. When in the meridian of Siddhapura, the sun rises at

the earth which was also applied to Lanka. Rein, ccxlvii. I,

This is said to be a fortress built by Zohāk in the city of Babylon. Some account of it will be found in the 2 Vol. (Macan's edit.) of the Shāhnāmah. According to Albiruni, Abu Maashar based his canon on this place as a first meridian.

Lanka and Ujjain. With Adelard de Bath, Gerard of Cremona, Albert the Great and Roger Bacon the name appears as Arim or Arym, and this place received the name of the Cupola of the earth which was also applied to Lanka. Rain carelyii I

Again, north of Lanks towards Season them are to be three mountains. Himschola, Hernatuse and Streeth are to the shore of the eastern sea to the western quarter. I rome Siddhapura to Sumeru also are three other ranges. Sringavanta, Sukla, and Nila. There is another mountain between Yamakoti and Sumeru, called Malyavanta adjoining Nishadha and Nila, and another between Romaka and Sumeru called Gandhamadana whose extremes meet the same two ranges.

Extraordinary are the legends regarding these mountains which cannot here be particularised, but something shall be set down of the region between Lanka and Himāchala, and a little stand exemplar for much. This intervening country is called Bhārata-khanda. Bhārata was a mighty sovereign and this tract was named after him. From Lanka to Himāchala which is 52 degrees, the country is inhabited, the settlements being particularly frequent up to the 48th degree, and less so through the remaining four, on account of the extreme cold.

[20] According to their supposition a celestial degree is equal to 14 yojanas on earth; the whole fifty-two degrees therefore are 728 yojanas which they consider to represent the habitable world. Between Himachala and Hemakuta lies Kinnara-khanda comprising 12 degrees of latitude. Between Hemakuta and Nishadha ia Harikhanda comprising the same number of degrees. Between Siddhapura and Sringa-vanta is Kuru-khanda occupying 52 degrees. Between Sringa-vanta and Shukla lies Hiranmaya-khand with 12 degrees of latitude, the whole of which is of gold. Between Shukla and Nila is the tract called Ramyaka-khanda comprising the same number of degrees of latitude, and between Yamakoti and

Mālyavanta is Bhadrāsva-khanda with an extent of 76°. Intermediate between Gandhamādana and Romaka is Ketumāla of 76°. Between Mālyvanta, Gandhamādana, Nishadha and Nila is Ilāvrita and extends 14° on each quarter. The superficial measurement of these nine divisions is said to be equal, though the breadth of some is less than that of others.

On the four sides of Sumeru are four other mountains; that on the side of Yamakoti is called Mandara; that towards Lanka, Sugandha Parvata; on the Romaka quarter, Vipula, and towards Siddhapura, Suparsva. The height of each is 18,000 yojanas.

The nine divisions of Jambu-dwipa having been recorded, I now proceed to relate some particulars of the first division, Bhārata-khanda. Between Lanka and Himāchala are said to be seven mountain ranges, extending from east to west and smaller than the former ranges. These are, Mahendra, Sukti, Malaya, Riksha, Pariyātra, Sahya, Vindhyā. 13

The tract between Lanka and Mahendra is called Indrakhanda; between it and Sukti, Kaser; between Sukti and Malaya, Tāmravarna; between Malaya and Riksha, Gabhastimat; between Riksha and Pāriyātra, Nāg-khanda; between Pāriyātra and Sahya, Saumyakhanda. The tract between Sahya and Vindhyā is divided in two parts, the eastern of

¹⁸ These tracts are named after the nine sons of Agnidhra, the king of Jambu-dwipa, who were named, Nābhi, Kimpurusha, Harivarsha, Ilāvrita, Ramya, Hiranvat, Kuru, Bhadrāsva, and Ketumala. Vishnu Pur. See also the Siddhānta Siromani where all these names and divisions occur.

The Mahindra chain extends from Orissa to Gondwana, part of which near Ganjam is still called Mahindra Malei or hills of Mahindra. Sukti or Suktimat is doubtful. Sahya is the northern portion of the W Ghats, the mountains of the Konkan; Riksha, the mountains of Gondwana. Vindhya is here restricted to the eastern division of the chain. Pāriyātra or Pāripātra is the northern and western portion. The classification seems to have been known to Ptolemy. See Wilson's note. Vish. P. 174.

which is called Kumāra-khanda, and the western Vāruna-khanda.¹⁴

The upper half of the globe would be represented by the accompanying plate.

Lacuna.

The Hindus also divide the world into three regions. The upper is named Swar-loka, where the good receive the reward of their virtuous life. The middle region is Bhur-loka, which is the abode of mankind. The lower is called Pātāla-loka, where the wicked receive the punishment of their evil deeds.

The religious teachers of this creed conceive the world to be a superficies divided into fourteen parts. Seven superior, viz., Bhur-loka, Swar-loka, Mahar-loka, Jana-loka, Tapo-loka and Satya-loka and the same number inferior, Atala, Sutala, Vitala, Talātala, Mahātala, Rasātala, and Pātala. They relate extraordinary legends regarding the inhabitants of each region which cannot be inserted in a summary narrative.

This people also speak of seven seas and seven islands (dwipas), and nine divisions of Jambu-dwipa, but there is considerable diversity in their order, extent and other particulars; as for instance, the mountain Sumeru is reckoned to be 84,000 yojanas above ground, and 32,000 in breadth and 16,000 below the surface of the earth and the same in breadth. The habitable earth is not confined, they think, only to Bhāratakhanda nor even to Jambu-dwipa. They say that beyond the ocean there is a land of gold which is the abode of men. Their duration of life extends to a thousand years, neither more nor less. Sickness and grief come not nigh them, neither have they fear nor greed nor ignerance. They follow not evil speaking nor jealousy nor calumny and live in peace, in rectitude and in charity. They lose not the

¹⁴ For Kumära, which is Kumärika in Wilford, the Vishnu P.

has Gändharva.

13 This is Pushkara the 7th Dwipa, and recalls "the land of Hevilath where gold groweth" in the 2nd Chap, of Genesis.

vigour of youth, neither are they invaded by [P. 22] weakness or decrepitude. They are of the same creed and race and have no distinction of food or clothing, and their wishes are gratified without toil. Of the other islands in like manner are wonderful legends told which the ordinary rigid formalist would not admit to a hearing, but do not surprise the adoring believer in Divine Omnipotence.

They also divide Kumārakhanda into two parts. The country where the black antelope is not found they call Mlechchha-des, 16 and regard it with contempt and unworthy of existence. The region where that animal is indigenous is called Jag-des, and it is subdivided into four parts. 1. Aryavarta, bounded on the east and west by the ocean, and north and south by two mountain ranges of Hindustān: 2. Madhyades, to the east of which is Illahābās and to the west the river Vināsā, twenty-five kos from Thanesar, and bounded to the north and south by the same ranges. 3. Brahmarikh-des (Brahmarshi), comprises five places: 1. Thanesar and its dependencies; 2. Bairāth (var. Pairāth); 3. Kampila (var.

(17.) Between the two divine rivers Saraswati and Drishadwati lies the tract of land which the sages have named Brahmāvarta because it was frequented by gods.

(19.) Kurukshetra, Matsya, Panchāla or Kānyakubja Surasena or Mathura form the region called Brahmarshi, distinguished from Brahmayarta.

(21) That country which lies between Himavat and Vindhya to the east of Vinasana and to the west of Prayaga, is celebrated by the title of Madhya-desa or the central region.

(22.) As far as the eastern as far as the western ocean, between the two mountains just mentioned lies the tract which the wise have named Ariavarta, or inhabited by respectable men

The Mlechchhas are the Kirātas of the Vishnu Pur., the inhabitants of the mountains east of Hindustan according to H. H. Wilson. Wilford places them in the mountains of the Deccan. All this passage is taken from the ordinances of Manu and the names are marred in the taking. Manu writes as follows in Sir W. Jones' translation: Chap. II.

wise have named Ariavarta, or inhabited by respectable men.

Burnell in his translation explains Vinasana as the terminus of the Saraswati. Prayaga is of course, Allahabad. Wilford identifies the Drishadwati as the Caggar or Gagar, but the courses of these rivers must have considerably altered. Cf. Wilson, Vishnu Purāna, p. 181, note.

Kanilah), 4. Mathurā; 5. Kanauj. 4 Brahmāvarta, the fertile tract between the Sarsuti (Saraswati) and Rākasi (Drishadwati) rivers.

ON TERRESTRIAL LONGITUDE.

The Hindus term longitude lambana, and make it consist of 180° after the manner of the Greeks. They reckon its beginning (as 0° of longitude) from Yamakoti in the farthest east, apparently because following the movement of night and day, the nearest point to its origin is selected. The Greeks reckon from the Islands of the Blest. There are six" islands of the western ocean formerly inhabited, but now submerged beneath the sea. From their delightful climate, their choice production of fruits and flowers and the luxuriance of their vegetation, they were accounted a paradise. Men call them the Eternal Islands (Khāldāt) or the Fortunate (Sa'dā). Some assert that the Fortunate Isles are 24 in number between the Eternal Islands and the sea-shore. Of the Greeks, some take the reckoning of longitude from the shore of the western (Atlantic) ocean which they call Okeanós¹s which is 10° east

¹⁷ The number mentioned by Ptolemy and Pliny instead of seven, the actual number of the ai ton Makaron nysoi. A table of their ancient and modern names will be found in W. Smith's Dict.

Reinaud notices the distinction or confusion made by the Arabs between the Eternal Isles or Islands of the Blest, and the Fortunate Isles. Abulfeda confounds them, but Ibn Sayd places the Fortunate Isles among the Eternal and about them, making the latter 6 in number and the former 24 and distributing them among the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd climates between the 16th and 30th degrees of north latitude, thus allowing the inference that the Fortunate Isles are the Canaries and the Eternal the Cape de Verde. Geog. Abulf. Intro. ccxxiv.

According to a fragment of Phavorinus, not a Greek word, but derived from the barbarians probably connected with Sanskrit. Among the Greeks the son of Uranus and Gaia, became in physical geography, a river or stream circumfluent round the earth, and the large expanses of water are distinguished by Herodotus as seas. But the idea of the encircling waters became transferred as a secondary meaning to the ocean and specially to the Atlantic which was called the Great Sea, the Outer Sea, the Atlantic or simply the Ocean. Smith's Dict. Geog.

of the Eternal Islands. The distance of the shore from the islands is 222 2/9 farsakh according to the system of the ancients, or 1898/9 farsakh according to the moderns, the latter being guided to this conclusion by observation of the motion of the Zodiacal signs in succession and the proximity of the place. In the longitudinal reckoning of places both are agreed. The longitude is an arc of the equatorial between its point of upper intersection with the meridian measured from the beginning of the habitable earth (the first meridian), and its point of upper intersection with the meridian of the given place, and the interval is the distance between the place and the first meridian at its nearest side.19

To find the longitude; at the first meridian or a place whose longitude is known, observe the exact time of the occultation of light in a lunar-eclipse, its duration and initial or total reappearance, and let a similar observation be made at the place whose unknown longitude is required. If the time be the same on both, their longitude will be the same. If the time be later at the place required, the city is more to the eastward.20 The difference of the times of observation is taken, and an excess in the number of degrees over the place whose longitude is known, is allotted on the calculation of six degrees for every ghari and fifteen degrees for every hour, reckoning 4 minutes to the degree. If the time be earlier, the city is more westerly and the calculation is the

¹⁸ This is the literal translation, but it must be taken to include the meaning that the arc of the equator intercepted between the two meridians may be reckoned on any parallel of latitude as well as on the equator. It must be remembered with reference to what is termed the point of upper intersection that all south of the equator is supposed to be water and uninhabited and that therefore the upper half circle only of the equatorial is considered.

The rule in the Surya Siddhānta is as follows:

At the given place if the Moon's total darkness (in her eclipse) begins or ends after the instant when it begins or ends at the Middle line of the Earth, then the given place is E. of the Middle line, (but if it begins or ends) before the instant (when it begins or ends on the Middle line, then) the given place is west of the Middle line.

reverse of that for the east. According to the system of the Hindu astronomers who begin their reckoning of longitude from the east, in the first instance, the number of degrees will diminish, and in the second case, increase.

ON TERRESTRIAL LATITUDE.

This is called by the Hindus Aksha. It is reckoned from Lanka and carried to the 52nd degree of latitude. All within this region is populous, but less so up to 14° further (north) on account of the severity of the cold. The Greeks reckon their latitude from the equator, and and as their circle passes through Lanka, there is no discrepancy and the result is the same. The latitude of a place is an arc extending from the equator between the meridian of the place, and its upper intersection with the equinoctial. In short it is the distance of the meridian of the city from the equinoctial, and that is the degree of the elevation of the pole (above the horizon of the place).

To find the latitude.²¹ Take the latitude of a (circumpolar) star that is constantly visible, and ascertain its highest and lowest points of ascension. Subtract the lesser from the greater and add half the remainder to the lesser, or subtract it from the greater. The result of this process of addition and subtraction gives the latitude of the place. Or

During either equinox, take the altitude of the sun at noon. Subtract this from 90° and the remainder is the latitude of the place. Or

When the sun enters the first of Cancer, take its greatest altitude and subtract its total declination. The remainder will give the co-latitude. Subtract this from 90° and the remainder gives the latitude of the place.

Albiruni says in his 29th Chapter on India, that the Hindu method of determining the latitude of a place had not come to his knowledge.

Every place whose longitude is less than 90° is called west longitude, and greater than 90° east longitude. According to the Hindus it is the reverse. Every place whose latitude is less than 33°, is south, and greater than 33°, north latitude.

In order to ascertain the (times of) worldly events, at the sun's first entry into Aries, they observe its rising at Lanka, and finding the horoscope, they assemble to determine the calculation and this they call Lankudaya Lagna.²² The oblique ascension is used to determine the relative conditions of any particular place, and is called Nagr-udaya Lagna. The Greeks observe this system, but they have two ascendens or horoscopes, one at the extreme east to ascertain the circumstances of one hemisphere and the second at the cupola of the earth which is the means of discovering the [24] conditions of the other. They consider that as the circle of the meridian cuts the globe of the earth, it appears as a circle on its circumference and intersects the equatorial line. The point of intersection (Lanka) is called the cupola or the centre of the earth. Some

²³ The etymology of these terms is thus given in the Siddhanta Siromani.

According to a paper in the As. Res. II. by Samuel Davis, the Hindus signify by the Lagna of Lanka, those points of the equator which rise respectively with each 30th degree of the ecliptic in a right sphere, answering to the right ascension in any latitude. By the Lagna of any particular place, the oblique ascension or the divisions of the equator which rise in succession with each sign in an oblique sphere. By the horoscope is signified the point of the ecliptic rising at a given time after sunrise, the rule to find which is given in the Surya Siddhānta, (Bāpu Deva, p. 39). The omphalos which marked Delphi as the centre of Greece and of the Earth, existed in the temple of Delphi during the historic period.

That point of the ecliptic which is, at any time, on the eastern horizon is called the Lagna or horoscope. This is expressed in signs and degrees and reckoned from the first point of stellar Aries. That point which is on the western horizon is called the Asta-Lagna or setting horoscope. The point of the ecliptic of the meridian is called the Madhya-Lagna or middle horoscope (culminating point of the ecliptic). The Udaya-Lagna is the rising horoscope or the point of the ecliptic which comes to the eastern horizon at the same time with the planet, its Asta-Lagna being the setting horoscope or the point of the ecliptic which is on the eastern horizon when the planet reaches the western horizon.

According to a paper in the As. Res. II, by Samuel Davis, the

suppose the cupola to be in the middle of the oikoimény, that is at a spot situated in Lon. 90°, Lat. 33°. Others place it in the fourth climate, Lon. 9°, Lat. 36°.

A brief description of the cosmogony according to the strange theories of Hindu sages having been given, I here note some particulars of the system of the Greeks to relieve the dryness of this exposition.

There are nine integral heavens²³. 1. The greatest heaven, called also the crystalline, whose revolution is the cause of night and day. 2. The heaven of the fixed stars. 3. The heaven of Saturn. 4. The heaven of Jupiter. 5. The heaven of Mars. 6. The heaven of the Sun. 7. The heaven of Venus. 8. The heaven of Mercury. 9. The heaven of the Moon. There are besides fifteen minor spheres. Again, the elemental spheres are nine in number.

The first is of Fire: its convex adjoins the concave of the sphere of the moon.

Albiruni (Chap. XX) accepting the necessity of eight spheres, sees no object in a ninth, which was unknown to Plato. For Islamic astronomy, see Ency. Islam, i. 497-501.

two kinds: (1) the integral or independent (Kullya) which are not parts of other heavens, and, (2) the supplemental or dependent (juzya) that are so. The integral sphere is simple (mughrad) when it has no dependent sphere, such as the great or crystalline heaven; and it is compound (markab) if it has such, like the heavens of the planets. Its definition of the word "heaven" (jalk) corresponds to that of āsmān at p. 14. The great or crystalline heaven, the sphere par excellence which includes all others is called also the heaven of heavens, the universal heaven (jalk-ul-kul), the starless, the lofty, the all-comprehending, &c. It is the primum mobile having a swift motion from E. to W. completed in less than 24 hours, and its movement carries round the other heavens and all in them, for being itself the prime motor, it possesses the force to compel the motion of all included by it, for it is the motor of them in essentia rei and of all in them per accidens. The crystalline sphere of Anaximander was handed down to the middle ages as a cosmical theory and the firmament was supposed to consist of from 8 to 10 glassy spheres encasing each other like the coats of an onion. The vault was called crystalline from the supposed condensation of the air into a solid transparent body by the action of fiery ether.

The second, of Air: of this there are four strata, viz., 1. volatilised where the fluid is permeated by vapour, for the ascending vapours do not reach this point but become dissipated. It is here that comets, Zodiacal light,²⁴ luminous streams and meteors and the like have their origin. The Hindus regard them all as astral bodies of which they number a thousand kinds, and believe that they are always in existence but only occasionally visible:²⁵ 2. predominant, where the shooting stars are observed: 3. boreal, which is a vaporous wind and extremely cold in which clouds, lightning, thunder and thunderbolts take their rise: 4. dense, and this adjoins the spheres of Water and Earth.

The third, of Water: this surrounds the earth and from the effect of light and contact with earth, does not retain its original purity and thus waters varying in sweet, saline, clear, and turbid qualities spring from the soil and are diverse in their scantiness, excess, limpidity and density.

The fourth, Earth: this according to their notions lies in three strata (a) that which by the bounty of the Creator came forth from the waters and subjected to heat became dry land, wherein is the region of mountain and mine and the habitat of the greater number of animals; (b) clay, which is earth

The term Nezak or Nayzak (a short spear) was first applied, according to Humboldt. (Kosmos I, 128 Otte), by the Court astronomers of Persia to the strange light never before observed, seen in 1688 in Persia and described by the great traveller Chardin. In his Atlas du Voyage, however, he applies the term nyāzak to the famous comet which appeared over nearly the whole world in 1688 and whose head was so hidden in the west that it could not be seen in the horizon of Ispahan.

The belief in the existence of non-luminous stars was diffused amongst the ancient Greeks and in the early ages of Christianity. The doubt as to the passing away and reappearance of stars is expressed by Pliny in his mention of Hipparchus. "Stellos an obirent nascerenturve?" The authority of Humboldt is opposed to the doctrine of their annihilation and affirms that the cosmical alteration is merely the transition of matter into new forms and that dark cosmical bodies may by a renewed process of light again become luminous. Kosmos III, pp. 222—254. Otte.

mixed with water; (γ) earth simple, and this is about the centre of the globe.

Some writers blindly following traditional lore hold that the Earth like the heavens consists of seven vaults, and another school believes that the heavens overshadow them all, and that each earth is surrounded by a mountain, as the mountain of $Q\bar{a}f^{28}$ surrounds this habitable world. They also assert that the earths are of gold, and ruby and the like. Some pretend that beyond $Q\bar{a}f$ there are seventy regions of gold, followed by as many of musk and imagine similar extraordinary strata. Though fable may create a hundred other such fancies, no proof can substantiate them.

EXTENT OF DESERT AND HABITABLE LAND.

The equinoctial is a great circle, the two poles whereof are the two poles of the earth. The one which is in the direction of Ursa Minor called also Banāt u'n Naash, is the north pole. The constellation of the [P. 25] Kid²⁷ is adjacent to it. The other is the south pole²⁸. When the sun passes over this circle, night and day are of equal length in all places, either actually or approximately, and this occurs in the first

²⁶ Albiruni says (XXIII) that the mountain called by his people Qaf, is Lokaloka with the Hindus, (a fabulous belt of mountain boundary, beyond the seven seas and dividing the visible world from the regions of darkness).

³⁷ Jidy. It is not a constellation but a of Ursa Minor, i.e., the polar star. Reinaud (Abulf. I. exciv) calls it le Chevreau and points out that its other signification of Capricorn has led astray several savants, notably Silvestre de Sacy (Recueil des Notices t. VIII, p. 146. et. 178). The Bear which does not set for those who live north of the equator, serves the Arabs to mark the north while Canopus which is always visible to them, marks the south. Reinaud. Ibid.

[&]quot;It is well known", says Albiruni (xxii) "that the north pole with us is called the Great Bear, and the south pole, Canopus. But some of our people maintain that in the south of heaven too, there is a Great Bear of the same shape as the northern, which revolves round the southern pole." The Greek word **\sigma\lambda\sigma\text{os} originally signified a ball or sphere and hence was applied to the cavity of the heavens.

of Aries and Libra. From this imaginary circle being drawn upon the concave surface of the *magnus orbis*, a great circle is delineated upon the earth which divides it into two-halves north and south, the periphery being called the equatorial line where night and day are always equal.

The horizon is of two kinds, the real and the sensible, and the latter is to be understood in two ways. The first is a circle parallel to the real horizon and contiguous to the surface of the earth. The second is a circle which divides the visible portion of the sphere from the invisible, and this horizon is also called the visible, the radial and the horizon of vision. The zenith and nadir are its two poles, which vary with the spectator and his position. The real horizon is a great circle, having the same two poles, and the distance of the first sensible horizon from the real, is half the earth's diameter. and by this the real horizon is obtained.29 And as the equatorial line divides the earth into two halves, the northern and the southern, the circle of the real horizon divides those two halves again into two, an upper and a lower. Thus by these two circles, the earth is apportioned into four quarters, an upper and lower northern, and similar southern divisions. The Greeks supposed the northern quarter only to be above water, but they have determined this by no proof. Its creation was assigned to the power of the Sun, in order that animal life to which breathing is a necessity, might secure the capacity to exist and the wondrous power of human speech become manifest. Through the force of the celestial light and the accretional properties of matter in the upper

²⁹ That is, in those regions where the sun's rays fall directly and not obliquely upon the earth. So Albiruni says "The country S. of the Line is not known and the earth is too much burnt to be habitable. Parts of the inhabited world do not reach nearer the equator than to a distance of several days journey. There the water of the sea is dense because the sun so intensely vapourises the particles of water that fishes and other animals keep away from it. . . . The sun when reaching the perigee of his excentric sphere, stands nearly in its utmost southern declination and burns all the countries over which he culminates." Chronology, 249.

regions, and by the action of the winds and the commotion of the seas, lofty mountains and marvellous configurations of hills and profound abysses were produced. And because the tendency of water is to flow downwards and the earth thereby becomes viscous, the fermentation of heat and the disintegrating process of time caused the rise of mountainous ranges.

When the sun culminates in the northern signs of the ecliptic from Aries to Virgo, its lowest declination from the equator will necessarily occur in the southern signs. From Libra to Pisces are the signs culminating in the winter solstice. At this time the sun is nearest the sphere of the earth and the warmth is excessive, the heat absorbing moisture as may be witnessed by experiment with a lamp. The solstice continues in the same sign during 2,100 years and the entire revolution is made in 25,200 years, one-half of this period being occupied in the northern and the other in the southern signs.30 It is now in the 3rd degree of Cancer and the opposite solstitial point is in the same degree of Capricorn. It is this ecliptic movement that has caused the northern quarter of the globe to become terra firma. Its superficial area, according to the ancients, is 5,090,000 and according to the moderns 3,678,2331/2 farsakh. The rule to find this is to multiply the diameter by 1/4 of the circumference and the product will be the measurement of the quarter of the globe, or divide the superficial area of the whole globe by 4 and the quotient gives the area of the quarter. There is a difference of opinion as to whether the quarter of the globe was created terra firma or became so at a later period. The majority incline to the latter belief from the consideration of the proximity of the solstitial points. They affirm that the whole of the fourth

The precession of the equinoxes was discovered by Hipparchus. At that time the point of the autumnal equinox was about 6° east of Spica Virgins. In 1750, i.e., about 1900 years afterwards, this point was observed 26° 21' west of that star. Hence the equinoctial points will make an entire revolution in 25,745 years.

part of the globe was terra firma, but that now a great part of it is submerged such as the Eternal Islands, Greece and and other places.

[26] The Oikoimény is declared not to extend in latitude beyond the complement of the greatest declination of the Sun from the equator31 which is 60° 29′ 43″, as animal life could not exist beyond this point from the severity of the cold. The superficial area of the oikoimény is taken by the ancients from the equatorial line to a place whose latitude is equal to the complement of the sun's greatest declination from the equator. According to the Gurgani Canon, the superficial area is 4,668,502 7/60 farsakh and according to the moderns 3,370,9923/4 farsakh. Some say that a portion of the upper southern quarter adjoining the northern quarter is terra firma but not inhabited. Others affirm that it is inhabited as far as 10° south. Ptolemy³² in his Geography allows 16° 25' and near the Zanj and Abyssinian, further still. A few even suppose that the other, three-fourths of the globe are also above water and inhabited.

Ancient traditions relate that Alexander after his conquest of the northern quarter of the globe, desiring to obtain some information of the remaining quarters and of the seas thereof, named several bold and scientific explorers for this duty, and supplying them, confident in their providential

our calculation 23° 27′ 27″; this subtracted from 90° will give the complement of the arc from the equator to the north pole; and this complement, viz., 66° 32′ 33″ reckoned from the equator measures the limit, in the sense of the text, within which men can live and beyond which in a northerly direction, they cannot.

Abul Fazl rightly states later in the parallel of 161/4 degrees of S. Lat. at Antimerooe, and the northern limit in 63° N. Lat. which passes through Thule, supposed to be the Shetlands. This range therefore includes 791/4 degrees. The total degrees of longitude of the habitable parts of the earth he accounts to be 1771/4. Cosmog. Fol. Venet. 1486, Chap. XII and Mc. Crindle, Anc. Ind. 5.

mission in the pursuit of knowledge, with six months' provisions, embarked them in a sea-going vessel. After sailing day and night, through the period mentioned, they fell in with some vessels, but from diversity of tongues they were unable to understand each others' intentions. A fight ensued and Alexander's party was victorious. With some of the captives they intermarried. The children of these marriages spoke the languages of both their parents and from these nurslings of life it was discovered that a certain prince had despatched this band also with the same object, and after a three months' continuous sail the encounter had taken place. But this account is disputed.33, In other ancient writings it is related that Alexander sent out a party of scientific men thoroughly proficient in the knowledge of various languages, on an expedition by sea with provisions for three years. They were instructed to sail eastwards for a period of a year and a half towards the rising places of the stars, and then to return and relate their experience. This party after sailing the appointed time reached a flourishing coast and they learnt that they had penetrated to the country of Bactria. Alexander for a time appointed some of his ministers to the government of this province.

At the present day, those of more exact information declare that the south is inhabited in the same way as the north. Of late years the Europeans have discovered an extensive and populous insular continent which they have called the New World. Some shattered vessels had been here driven ashore. A man mounted on horseback was seen by the inhabitants. Mistaking the man and his horse for a single animal they were overcome by fear and the country fell an easy capture.

³³ Such is the literal translation of this ridiculous account but nothing is too childish or incredible for Abul Fazl's narrative.

DIVISION OF THE EARTH INTO COUNTRIES.

The learned have divided the oikoy mene into seven parts, to each of which they have given the name of klima. Some reckon from the equator as Ptolemy shows in his [27] Almagest.³⁴ Another school omitting 12° 45' north of the equator, divide the remainder and terminate as is known at the 50° 31° parallel of latitude.³⁵ In the former case, therefore, the parallels from the equator will be seven circles and in the latter, eight. The seven belts which these lines form are called climates. A climate therefore is a belt on the surface of the earth between two semi-circles parallel with

of the Almagest (II. 6) he marks ten climates north of the equator, beginning at the parallel of Taprobane in lat. 4° 15' and ending at that of Thule in lat. 63°; and in the south, beginning at the equator or the parallel of Cape Raptum and ending at the parallel of Antimeroe in 16° 25'. In the Geography he gives 19 climates; as far as the 16th climate, which is the arctic circle, twelve are determined by the increase of half an hour in the length of the longest day, the 13th and 14th, one hour, and the 15th and 16th, two hours. In the remaining climates within the arctic circle, the days no longer increase by hours but by months. Dict. of Antiq. W. Smith.

³⁵ The double theory of longitude is thus explained by Albiruni in his XXIX Chap. (Sachau's Transl. I. 304). "Some adopt as the beginning of longitude the shore of the Atlantic Ocean and they extend the first quarters as far as the environs of Balkh. So that Shaburgan and Ujjain are placed on the same meridian. A theory which so little corresponds to reality is quite valueless. Others adopt the Islands of the Happy Ones as the beginning of longitude and the quarters of the oikoumene they extend thence as far as the neighbourhood of Jurian and Nishapur." That is, with Ptolemy's division of the circumference of the globe into 360°, the 90° naturally fell in the middle of the habitable world and was taken as the central meridian. This was accounted to pass through Lanka and Ujjain but they deflected it for some strange reason to the N.-W. Among the Arabs, some, after the example of Ptolemy, took their first meridian from the Fortunate Isles, others from the W. Coast of Africa making a difference of 10°. According to the first computation the 90° fell on Nishapur in Khorasan, and according to the second on the town of Shaburgan about a day's march W. of Balkh. See Reinaud, Geography, I, ccxliv. This difference of 10° may be constantly observed in comparing Abul Fazi's longitude with the authorities of Abulfeda.

each other and with the equator. A climate increases in length as it approaches the equator; moreover its first parallel will be longer than its second. It is demonstrable from (experiment with) spheres that every parallel circle increases as it nears the equatorial line. The length of the first parallel of the first climate is said to be 11,856 miles approximately, and the length of its second parallel 11,230, while the length of the last parallel of the seventh climate is 1,627 farsakh. But every climate, like the longitudinal extension of the earth from west to east, is divided into an equal number of degrees of longitude, and not more or less in proportion to its length. The latitude of each belt varies.

There are two reasons given for the selection of seven as this number. The first is that ancient sages have verified by experience that each tract of superficial area was specially connected with one of the planets, as for instance, the first climate with Saturn. For this reason the inhabitants of that zone generally are dark-skinned, curly-haired, long-lived and indolent in action. The second climate, according to the Persians, had an affinity with Jupiter, but according to the Romans, with the Sun. The third climate, in the opinion of the former, with Mars, in that of the latter, with Mercury. The fourth, with the Sun, as the first mentioned suppose, but with Jupiter according to the second opinion. Both concur in ascribing the fifth to Venus. The sixth is allotted by the first to Mercury, by the second to the Moon. The seventh. the former connect with the Moon, the latter with Mars. The second opinion is that in former ages a single monarch ruled the whole habitable earth. With far-seeing and prudent policy he divided it severally among his seven sons.

The word climate may be taken in two senses, viz., the ordinary sense in which men commonly speak of a tract of country as a climate, such as Rome, Turan, Iran and Hindustan; and the true signification already explained. In

the latter meaning India is an aggregate of the first, second, third and fourth climates.

The beginning of the first climate is defined by general opinion to be north of the equator. Its latitude according to accurate information is 12° 42′ 2″ 39″′. Its longest day is 12 hours and 45 minutes. Its centre has a location according to concurrent testimony, where its longest day is 13 hours. Its latitude is 16° 37′ 30″. Twenty large mountains and thirty considerable rivers are comprised in it, and its population are generally black in colour.

The beginning of the second climate has a latitude of 20° 31′ 17″ 58″. Its longest day consists of 13 hours fifteen minutes. The longest day at its centre is 13 hours, 30 minutes. Its latitude is 24° 40′. It includes 27 mountains and 27 rivers. The colour of the inhabitants of this zone is between black and wheat colour.

The beginning of the third climate has a latitude of 27° 34′ 3″ 33″′. Its longest day is 13 hours, 45 minutes. Its day at the centre is of 14 hours and the latitude 30° 40′. It comprises 33 mountains and 22 rivers, and its inhabitants are generally of a wheat colour.

The beginning of the fourth climate has a latitude of 33° 43′ 17″ 36″. Its longest day, 14 hours, 15 minutes. At the centre the longest day is of 14 hours, 30 minutes. Lat. 36° 22′. It includes 25 mountains and 22 rivers; the colour of its inhabitants is between wheat colour and a fair skin.

The beginning of the fifth climate is in Lat. 35° 0′ 19″ 5″. Longest day, 14 hours, 45 minutes. Longest day at centre, 15 hours. Lat. 41° 15′. Colour of inhabitants fair. Has 30 mountains and 15 rivers.

The beginning of the sixth climate is in Lat. 43° 29′ 58″ 8″. Longest day, 15 hours, 15 minutes. Longest day at centre, 15 hours, 30 minutes. Lat. 45° 21′. Has 11

mountains 40 rivers. Colour of inhabitants fair inclining to tawny and with tawny hair.

The beginning of the seventh climate is in Lat. 47' 58' 59" 17". Longest day, 15 hours, 45 minutes. Longest day at centre, 16 hours. Lat. 48° 52'. Its mountains and rivers as in the sixth climate. Colour of inhabitants ruddy and white. Its extreme parallel according to general opinion is in Lat. 50° 31' 31" 54". The longest day 16 hours, 15 minutes.

The differences in latitude of these climates are determined by the increase of half an hour in the length of the longest day. From the last parallel to the furthest inhabited point is not included in a climate on account of the paucity of its inhabitants. Some suppose the northern-most parallel of the seventh climate to be the extreme of the habitable world. According to others, the parallel of 50° 20' is inhabited, but they do not include it in this climate: and there is an island called Thule in Lat. 63°. From the severity of the cold the inhabitants pass their days in heated chambers. In Lat. 63° 30' is habitable land the dwellers wherein are Scythians as recorded by Ptolemy. In Lat. 66° a tract has been discovered the inhabitants of which resemble wild animals, as mentioned [29] by him in the Geographia. The remaining portion of the quarter of the globe is according to some, a tenantless waste, while others regard it as simply unknown country. In Lat. 54° and a fraction, the longest day is 17 hours; in Lat. 58°, 18 hours; in Lat. 61°, 19 hours; in Lat. 63°, 20 hours; in Lat. 64° 30', 21 hours; in Lat. 65° and a fraction, 22 hours; and in 66° 23 hours, and in the latitude, equal to the complement of the sun's greatest declination from the equator, 24 hours. In Lat. 67° the day increases by one month, in Lat. 70°, 13/4 months; in Lat. 73° 30', three months; in Lat. 78° 30', four months; in Lat. 84°, five months, and in the Lat. 90° which is the extremity of the earth, the day is said to be of six months, and the other six months is night. But it is more correct to say that a year is one nycthemeron. If the day be reckoned from sunrise to sunset, the day there would be seven nycthemera longer than the nights, but if it be calculated from the dawn of light and the disappearance of the fixed stars, to the occultation of light and the reappearance of the stars, the day there would be seven months and seven days and the remainder (of the year) night. Again if the day be counted from the dawn of morning to the evanescence of twilight, this day would be of nine months and seventeen days and the complement of the year would be the night. 36

To lend an interest to this work a table of the various climates with other details is here introduced.

Tables for the ascertainment of the Longitudes and Latitudes of places of the inhabited quarter of the globe from the Latitude of the Equator, according to the learned, especially of places beyond the limits of the seven climates to the 60th Degree of Latitude.

PLACES BEYOND THE CLIMATES, ADJOINING THE EQUATOR.

	LONGTUDE.		LATITUDE.		No	
Names of places.	D.	M.	D.	M.	Notes.	
The Equator The Island of Tirufāi Shere of the Atlantic	12 12 11	 35 	 15.	•••	The lat. is taken at 12° N. of the true Equator. V. p. 66.	

³⁶ The following table, from Ukert, showing the climates of Ptolemy (Geog. 1, 23) is taken from the Dict, of Antiq. for purpose of comparison with Abul Fazl's account.

Climate.	Parallel.	Longest Day.	Latitude.	Passing through.
II	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 2 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 1 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39	h. m. 12 0 12 15 12 30 12 45 13 0 13 15 13 30 13 45 14 0 14 15 14 30 15 15 30 15 45 16 0 16 15 16 30 16 45 17 0 17 15 17 30 17 45 18 0 19 0 20 0 21 0 22 0 23 0 21 month about — — — — — — — — ————————————————————	0° 0′ 4 15 8 25 12 30 16 27 20 14 23 51 27 12 30 2 33 18 36 0 38 35 40 56 43 41 45 51 46 51 48 32 50 4 51 40 52 50 54 30 55 0 56 0 57 0 58 0 59 30 60 66°8′40″ 67° 15′ 69 30 73 20 78 20 84 0 90 0	Taprobane. Sinus Avalites. Adule Sinus. Meroe. Napata. Syene. Ptolemais in Egypt. Lower Egypt. Middle of Phænicia. Rhodus. Smyrna. Hellespont. Massilia. Middle of the Euxine. Sources of the Danube. Mouth of the Borysthenes. Middle of Palus the Macotis. Southern Britain. Mouths of the Rhine. Mouths of the Tanais. The Brigantes in Britain. Brittania Magna. Caturactonium in Britain. South of Brittania Parsa. Middle of ditto. North of ditto. Ebudes Insulae. Thule. Unknown Scythian Tribes. Unknown Scythian Tribes.

PLACES BEYOND THE CLIMATES, ADJOINING THE EQUATOR.

NAMES OF PLACES

- Island of Qumbulah (Madagascar), Long. 21, Lat. 8.—Qumr, according to Yaqut. Ency. Islam, iii. 64.
- Sinus Avalites, Long. 12:30, Lat. 8:25.—The Gulf of Aden.
- Ghānah, gold mines, a town in the Sudan, Long. 30, Lat. 10.—Said by Ibn Sayd to be on the Niger, gold dust exported. M. Cooley in his Negroland, p. 44 locates it near Timbuctoo. Abul Fed. Geog. Reinaud II, I, 21. Ency. Islam, ii. 139.

SOUTH OF THE EQUATOR.

- Gogo, Long. 44, Lat. 10¹⁵.—On its W. Ghānah: on the E. Kanem. Ency. Islam, ii. 172.
- Sofilah of the Zanj country, Long. 52, Lat. 2.30.—In the Mozambique country, S. of the Zambesi. Ency. Islam, iv. 469.
- Middle of the Lake of Koura, Long. 80, Lat. 4.—According to the Resam Al Mamour, its centre is placed in 53½ Long, Lat. zero. Left bank 52 Long, right bank 54. Ibn Sayd makes the Egyptian Nile flow out of its N. quarter, the Nile of Madakshon from the E. and the Nile of Ghanah (Niger) from the W. On its E. and S. a mountain called Almaksam. Reinaud, Abul F. 11, 1. Ency. Islam, iii. 916-921 (under al-Nil.)
- Jimi on the Nile, Long. 63'15, Lat. 9'11.—The text has the min. of Lat. 401! According to Ibn Sayd, it is in 53 Long., Lat. 9'3—capital of Kanem country and called by Maqrizi, Aldjema. Reinaud, Geog. Abulf, II. 1.
- Saharta. Long. 64, Lat. 6.—A dist. of Abyssinia, Long. 54, Lat. 5, but the 1st climate of 1bn Sayd begins from the Equator and terminates at 16.27 N. Lat. (Now called Tigre, Ency. Islam, 1, 119.)
- Jarmi, capital of Abyssinia, Long. 65, Lat. 6.—Probably Jumi, identified with Axum, formerly Axuma. Rein. ibid. Ency. Islam, i. 119.
- Zaghāwah, Long. 66. Lat. 2.—The Long. varies from 54 to 60 and the Lat. from 1 to 11½ in three tables given by Abul F. The people of Zaghāwah are subject to the Kanem and their country is 20 marches from Dongola. For Kanem. Ency. Islam. ii. 712-715.

Hadyah, Long. 66, Lat. 2.—Long. 57.3 N. Lat. 7, a town of Abyssinia S. of Vefat or Aufat. Ency. Islam, i. 119.

Zailah, Long. 71, Lat. 8.—Ibn Sayd 66 Long., 10.55 N. Lat. Kanun-ul-Mumtanih and Kitāb-ul Atwal, 61 (A port on the African coast of the Gulf of Aden. Ency. Isl., iv. 1198.)

Makdishu, Long. 72, Lat. 2.—Now called Magadexo on the littoral below Somaliland. Ency. Islam, iii, 165.

Aden, Long. 76, Lat. 11.

Barbera, Long. 78, Lat. 6.30.—In the Gulf of Aden.

Sinus Adulicus, Long. 12.15, Lat. 12.30.—Adoulikos Koltos, Annesley Bay. The text has confounded this with the Sinus Avalites, but Ukert's Table of climates shows what is intended. Adulis, the modern Zulla is placed by Ptolemy, Long. 67, Lat. 11.66. Cosmograph, Fol. Venet, 1486.

Shibam, capital of Hadramaut, Long. 81:15, Lat. 12:30.

Mirbāt, between Hadramaut and Omān, Long. 82, Lat. 12.—It is situate in the littoral of El Shehr and is the port of Dhafar. The mountains of Dhafar are famed for the incense produced there.

Island of Serandip (Ceylon), Long. 130, Lat. 12.—Atwal and Qanun, Long. 12, Lat. 10.

Island of Socotra, of India, Caret.—Atwal, Long. 74:30, Lat. 12. Qānun Long. 66:30, Lat. 9. Abul F. Long. 74:30, Lat. 9.

Mountains of Qamerun produces Lignum Aloes, Long. 130, Lat. 10.—According to Reinaud (Introd. Abulf. ccclxxxvii) this is Kamrup in Assam, called by the Arabs Camround and famous for its aloes.

Island of Lāmri. of India, produces the wood baggam. Long. 130, Lat. 9.—The Lambri of Marco Polo (Rein. II. I. 131), Baggam is the Caesalpinia found in most parts of India of which Roxb. gives 18 kinds. It is a kind of Brazil wood.

Island of Kalah, of India, Long. 140, Lat. 8.—Called by Abulf. the port of all the regions between Oman and China. Exports tin called by its name. i.e., kalai, which Reinaud says may be from the Malay Kala. Walckenaer places Kalah in Malacca in the province of Keydah opposite the island of Sumatra. Ency. Islam, ii. 669, under Kalah (fully discussed).

Island of Mahārāj, of India, Long. 150, Lat. I.—A large island in the Green Sea (Indian Ocean). Abulf. II, II, 132. Ibn Sayd says that the Mahārāja are in clusters of numerous

islands, the largest of which is the seat of royalty, most probably Borneo. The Arabs extended India as far as the Java Archipelago, v. Reinaud, I, cccxxxi.

Yamakoti, Long. 176, Lat. 5.

Sila, in China, Long. 80, Lat. 8.5.—Extreme of Eastern China.
Abulf. Reinaud, II, II, p. 124; according to Reinaud, Corea.
Gangdizh, on the shore of the Eastern sca, Long. 180.

Iram, "adorned with lofty pillars" (Qurān 89) said to be in Yemen. See Sale's Koran for the story of this paradise of Shaddād b. 'Aād. It was said to have been fashioned after the paradise of Adam, with walls of gold and columns of ruby and emerald. Ency. Islam, ii. 519-520.

THE FIRST CLIMATE

- Shore of the Ocean, Long. 20, Lat. 16'31.—The Atlantic Ocean is meant, Greek Okeanos.
- Island of Mādunah, Long. 23, Lat. 36'27.—Perhaps Madura off Java. Ency. Islam, iii. 103.
- Amalltu variant Amantu, Long. 28.5, Lat. 20.14.
- Barisā, Long. 32, Lat. 20.35.—According to Abulf. a considerable town of Takrour, north of the Niger. Edrisi mentions it as a village formed by some nomad clan, ten days march north of the Lemlem country. Rein. II. I. There is also a Berisa on the Red Sea below Port Mornington.
- Island of Suli, Long. 38:30, Lat. 28.—I find mention of only one Suli, a village watered by the An-Nahrouān canal from the Tigris, Abulf. II, 70.
- Island of Sawakin, Long. 58:30, Lat. 17.—Jazirah signifies not only an island, but a peninsula or tract from which the sea has retired. Ibn Batutah II, 161, describes his landing here from Jeddah on his way to Yemen. Ency. Islam, iv. 184 under Sawakin (better known as Suskim), a sea-port on the west coast of the Red Sea.
- Turrah, Long. 49.20, Lat. 19.40.—A small town in Africa. This is all Yaqut's information.
- Dungulah (Dongola), Long. 68, Lat. 14:33.—Ency. Islam, i. 1072.
- Tiiz in Yemen, caret—Abul Akul, Long. 64'30, Lat. 13. 1bn Sayd, Long. 70, Lat. 14'30, by induction Long. 65'30, Lat. 13'40. A castle in the mountains dominating the

- coast; residence of the princes of Yemen. Abulf. II. 1, 121. It is called Hisn Tiz. See also Niebuhr Desc. de l'Arab, p. 209. Ency. Islam, iv. 624 (under Ta'izz).
- Darqalah, Long. 68'40, Lat. 14'30.—The proximity of location of this and the Dongola above, suggests the inference that these represent Old and New Dongola which in the map appear to be 60 or 70 miles apart.
- Bajah (Beja) of the Berber country, Long. 65, Lat. 14.—This must refer to the El Beja between the Shatt Meldir and Shatt Gharnis in the province of Constantine, as the Bajah or Bejah W. of Tunis occurs in the 3rd Climate. Abulfeda places this according to the Atwal, in Long. 55 N., Lat. 2, and adds that it is beyond the 1st Climate in the Berbera country.
- Buldarah, in the Sudan, Long. 68, Lat. 17.
- Island of Dahlak, Long. 71, Lat. 14.—An island in the Red Sea, opposite Massawa. Ency Islam, i. 893.
- Mārib, of Yemen, Long. 78, Lat. 14.—Capital of the Tobbas of Yemen, now in ruins. It is situated at the extremity of the Hadramaut chain. Ency. Islam, iii. 280.
- Mahjam, of Yemen, Long. 7445, Lat. 16.—A small fortified town on the frontier between Tehāmah and Yemen. 25 miles north of Hudaida. Eney. Islam, iv. 144.
- Zabid, ditto, Long. 74:20, Lat. 14:10.— On the Tehāmah of Yemen, its principal maritime port according to Albiruni, but its port is a place called Ghelfeca at a distance, in varying accounts, from 15 to 40 miles, Abulf. Ency. Islam, iv. 1183.
- Hisn Dimlaut, do., Long. 74'40, Lat. 14'5.—Dumluat, according to Yaqut, N. of Aden in the Yemen hills, proverbial for its strength, v. Abulf.
- Sharjah, of Yemen, Long. 74'40, Lat. 16'50.—A small town in Yemen at a little distance from the sea.
- Janad, ditto, Long. 75'30, Lat. 14'33.—North of Hisn, Tiiz, half a day's march. Here is a mosque built by M'aāb b. Jabal, one of the companions of Muhammad who died of the plague in Syria, A.H. 19. Abulf. 123. Ency. Islam, iv. 144, 1155.
- Jublah, ditto, Long. 74:30, Lat. 18:30.—Between Aden and San'aa, in the mountains: it is E. of Tiiz and a little to the north, Abulf. 122.

- Hisn Ba'dan, ditto, Long. 75'30, Lat. 38'40.—A township in Yemen. Yaqut. See Niebuhr Desc. de l'Arab, p. 208.
- Najrān of Yemen, Long. 76, Lat. 19.—Territory occupied by the Hamdan tribe, 10 marches from San'aā. Ency. Islam, iii. 823.
- San'aā, capital of Yemen, Long. 76, Lat. 14'30.—Ency. Islam, iv. 143-146.
- Damar in Yemen, Long. 70, Lat. 38:30.—In the Atwal, Long. 67, Lat. 13:30, in the Qānun. Long. 66, Lat. 14:20, 16 parasangs from Dhafār. (Zafar in Ency. Islam, iv. 1185.)
- Sirrain, do., Long. 76'47, Lat. 20.—The min. of Long. in the text are wrong. There are two places of this name, one on the sea shore near Mekka, and the other one of the dependencies of San'aā; the latter is meant v. Niebuhr, 238. Ency. Islam, iv. 1155.
- Hali-ibn-Yāqub, do., Long. 70.20, Lat. 18.30.—Deg. of Lat. omitted in text 19 parasangs, S. of Sirrain. Abulf. Ency. Islam, ii. 238.
- Khaiwān, do., Long. 70'21, Lat. 15'20.—Formerly residence of the Himyarite kings. The ruins of an ancient palace still to be seen. Abulf. II, 1, 128. Niebuhr, 229, Yäqut.
- Sadah, do., Long. 70'20, Lat. 16.—16 parasangs from San'aā, a flourishing town. Abulf. 128. Ency. Islam, iv. 33.
- Dhafār, do., Long. 70.30, Lat. 18.20.—Yāqut gives Long. 78, Lat. 15, and says there are two of the name, one near San'aā, a seat of the Himyarite kings; the other, well-known, on the shore of the Arabian Sea on El Shehr. Ency. Islam, iv. 1155 gives Dofār.
- Jurash, a town of Oman on the sea coast, Long. 70:50, Lat. 17.—Yaqut and Abulf, place it in Yemen, abounding in palm trees, its staple manufacture the dressing of leather.
- Suhar in Oman, Long. 84, Lat. 19 20.—Well-known, on the sea coast of Oman. Ency. Islam, iv. 504-506.
- Extremity of the province of Mahrah in Yemen, Long. 85, Lat. 18.

 —In the Atwal, Long. 73, Lat. 16, a dependancy of Yemen, their language apparently the Himyarite dialect, famous for its camels called Mahriyah. Ency. Islam, iii. 138-144.
- Island of Rānij in the Indian Ocean. Long. 104, Lat. 15.—Properly, Labij. These islands are probably those of the Java Archipelago, and are the same as those called Mahārāj above

- mentioned. Abulf. Guyard II, II, 126, and index to Labij. [There is a Labij, the capital of a Sultanate in S. Arabia, north-west of Aden, Ency. Islam, iii. 5. J.S.]
- Tanah on the Indian Ocean, Long. 102, Lat. 19:20.—Thanah, Bombay.
- M'abar in India, Long. 102, Lat. 17.20.—Coromandel. Ibn Sayd gives the Long. 142°. Abulf, II, II, 121.
- Kaulam in India, here pepper and brazil wood in great abundance, Long. 102, Lat. 18'30.—Ibn Sayd, Long. 132, Lat. 12. Atwal, Long. 110, Lat. 13'30. This is Quilon in the Travancore State.
- Zaitun on the frontier of China, Long. 154, Lat. 176.—Tseou thoung or Tsiuan-tcheou. Abulf. II, II, 123. It was visited by Ibn Batutah (IV, 269), called by the translators Thsiuan-tchoufou.
- Sufarah, China, Long. 104'55. Lat. 19'20.—There are but two of this name in Abulf., one in Africa below Zanzibar, the other in India, a flourishing port known for its fisheries and pearls, five marches from Sindan.
- Sindan in China, Long. 11420, Lat. 1950.—In Abulf, another reading is said to be Sindapur, placed by one authority at 3 days' march from Tanah on the frontier between Guzerat and Malabar. Another account places it within 15 parasangs of Mansurah. Yagut places it between Daybul and Mansurah.
- Khānku in China, Long. 150, Lat. 14.—This is on the Hangtcheou. Abulf. II, II. Guyard, but the Long. is 162, according to Oānun and Atwal.
- Khānju, do., Long. 162, Lat. 14. -According to Abulf, both these towns are situated on the river, as the Arabs believed that all the rivers of China were ramifications of a single stream. If this be the Yang-tsze-kiang, the towns of Hangkow and Hwang-choo seem to answer this description, as Abulf, says that Tājah (Taichow) is to E. of Khanjow. Their identification is not attempted by Guyard.
- Sandābil in China, a city of the first magnitude. Caret.—Not mentioned by Abulf., but this is evidently a corruption of Khānbāligh, a well-known name of Pekin, already mentioned in Vol. II, p. 118, see De Guig, Hist. des Huns. III, 147. Yāqut

describes Sandābil in terms that leave no doubt as to its identity. It is the Cambalu of Marco Polo. Ency. Islam, iv. 148.

Samandān,

- 'Allaqi, said by some to be in the 2nd climate. . . . The Atwalgives the Long. 58, Lat. 26. Qānun, Long. 55, Lat. 27. Ibn Sayd, Long. 63, Lat. 20'3; a town in the Beja country on the Red Sea littoral. The mountain of 'Allaqi contains a gold mine. It is 12 marches E. of Assouan. See D'Herbelot.
- Sofālah of India, here is found a bird that talks better than a parrot. Of this town Gildemeister says, (De Reb. Indicis, p. 45) "Huc pertinet urbs Sufāra de cujus situ omnis interiit memoria; ex sola nominum serie colligi potest eam Barog (Broach?) et Tanam quarendam. McCrindle says that Dr. Burgess has satisfactorily identified it with Supara, 6 miles north of Bassein.
- Shahnaj . . . The text suggests Shanju.
- Kāa, between Oman and Hadramaut . . . Mentioned by Yāqut as a pilgrim's station on the road to Mecca after leaving 'Aqabah.
- Lānjuyah, a large island near the Zanj country, the vine here bears thrice a year . . . Lānjuyah, according to Yāqut is a large island, capital of the Zanj kingdom, frequented by ships from every port, now deserted, the inhabitants who are Muslims having moved to another island called Tambatu. He also mentions the fruitfulness of its vines. This is the island of Zanzibar, which in Custs' map (Modern Language of Africa) is marked Ungujah.
- Alanjah, one of the towns of north Africa, has an emerald mine...

 I find no other trace of this name, but it is again referred to under the 2nd Climate as an emerald mine. The Nuzhat ul Mushtaq says that near Assouan south of the Nile, there is a mountain with an emerald mine and this gem is found alone here.
- Shilā (or Shablā)—A district called Shilha is marked in Cust's map of North Africa, opposite the Canaries and stretches towards the Mediterranean.
- Quizum on the Red Sea littoral.—The ancient Clysma. See Niebuhr Desc. de l'Arab, p. 357. Abulf, gives the location according to the Atwal, Long. 54.15, Lat. 29.30. Qānun, Long. 56.30, Lat. 28.20 and places it in the 3rd Climate.

Bakil in Yemen, here a tree grows from which they extract a poison.

... The text has Bakbal, which is an error. Niebuhr (p. 225) treats of the allied clans of Hashid and Bakil at some length and gives their romantic origin. Yāqut speaks of this tree without naming it, and says it is as much or more prized and guarded by the people there than the balsam by the Egyptians. It was in special request for removing crowned heads, and the chiefs of the Bani Najah and their ministers are distinguished by having been the frequent subjects of experiment as to the deadly effects of its poison.

Ka'ārah.—A village in Yemen, in the neighbourhood of Damar. Yāqut.

Takrur.—Name of a town, capital of a district of the same; the Long. 17, Lat. 3'30. Ibn Sayd. Situated on the banks of the Niger. D'Herbelot places it to the W. of and 2 days' iou ney from Sālah on the same river and 140 days' journey. Sejelmāsah, now Tafilet. The Takrur country corresls, according to Reinaud, with the region of which uctoo is the principal town. Ency. Islam, iv. 632.

Jaque gives a village of this name two leagues distant from Bokhara, now in ruins. Reinaud mentions an island called Alramni said to be near Ceylon which produced elephants and brazil wood and inhabited by cannibals, said by Abu Zayd to be among the Zabij island, i.e., Java Archipelago. Geog. Abulf. I. CDVI.

Qalhāt, in Yemen.—A port on the coast of Oman, visited by ships from India and one of its best towns, not older than the 5th century of the Hijra, Yāqut. It is marked in Niebuhr's map of Oman, p. 265. Desc. de l'Arab.

Mu'alla, in Yemen.—A small town of Hijaz. Yaqut.

Madinat-u't-Tayyib, Yemen.—Medinah is mentioned by Niebuhr as applied to Sana'a in Yemen, but I do not find the following epithet. Sana a has already been given, and the Medinah par excellence comes in the next climate, with a similar epithet somewhat differently written. For the holy Medina of the Prophet, Ency. Islam, iii. 83.

Sahar, in Yemen.—Niebuhr gives the name with a different spelling Shahr, as a small coast town in Yemen in the province of Yafa' from which incense is exported. Abulf. places it between Aden and Dhatar.

THE SECOND CLIMATE

- Sus al Aqsa, Long. 15:30, Lat. 22.—Sus the remote, was so named from its situation at the extreme of Mauritania. It was a town according to D'Herb. at the foot of mount Atlas and was also called Taroudant, but Abulf. makes the latter the capital of Sus. It would cover the extent now known as Morocco. Ency. Islam, iv. 568.
- Lamtah, do., called also Nawa, Long. 17:30, Lat. 27.—Lamtah and Lamtunā are two Berber tribes in the south of Morocco. Ency. Islam, iii. 14-15. The home town of the former is called Nul (?=Nawa.)
- Dar'ah, do., Long. 21'6, Lat. 27'10.—Ibn Sayd says it stands on the river D'arah. Idrisi says it stands on the side of the desert of Lamtuns.
- Andaghast, do., Long. 25, Lat. 26.—A town in the midst of the Sahara inhabited by Berber Moslems, the supremacy belonging to the Sanhaja tribe. Another account makes it a large tract of which the capital goes by the same name and is situated on the mountains S. of Sejelmāsah and 40 marches distant. Major Rennel supposes it to be the modern town of Aghades, N.W. of the Lake Tchad.
- Tākhmābah, Long. 32·15, Lat. 25·15.—I do not find this name. The map marks a district and town as Tagama directly S. of Aghades.
- Qus, in Upper Egypt, Long. 61.30, Lat. 24.30.—The text has Qurs incorrectly. The ancient Apollinopolis Parva, on the Nile directly north of Karnak. It is described by the Yakut as a large and flourishing town.
- Ikhmim, do., Long. 61:30, Lat. 26.—A supposed corruption of the ancient Egyptian name Chemnis, the Panopolis of the Greeks. The Chem or Pan of this city was an Icthyphallic god, having been a site of Panic worship, and it was celebrated for its temple of Perseus.
- Ageur, do., Long. 61'40, Lat. 24—According to Yāqut in the Thebaid on the east bank of the Nile above Qus. Preceded by the Arabic article, the transition to Luxor is natural.
- Isnā, do., Long. 62, Lat. 28'30.—Yākut gives the Long. 54'24 and Lat. 24'40. The modern Esneh, the ancient Latopolis, which name was derived from the fish Lato, the largest of

- the 52 species that inhabit the Nile and which appears in sculptures among the symbols of the Goddess Neith, Pallas Athene, surrounded by the oval ring of royalty or divinity.
- Ansina, do., Long. 68, Lat. 28.—The ancient Antinoe, the ruins of which are still called by the Copts Enseneh. It was built by Hadrian in memory of his favourite Antinous to whom divine honours were paid as a local deity.
- Uswan, Long. 66, Lat. 22'30.—The ancient Syene and commonly Assouan in the maps.
- Ma'dan-i-Zamurrad, Emerald mine, mentioned under Alanjah, Long. 64'15, Lat. 21.
- Taimā, in Syria, Long. 67.15, Lat. 25.40.—Atwal Long. 60, Lat. 30. Qānun Long. 58.30, Lat. 26, a small town between Syria and Wadi-al-Kura on the road of pilgrims from Syria and Damascus. According to Yāqut, here was the castle of the famous Samuel, son of Adiya, the Jew, from whose fidelity to his word has arisen the Arabic proverb "more faithful than Samuel". Ency. Islam, iv. 622.
- Ma'adan-i-Zahab (The Gold mine).—Known as a mountain in Yemen.
- 'Aidhāb, Long. 68'40, Lat. 21'40.—A port on the Red Sea, near Suākin. It is mentioned by Ibn Batutah in his Travels, Vol. II, 160. Abulfeda calls it the rendezvous of pilgrims and merchants embarking for Jeddah. He gives the Long. 58, Lat. 21.
- Allāqi, Long. 68'40, Lat. 27'15.—Mentioned under the 1st climate. Qusair, Long. 69, Lat. 26.—Kosseir, a port on the Red Sea opposite "the Brothers" on the African side.
- Qatif, in Bahrein, Long. 74'40, Lat. 22'35.—Well-known, on the Persian Gulf, in the province of al Hasa.
- Al Yambu, Long. 74'40, Lat. 26.—Ibn Sayd, Long. 64, Lat. 26; a small town west of Medina in the littoral of Hijāz, commonly written Yembo.
- Juhfah, in Hijāz, Long. 74'40, Lat. 22.—Formerly a large village, now in ruins; on the read to Medina from Mecca, four stages from the latter town. Yāqut.
- Medina the Pure, in Hijšz, Long 75'20, Lat. 25'50.—Called also Medina the Prophetic.
- Khaibar, in Hijāz, Long. 70.20. Lat. 25.20.—Well-known in Hijāz,

Juddah in Hijāz, Long. 70·10. Lat. 21·15.—Commonly called Jeddah.

Mecca, the Glorious, Long. 70, Lat. 21:40.

Taif, in Hijaz, Long. 70:30, Lat. 21:20.

Furu in Hijāz, Long. 70.30, Lat. 26.—A large village between Mecca and Medina, four nights' journey from the latter. Yāgut.

Faid in Hijāz, Long. 78'10, Lat. 25.—The text is in error in the minutes of Lat. and gives an impossible figure; the Lat. in Atwal is 26'50 and another authority gives 27 in Abulf. Gladwin likewise reads 27. Faid is in Nejd and not in Hijāz.

Hajar in Hijāz, Long. 81·10, Lat. 22.—In Yemāmah, and its chiefcity. Here are the tombs of those who fell fighting against the impostor Musaylimah. Abulf. Yāqut says that it formerly bore the name of Yemāmah.

Island of Tuqālābis off Hijāz, Long. 81, Lat. 27.12.—Untraceable, the name reads like a corruption from the Greek, and may be either Sucabia (now Shushuah) at the mouth of the Gulf of Aqabah, or Timagenis the modern Mushābea. Ptolemy places this in Long. 66, Lat. 29.15.

Island of Suli, off Hijāz, Long. 81, Lat. 25.15.—See this name in the 1st Climate. It may be the ancient Sela, off Moilah or Muweilah on the Hijāz coast.

Lower extremity of the Egyptian Sea, of Hijāz, Long. 81.30, Lat. 21.—Presumably any part that corresponds with the location.

Yemāmah, Long. 81.5, Lat. 21.30.—Ency. Islam, iv. 1154. al-Yamama, a district in Central Arabia.

Ahsā, in Bahrein, Long. 88'30, Lat. 22.—The word signifies. according to Yāqut, water absorbed by the earth and penetrating to hard soil where it is retained. The sand is removed by the Arabs and the water is taken up. It also means sand heaped over rocky ground to which the rain percolates through the sand.

The Sea of Bahrein, Long. 83.30, Lat. 24.15.

The extreme point of Bahrein, Long. 84.20, Lat. 25.15.

Ma adan-i-Zahab, Long. 67:15, Lat. 21:5.—See above.

Island of Awal, Long. 86, Lat. 22.—One of the island off Bahrein near Qatif at one day's sail. Two days would be required to traverse it either in length or breadth. It is the best of the pearl fisheries and contains 300 villages. Abulf. This

island is not marked in the maps under this name. But its position in Abulfeda seems to mark it as the I. of Sumak in the Bahrein Gulf. In Istakhri's peculiar geographical map, it is located as one of 3 large islands in a sea which no imagination can shape into the semblance of any waterway of the world.

Island of Silāb, Long. 88.30, Lat. 25.—I do not trace the name. Hormuz, Long. 92. Lat. 25.

Jiraft, Long. 98, Lat. 27:30.—A flourishing town in Kirman; a rendezvous for merchants from Khurasan and Sijistan, 4 days' march from Hormuz. Abulf. I do not find it under this name in Keith Johnstone.

Daibal, Long. 102:31, Lat. 24:20.—Or Debal. For the celebrated port in Sind, see Cunningham, Anc. Geog. 297. Its position is still disputed and is likely to remain so.

Tiz, a town on the Makan coast, Long 83, Lat. 24.5.

Birun in Makrān, Long. 84.30, Lat. 24.5.—This is placed by Ibn Haukal between Debal and Mansurah. Abulf. Reinaud II. 11. 112.

Mansurah, Sind. Long. 105, Lat. 26'40.—The ancient Muhammadan capital of Sind, see Cunningham. Anc. Geog. 271.

The Idol (temple) of Somnat, India, Long. 107:10, Lat. 22:15.

Ahmadābād. of Gujrāt. India, Long. 108:30, Lat. 23:15.

Nahrwalah, i.e., Pattan, Gujarat, Long. 92.5, Lat. 28.30.—Now in the Gaikwar's territory.

Amarkot, birthplace of His Majesty Long. 100, Lat. 24.

Mando. Capital of Mālwah, Long. 95 35. Lat. 25.5.

Ujjain, Long. 110.50, Lat. 28.30.—From this town was reckoned the longitude of the Hindus Albiruni, India, 1004, corrupted to Arin by the Arabs.

Bahroch (Broach), Long. 116.53, Lat. 27.

Kambayat (Cambay), Long. 109 20, Lat. 26 20.

Kanauj, Long. 116.50, Lat. 26.35.

Karrah, Long. 101'30, Lat. 25'36.—Sec Vol. II under Subah of Allahabad.

Surat, India, Long. 110, Lat. 21:30.

Saronj, India, Long. 114.59, Lat. 27.22.

Ajmer, India, Long. 1115, Lat. 26.

Qartia? India, —Probably a mistake for Merta in Marwar. (J. S.)

Benares, India, Long. 119.15, Lat. 25.17.

Mahurah, on both sides of the river, Long. 116. Lat. 27.—Qānun, Long. 104, Lat. 27:15. Atwal, Long. 106, Lat. 27. A town of the Brahmans on both sides of the Ganges between Kanauj and the Ocean. Abulf. This is probably Mathurah (Muthra).

Agra, India, Long. 115, Lat. 26:43.

Fathpur, India, Long. 115, Lat. 26:41.

Gwalior, India, Long. 115, Lat. 26:29.

Mānikpur, India, Long. 101.33, Lat. 25.5.—Usually joined to Kara, as Korah is to Allahabad.

Jaunpur, India, Long. 119, Lat. 26:36.

Sonargaon, India, Long. 101:50, Lat. 22:2.

Pandua in Bengal, Long. 128, Lat. 25.

Lakhnauti, in Bengal, Long. 128, Lat. 26.30.

Fort of Kalinjar, Long. 116.30, Lat. 25.

Ajodhya, Long. 116.32, Lat. 25.50.

Shergarh, There is a Shergarh, 16 m. n. of Mathura [J. S.] Muner, Long. 121'31, Lat. 26'16.—In the Patna district (Maner).

Illahābās, Long. 118.25, Lat. 26.

Bhilsa, Long. 98.2. Lat. 24.31.

Ghāzipur, Long. 104.5, Lat. 25.32.

Hājipur, Patna, Long. 120:46. Lat. 26:5.—The text has an impossible figure for the degrees of Long.

Lakhnau, Long. 116'6, Lat. 26'30.

Dukam, —Dogam, a mint-town of the Mughal emperors for copper coins, near Bahraich in Oudh. []. S.]

Daulatābād, Long. 101, Lat. 25.

Etāwah, Long. 99.55, Lat. 26.5.

Awadh, Long. 116.25, Lat. 26.55.

Deogir, Long. 111, Lat. 25.

Fathpur, Long. 100:50, Lat. 25:55.

Dalmau, Long. 102.5, Lat. 24.35.

Kālampur,

Korah, Long. 100.5, Lat. 26.15.—See under Allahabad, Vol. II.

Usyut, Upper Egypt, Long. 51.5, Lat. 22.10.—(If Assuan, written in Arabic also as Uswan, Ency. Islam, i. 492. J. S.)

Biskarah, in Mauritania, Long. 34.25, Lat. 27.30.—On the Jediriver, S.E. of Algiers. Ency. Islam, i. 732 (Biskra).

Najiram, Long. 87'30, Lat. 26'40.—A small town between Sirāf

and Basrah situate on the mountains near the sea. Yaqut says he had often visited it. Ency. Islam, iii. 823-825 gives a Najran in Yemen. Not this.

Najd, the region between Hijāz and Irāq.

Māyah,

Khalih?.......Unintelligible variants in text.

Yanju, capital of China, Long. 125, Lat. 22.—Yang-tcheou, according to Reinaud.

Manchu, in China, Long. 127, Lat. 39.

Narwar, in India, Long. 98.5, Lat. 25.33.

Chinapattan, Long. 100.10, Lat. 18.5.—Chinnapattanam is marked in K. Johnstone near and north of Seringapatam. Also the old local name of Madras town.

Haldārah?....

Bārām?.....

Tibbet, Long. 114, Lat. 27:30.—This name is marked, doubtful in text.

Taktābād, - Var. Naktābād.

Hasābah? --Var. Hālsar?

Salāyah, —Var. Salāmat.

Awilah? or Rawilah?

Tayfah?

Kashmir?.....ln the text marked doubtful.

Kalisah or Kaliksa,

Malibar, ie. Mabar This name has preceded in the 1st Climate and its location given. These repetitions are frequent among Eastern Geographers and Remaud notices the laxity of Edrisi in this particular, I. CCCXV.

Magrugin?

Nadimah?.....

A'yinba'? - Probably Yanbo, alread; preceded.

Batn Marrah, Long. 77, Lat. 21 55.—Properly: Batn Marr, near Mecca.

Qift, Upper Egypt, Long. 61'18, Lat. 24.—Copt or Koft, or Keft in K. Johnstone, a short distance below Qus, on the Nile.

Armant, Do., Long. 51.5, Lat. 24.—Erment, the ancient Hermonthis. It stands slightly south-west of Luxor.

Island of Qais Arbicised form of Kais: in the Persian Gulf, Long. 78, Lat. 28.—Ency. Islam, ii, 649.

Island of Lar in the Persian Gulf, Long. 88'30, Lat. 25,-An

island now called Abu Shu'aib. The Creeks praised the pearl fisheries of Lär. Ency. Islam, iii. 17.

Lahsä?

THE THIRD CLIMATE.

- Asafi, North Africa, Long. 2, Lat. 30.—Popularly called Safi (Ency. Islam, iv. 56 under Safi). A few miles south of Cape Cantin in Morocco, on the Atlantic Ocean.
- Fas, Do., Long. 18, Lat. 32.—Fez.
- Island of Jarbah, Do., Long. 39, Lat. 32.—Called Jerba in Keith Johnstone, an island in the Gulf of Cabes (Syrtis Minor) off the Tunis Coast. Ency. Islam, i, 1036.
- Sejelmāsah, Long. 25, Lat 31'30.—Yāqut places it 10 days' journey from Fez to the S. See Ency. Islam, iv. 404, under Sidjilmāsa, which was the capital of Tafilālt (iv. 603).
- Marākash, Long. 21, Lat. 29.—Morocco.
- Tādelā, Mauritania, Long. 22°, Lat. 30′—Tadla, between Morocco and Fez.
- Telemsan, Long. 24, Lat. 33'40.—See Ency. Islam, iv. 801 under Tlemcen: "In Arabic Tilimsan. The old town was called both Tlemcen and Agadir. 1-30 W. Long. of Greenwich, and 34-53 N. Lat. Named Pomaria by the Romans. Modern name Tagrart'. (J. S.)
- Mediterranean Coast, Mauritania, Long. 25,
- Biskarah, Long. 32, Lat. 30.35.—This name has already occurred with a different location in the 2nd Climate. The name has a variant Selah, in the text.
- Tähart-i-Ulya, Long. 35:30, Lat 29.—Upper Tahart. Ency. Islam, iv. 610(under Tahert).
- Tāhart-i-Suffa, Long. 36:30, Lat. 29.—Lower Tahart; Yāqut says that these two towns face each other and Fe 5 miles apart, and he calls the Upper the ancient, and e Lower, the modern, on the eastern border of the modern province of Oran (in Algeria).
- Satif, Africa, Long. 37, Lat. 31.—Satif, south-west of Constantine Mesilah, Long. 38:40. Lat. 30:25.—Pronounced also Emsila. In the maps Msila in the province of Biskarah, a town founded by the Fatimite Câliph Qāim-billāh A.H. 315 (A.D. 927) who gave it the name of Muhammadiyah, Abulf. II, I, 191.

Bājah, Do., Long. 39.5, Lat. 31.—Situate according to Abulf. between Bugie and Tunis, at one march distant from Thabarca, and 5 from Qairawān. The river Maguyla flows between it and Bone. This fixes its position as the Beja of Keith Johnstone, in the province of Tunis.

Kairawan, Do., Long. 41, Lat. 31'40.—This is not to be confounded with the ancient Cyrene, as Gibbon notices has been done

by one eminent geographer.

Mahdiyah, Long. 32, Lat. 32'30.—Founded by the Mahdi 'Ubaydullah the founder of the Fatimite Dynasty, (v. Suyuti's Hist. of the Caliphs. Jarrett, p. 3 et seq.). It is situate on the coast below Monaster.

Tunis, Long. 42:30, Lat. 38:31.

Lower extremity of the Egyptian Sea, Egypt, Long. 44, Lat. 30.22.

Middle of Syria, Long. 44.35, Lat. 33.38.

Island of Rhodes, Long. 44'30, Lat. 36.

Susah, Africa, Long. 44'40, Lat. 32'30.—On the Gulf of Hammamet, north-west of Monaster.

Atrābulus, Africa, Long. 44, Lat. 32'30.—Tripoli.

Tuzar, Africa, Long. 46'30, Lat. 29.--Province of Tunis on the Shatt Kabir.

Zawilah, Africa, Long. 49'40, Lat. 30.—In the Fezzan. This was the name also of a quarter in the city of Mahdiyah and of Cairo. Abulf. v. De Sacy Chrest. Arab. 1. 495.

Kasr-i-Ahmad, Africa, Long. 51'25. Lat. 33'30.—On the border of the Barkah country according to Ibn Sayd, on the east of the province of Africa proper. It is but a small village serving as a store for goods of Arab merchants. The desert intervenes between this and Barkah. Abulf.

Barkah, Africa, Long. 52'45, Lat. 32.

Tulmaitha, Long. 44, Lat. 38'10.—Situate at the foot of the mountains of Cyrenaics on the sea-shore. The ancient Ptolemais.

Madinah-i-Surt, Long. 57, Lat. 31.—Sort in Keith J. is a district on the littoral of the Gulf of Sidra, the Syrtis Major: Abulf. quoting Ibn Sayd makes it a town, formerly one of the capital cities of the country but destroyed by the Arabs. The Fatimite Caliph Al Mui'zz constructed reservoirs in the desert for use on his journeys from Sort and Fayyum.

'Akabah, northern extremity of Egypt, Long. 39, Lat. 30.

Bahnasa, Long. 61.32, Lat. 28.35.—This village stands on part of the site of the ancient Oxyrynchus which received its name from a fish of the sturgeon species (accipenser sturio Linn.) which was an object of religious worship. There remain some broken columns of the ancient city and a single Corinthian column without leaves or volutes, partly buried in the sand, probably of the age of Diocletian. It became the site of an episcopal see. Geog. Dict. Smith.

Iskandariyah, Long. 61 54, Lat. 30 58.—Alexandria.

Rashid, Long. 62.20, Lat. 31.—Rosetta.

Misr, Long. 63, Lat. 30.20.—Cairo.

Dimyāt, Long. 68.50, Lat. 31.25.—Damietta.

Fayyum, Long. 68'50, Lat. 29.—The canal which connects, or connected it with the Nile, is said by Abulf. to have been constructed by the patriarch Joseph, to whom a great number of the ancient monuments have been ascribed.

Qulzum, Long. 66'3, Lat. 29'30.—Niebuhr places the ruins of the ancient Klisma, a little to the north of Suez. v. Tab. XXIV, Descp. de l'Arab.

Tinnis, one of the Egyptian isles, Long. 64'30, Lat. 30'40.—An island in Lake Tinnis (Lake Menzaleh) a little south of Port Said.

Ghazzah, frontier of Palestine, Long. 66.10, Lat. 32.—Gaza.

'Arish, Long. 66'15, Lat. 26'36.—It is on the littoral between Palestine and Egypt and marked by Ibn Khaldun, (*Proleg.* 110) as on the extreme frontier of Egypt. Edit. Quatremere.

Bait'ul Mugaddas, Long, 66'30, Lat. 31'50.--Jerusalem.

Ramlah, Long. 66.50, Lat. 32.10.

Kaisariyah, Long. 66'15, Lat. 32'30. - Cæsarea.

'Ammān, a dependency of Balqa, Long, 66.20, Lat. 31.3.—
Rabbath Ammon, the ancient capital of the Ammonites (Deut. iii. 11). It was besieged by Joab and taken by David (2 Sam. xi. I. xii. 26-31). Its destruction denounced by Jeremiah (xlix. 3. Ezech. xxv. 5). It was restored by Ptolemy Philadelphus, who gave it the name of Philadelphia. Geog. Dict. W. Smith.

'Askalan, Palestine, Long. 66'30, Lat. 32'15.—Ascalon.

Yafa, Palestine, Long, 66 15, Lat. 32 40.-Jaffa.

Karak, Long. 66'50,/Lat. 31'30.—Kerak-Moab is the district cor-

responding to the country of Moab. The chief town of the same name is marked in Keith Johnston.

Tabariyah of the Jordan, Long. 68:15, Lat. 32:5.—Tiberias.

Baisan, Long. 68, Lat. 32:50—Beth-San, or Scythopolis, in the Judges, LXX. i. 27.

It was a city of the Manassites, locally situated in the tribe of Issachar. Placed by Josephus at the S. extremity of Gallilee, who calls it the chief city of the Decapolis. Ptolemy reckons it one of the cities of Coelesyria. Dict. Smith.

Akqa, coast of Syria, Long. 68.20, Lat. 33.30.—Acre.

Sur, coast of Damascus, Long. 68:35, Lat. 32:40.—Tyre.

Hajar, Long. 68'30, Lat. 28'30.—This is probably Hajar Shughlän, a fortress belonging to the Knights Templars, in the mountain of Lokkām, near Antioch, overlooking the lake of Yaghra. Yāgut.

Saidā, littoral of Damascus, Long. 68.55, Lat. 33.—Sidon.

Balb'ak, of Damascus, Long. 70, Lat. 38'50.

Damascus, capital of Syria, Long. 70, Lat. 33'30.

Hit, Syria, on the Euphrates, Long. 78 20, Lat. 33 15.—Not in Syria (Shām) as Abul Fazl writes, but in Arabian 'Irāg.

Hillah, in 'Irāq, Long. 79. Lat. 32.—There are several of the name; the Hillah of Bani Kailah, between Wāsit and Basrah; the Hillah of Dabais b. Afif ul Asadi, between Basrah and Ahwāz, and the Hillah of Bani-l-Marāk near Mausil. The Hillah of the text is on or near the ruins of Babylon.

Kufah, on a branch of the Euphrates, Long. 79'30, Lat. 31'30.— The ruins of this once famous town alone are left.

Arbar, 'Iraq, Long. 79.30, Lat. 33.5.

Ukbará, Do., Long. 79:30, Lat. 33:30.—On the Tigris, ten parasangs from Baghdad.

Baradan, on the Tigris, Long. 79.50, Lat. 33.30.—In the map, near a small affluent of the Tigris. The text has Bardan, I follow the orthography of Yaqut.

Baghdad, Long. 80, Lat. 33-25.

Madāin-i-Kisra, opposite stood the palace of the Khusraus, Long. 80.20, Lat. 33.—The ancient Ctesiphon, described by Strabo, as the winter residence of the Parthian kings, and by Tacitus "sedes imperii". See its description in Gibbon, Decline and Fall, ch. 24.

Hajar, of Hijāz, Long. 80.30, Lat. 28.30.—This name occurs in the 2nd Climate with a different location. Yāgut mentions three others, but of no significance.

Babil, 'Iraq, Long. 80.55, Lat. 32.15.—Babylon.

Nuamāniyah, Do., Long. 81 20, Lat. 33.—Between Baghdad and Wāsit. It is the chief town of the Upper Zāb. Abulf.

Qasr Ibn i Hubayrah, Do., Long. 80.30, Lat. 32.45.—One letter (m) is omitted in the text of the minutes of latitude. This town is on the Euphrates having Karbala a short distance directly to the west on the desert. It takes its name from Yazid-b-Omar-b. Hubairah, governor of 'Irāq, in the time of Marwān al Himār. Abulf.

Jarjarāyā, 'Irāq, Long. 80'30, Lat. 33'3.—Near the Tigris between Baghdad and Wāsit.

Famu's Silh, Do., Long. 80.45, Lat. 32.40.—m omitted in min. of Long. on the W. of the Tigris. 7 parasangs from Wāsit. It was here that the espousals of the Caliph Mamun with Burān took place.

Jalula, Do., Long. 87:10, Lat. 33:30.—Deg. of Lat. wrongly printed in text. It was here that Yezdajird was defeated in 16 A.H. and fled to Rai. It is both a town and a river according to Yaqut, the river being named from the multitude Jad of the slain. The Jalula is probably the present Dyalah. See my Transl. Hist. of Caliphs, p. 135, and 231 for the note above.

Wasit, Do., Long. 81:30. Lat. 32:25.

Hulwan, Do., Long. 82.55, Lat. 34.

Basrah, Do., Long. 84, Lat. 33.

Ubullah, Do., Long. 84, Lat. 30 15.—At the mouth of the Tigris canals of the same name which leads to Basrah, four miles in length.

Ahwaz, in Khuzistan, Long. 85, Lat. 31'3.—On the river Karun.

Tustar, Do., Long. 84'30, Lat. 31'30.-Now Shuster.

Arjān, Do., Long. 84'30, Lat. 30'32.—Or arabicised Arrajān. 60 parasangs from Suk-ul-Ahwāz and 60 from Shirāz and one day's march from the sea. Meynard. Dict. de la Perse. On the frontier of Fars on the Khuzistān side. Abulf.

'Askar Mukram in Khuzistān, Long. 84:35, Lat. 31:15.—Eight parasangs from Tustar. It was called after Mukram-b-ul M'aza despatched by Hajjāj-b. Yusuf against Khuzād-b. Bās:

his stay in this town gave it the name of the Camp of Mukram. Abulf.—Yāqut.

Island of Sugutra, off Khuzistan, Long. 84'30, Lat. 33.—Socotra.

Hisn i Mahdi, in Khuzistän, Long. 85.15, Lat. 30.15.—According to Yāqut and Ibn Haukal, the waters of Tustar, Daurak and Ahwāz unite near the fort and form a large river that disembogues in the sea. 'Azizi makes it II parasangs from this to Ubulla.

Siniz, Persian Gulf, Long. 84:45, Lat. 32.—The 5 in minfl of Long. omitted in text:—A small town almost in ruins in the Ahwaz district; from this to Jannabah the road runs along the sea coast. Abulf.

Abbadān, Do., Long. 106.30, Lat. 30.—At the mouth of the Tigria.

Rām Hurmuz, in Khuzistān, Long. 85'45, Lat. 31.—Omitted 5 in text. The town is marked in Keith Johnston.

Isfahān, Persia, Long. 86'40, Lat. 22 25.

Käzrun, Do., Long. 87'30, Lat. 29'55.

Shushtar, Do., Long. 86.20, Lat. 21.30.—This is the same as Tustar which is the Arabic form of the name (Yāqut). Abul Fazl has given it a different Long. and Lat. to Tustar above; it is probably a copyist's interpolation

Shāpur, Do., Long. 87:55. Lat. 30.—The ruins of this town above Kisht and near Kazrān are marked in K. J. The word is Sābur in Yāqut, a corruption he says of Shāhpur. It is also a district, and Sābur was one, but not the largest, of its towns. It was built by one of the monarchs of this name of which there were three, the captor of Valerian. (A.D. 240), Sapor II (310), Sapor III (385).

Uman, Do., Long. 67:20, Lat. 21.—No such name occurs in Faristan, and indeed no other than the east coast of the Arabian Peninsula of which according to Yaqut the Long. is 34:30, Lat. 19:45.

Naubandajān, Long. 107:55, Lat. 30:10.—According to Yāqut a town of importance in the district of Sābur, and said by Ibn Faqih to be its chief town. He distinguishes it from the town Shāhpur or Sābur, but Guyard (II. II. 95. n.) makes them the same. Yāqut states that Naubanjān was a fort in the city of Naubandajān. The former name is in Keith J., the latter not.

Jannābah, known as Gandābah, Long. 87.25. Lat. 30.—ln K. J. Gunāwa, on the Persian Gulf.

Abarkuh in Färs, Long. 87.20, Lat. 31.30.

Firozābād in Fārs, Long. 87:30, Lat 28:10.

Shiraz in Fars, Long. 88, Lat. 29:36.

Sirāf in Fārs. Long. 89'30, Lat. 29'30.

Shabānkārah in Fārs, Long. 89, Lat. 28.23.—The name of a Kurdish tribe and their country. . . . bounded by Fārs, Kirmān, and the Persian Gulf. (Ency. Islam, iv. 240. J.S.).

Istakhr in Fārs, Long. 88'30, Lat. 30.—Persepolis.

Yezd in Fars, Long. 89, Lat. 32.

Hisn-Ibn Umarah in Fars, Long. 94, Lat. 30'20.—According to Abulf, doubtful whether in Fars, or Kirman; now in ruins. The route from Siraf, along the sea coast is across wild mountains and deserts. [P. 36.]

Darābjird in Fārs, Long. 90, Lat. 28:15.—This name is derived from Darāb = Darius and Jird arabicised form of Persian Gird, circuit, enclosure, town. Darāb is the name of the town in K. J.

Bāfd, Kirmān, Long. 82, Lat. 29.—Marked in K. J.; lead mines in its vicinity.

Sirjān, Kirmān, Long. 90'30, Lat. 29'20.—Ibn Haukal calls it the largest city of Kirmān.

Kirman, Long. 91:30, Lat. 30:5.

Tabas Kilaki, Khurāsan, Long. 92, Lat. 33.—A town in the desert between Naisabur, Isfahān and Kirmān. It is divided in two, one being called T. Kilaki and the other T. Masinān, but they form properly but one town. A celebrated silk of this name is exported. Abulf.

Zarand of Kirmān, Long. 92, Lat. 30'40.—According to Ibn Haukal, it exports a stuff for linings known as Bitānah; equiv. Pers. astar.

Bardsir, of Kirmän, Long. 92'30, Lat. 30.—In Abult. Bardasir, Bardashir Kawāshir, between Sirjān and the desert, two marches from Sirjān, the name a contraction, it is said, of Ardeshir (Babegān) sec. Dict. de la Pers. 90.

Khabia, of Kirman, Long. 93, Lat. 30.-Marked in K. J.

Bam, Long. 94'8, Lat. 28'30.—One of the principal towns and has three large mosques. Marked in K. J.

- Tabas Masinān, Khurāsān, Long. 92, Lat. 33.—See above under Tabas Kilaki.
- Khuwāsh, desert of Sistān, Long. 94'40, Lat. 33.—Pronounced by the inhabitants Khāsh. A town in Sijistān on the left of a traveller going towards Tustar (Bost?) at one day's march from Sijistān, watered by stream and canals and well wooded with palm trees. Yāqut. This direction is obscure and the town is not in the maps. The Sijistān, above-mentioned must be Zaranj.
- Zaranj, ancient town of Sistān, Long. 97, Lat. 32'30.—Capital of Sijistān and called also by its name. Yāqub-b-Leith as Saffār, founder of the Saffāride dynasty had a castle here. Rām Shahristān on the Helmand, was the capital before Zaranj, but the river having changed its course and abandoned the town, the inhabitants left it and built Zarang at a distance of 3 farsakh. See these names in the Dict. dela Pers, or in Yāqut.
- Kij, of Mekrān, Long. 99. Lat. 23'30.—Principal town of Mekrān and 5 days' march from Tiz, its chief port. Dict. dela Pers.
- Jāliq, of Mekrān, Long. 99, Lat. 30.—An error probably for Jāliqān, but the latter is placed by Yāqut in Sijistān, and by some authorities in the territory of Bast. There is no Jāliq traceable.
- Khältän Mekrän, Long 99, Lat. 28 30.—Not traceable.
- Ram, Long. 99, Lat. 33'35.—This name so occurs in Abulf. and corrected by Reinaud to Zamm. The latter is placed by Ibn Haukal on the borders of Khurāsān, but reckoned as belonging to Māwarannahar. Yāqut makes it a small town on the road to the Oxus leading from Tirmaz and Amol. De Slane makes Zemm to mean a cluster of Kurd villages. Ibn Khaldun I. 133 n.
- Bust in the Garmsir of Qandahār, on the Helmand, Long 100, Lat. 33.—The stages from Sijistān to Bust or Bost are given by Ibn Haukal (Ouseley, p. 209).
- Takitābād?, Long. 101.5?, Lat. 33.
- Rukhkhaj of Sistān, Long. 103. Lat. 32:50.—In Abulf. Arrukhkhaj with the Arabic article, the ancient Arachosia, comprehending the present provinces N.E. of Baluchistān, Cutch, Gandāva, Qandahār, Sewistān and the S.W. of Kābulistān v. Dict. Geog. Smith.

Sarwin, Sistän, Long. 101:55, Lat. 28:15.—Abulf. and Yakut have Sarwän. It is two marches from Bust.

Maimand, originally of Zabulistan, now of Qandahar, Long. 102'40, Lat. 33'20.—This name is written Mimand in Abulf, and Yaqut. The min. of Lat. are omitted or misprinted in the

Ghaznah, Zabulistan, Long. 104'20, Lat. 33'35

Ribat Amir, Long. 105, Lat. 34.—Not traceable.

Qandahār, Long. 107:50, Lat. 38:20.

Nahlwarah, India, Long. 108-20, Lat. 28-30.—See p. 59 where this is written as Nahrwalah but with a different location. The name was originally Anhilpur (v. Vol. II) and Anc. Geog. India, p. 320.

Multan, India, Long. 106.25, Lat. 29:40.

Lahāwar (Lahor), India, Long. 109.20, Lat. 31.15.

Dahli (Delhi), India, Long. 114'38, Lat. 28'15.

Tānesar, India, Long. 94, Lat. 30.

Shāhābād, India, Long. 94, Lat. 30.12.

Sambal, India, Long. 105'30, Lat. 28'35.—This must be in the Sambalaka of Ptolemy, in Rohilkand. See McCrindle. Ptol. p. 133.

Amroha, India, Long. 95.15, Lat. 29.

Pânipat, India, Long. 108:10, Lat. 28:52.

Baran, India, Long. 94:15, Lat. 28:48.—Vol. II. Bulandshahar.

Baghpat, Long. 94'30, Lat 28'12.--Vol. II.

Kol, Long. 95'2, Lat. 28'20.—Aligarh.

Himilya Mons, Long. 95, Lat. 31:50.

Kot Kror —Lat. 21.—In Dera Ismail Khan district; a pilgrimage centre.

Sialkot, India, Long. 109, Lat. 33.

Sultankot, India. Lat. 28-30.

Jhelam India, Long. 90.35, Lat 33.15.

Rhotis, India, Long. 90'30, Lat. 38'15.

Fort of Bandnah, Lat. 33'10.—Should be read as Nandanah, a fort and a district of the Sind Sagar Doab (Panjab), the fort was north of the junction of two spurs of the Salt Range. (J. S.)

Parashāwar (Peshawar), India, Long. 83'40, Lat. 38'28.

Farmul, India, . . . Lat. 32 15.—Kabul being presumably counted in Hindustan. See Vol. II.

Sunnam, India, Long. 110.25, Lat. 30.30.—Sunam town in Karm-garh tahsil of Patiala State.

Sirhind, India, Long. 111.33, Lat. 30.30.—So spelt in every MS.

Rupar, India, Long. 93:40, Lat. 31.—See Vol. II. Subah of Lahor for this and following name.

Māchhiwārah, India,

Pael, India, Long. 98.5, Lat. 30.15,-v. Vol. II.

Ludhianah, India, Long. 98, Lat. 30:55.

Sultanpur, India, Long. 94.25, Lat. 32.

Kalānur, where the accession of His Majesty took place, Akbarnamah, tr. ii. 5 sq.

Desuhah, India, Vol. II.

Parsaror, near Dera Ghazi Khan, Long. 87, Lat. 30.—Pasrur, in Sialkot district.

Amnābād, India, Long. 91.15, Lat. 32.—In the Sarkar of the Rechnau Doab.

Sudharah, India. . . . Vol. II.

Defhnah?, India, - Var. Dalfiah, Difhah. ...

Bherab, India, - Bhera, town in Shahpur dist., Panjab.

Khushāb, India, Long. 84'20. Lat. 33'20.

Hazārah,

Chandniwat

Atak, Benares, founded by His Majesty.

Hardwar, Manglaur and the fort of Galer? ancient cities, Vol. II.

Charthawal, Long. 94, Lat. 29-15.-Vol. II.

Kairānah, Long. 94'30, Lat. 29'15.-Vol. II.

Jhinjhanah, Long. 94'30, Lat. 29'15 .-- Vol. II.

Baghrah, near Muzaffarnagar, Long. 85'30, I.at. 29'30,—Spelt Baghra in Vol. II.

Chahat, near Muzaffarnagar, Long. 90, Lat. 32.—[North of Ambala City.]

Bangash, near Muzaffarnagar, Long. 875, Lat. 3815.—I find no other name, but the Tuman of Bangash which is scarcely applicable here.

Dorālah, in Muzaffarnagar. - Vol. II.

Nahtaur, near Muzaffarnagar, Vol. Do., 291.

Kaithal, near Muzaffarnagar, Long. 93'50, Lat. 29'59.

Rohtak, near Muzaffarnagar, Long. 98-50, Lat. 29,-Do. 287

Jhajhar, Long. 94, Lat. 28.15.-Vol. II, p. 286.

Mahim, Long. 93.20, Lat. 28.50.—Do. 243,

Haibatpur Pati, in the Panjab, Long. 92, Lat. 31.20.

Khizrābād, in the Panjab, Long. 94.15; Lat. 30.20.—The text is in error in the degree of Long.

Sadhurāh, in the Panjab, Long. 94.20, Lat. 30.25.—Do., Do.

Safidan, Do., Long. 98.15, Lat. 29.25.—In Vol. If it is written Safidan.

Jind, Do., Long. 93.25, Lat. 29.15.

Karnāl, Do., Long. 95.4, Lat. 29.15.

Hansi Hisar, Do., Long. 112.15, Lat. 12.45.—Do., pp. 294-295.

Sahāranpur, Do., Long. 94-15, Lat. 30,

Deoband, Do., Long. 94.47, Lat. 29.15.

Ambālah, Do., Long. 98.55, Lat. 29.25.

Sampat, Long. 89'55, Lat. 29.—I do not find this name. Here the reference to India ceases.

- Sanjar?....—Var. Janhah. The only approach to this name in Abulf. is the ancient Sangarius, the present Sakaria, which flows into the Black Sea, E. of Constantinople, called also the river of Angora from its passing near that town: Long. 54, Lat. 41 in the Resm-ul-Māmur. Abulf. 11. 64.
- Aghmāt, extreme W. of Mauritania, Long. 11'30, Lat. 28'50, N. of the Daren Mts. and the capital of the country before Morocco and S.E. of it. Abulf. II. 1. 188. [South of Marrākush. Ency. Islam, i. 182. J.S.]

Hadiyan? —Var. Tadela. already mentioned.

R'ah —Var. Rugah ; var. Darah mentioned elsewhere. Riyāsah ?

Maufalut, Upper Egypt, Long. 62:20, Lat. 27:40.—On the Nile a little N. of Usyut.

Fuetat, Do., Long. 63, Lat. 30.10.

Abu Tij, Do., Long. 62'30. Lat. 28.—On the west bank of the Nile in the Usyut territory, abounding in the poppy plant, 24 miles from Usyut and Ikhmim (Abulf.) Reinaud considered the name pronounced by the Arabs Abu Tig, to be probably a corruption of Apotheke, pointing to a Greek origin.

- Ushmunain, Do., Long. 62.45, Lat. 28.—The 4 in min. of Lat. omitted in text; marked Eshmoom in K. J. It is in the dual form of an Arabic noun, meaning the two Ushmuns, so named. Reinaud supposes, from its greater importance, there being other towns similarly designated. It was the ancient Hermopolis Magna and there are still some striking remains of its former magnificence. The principal deities worshipped were Typhon and Thoth. The former represented by a hippopotamus on which sat a hawk fighting with a serpent. Thoth, the Greek Hermes, the Ibis-headed god, was with his accompanying emblem the Ibis and Cynocephalus or ape, the most conspicuous among the sculptures on the great portico of the temple. This portico was a work of Pharaonic times. v. Geog. Dict. Smith. [P. 38.]
- Munyah, Do., Long. 63, Lat. 28:45.—Min. of Lat. in the text 5 for 45, called also Munyat-ul-Khusaib, but in K. J. as Miniet Ibn Khaseeb. Yāqut however carefully points its orthography.
- Qābis, Africa, Long. 42'40, Lat. 32.—Cabes in the Gulf of that name. A town in S. Tunisia, under Gabes in Ency. Islam, ii. 124. In Ptolemy Gakape, in the Regio Syrtica. In its neighbourhood were warm mineral springs the Aquæ Tacapitanæ, now El Hammat el Khabs v. Geog. Dict. Smith.
- Susah, coast of Africa, Long. 44 10, Lat. 32 40.—N. of Monaster. and direct S. of Tunis. It was from here that the Moslem fleet set sail for the expedition against Sicily. Abulf. II. 199. Ency. Islam, iv 568 under al-Sus.
- Safāqus, Do., Long. 45'30. Lat. 31'50.—Rein. II. 200. Ency. Islam, iv. 238 under Sfax.
- Ghadāmis, in the Jarid country, Long. 49:10, Lat. 29:10.—Or Ghudāmis, on the borders of the Tripoli and Algerian territory to the extreme south. Yāqut describes the process of tanning here as incomparable, skins becoming as soft as silk. The Beled el Jarid in K. J. is marked considerably above Ghudāmis, W. of the Shott Kabir.
- Nābulus, of Jordan, Long. 67:30, Lat. 32:10.—Nābulus in Samaria, the ancient Neapolis, supposed to be identical with Sichem of the Old Testament. Traditions of Jacob's well and Joseph's tomb still survive, and its connection with the adjacent sacred Mount of Gerizim and identification as the city

- of Samaria where Philip preached, distinguish its remarkable history. See Smith's Geog. Dict.
- Salt, of Jordan, Long. 63.10, Lat. 32.3.—Text has Long. 68 for 63. Es Salt or Ramoth Gilead, but in the Geog. Dict. the site is said to be uncertain. Eusebius describes it as 15 miles W. of Philadelphia. Ibid.
- Azr'aāt, (the two 'Azrās) of Damascus —The name is incorrectly spelt and should be 'Azrā. There are two villages of the name in the Ghutah of Damascus, both marked in K. J.
- Sarkhad, Do., Long. 70.20, Lat. 32.15.—A fortified town and tract near the Hauran country, according to Yaqut. In K. J. Sulkhad or Salcah.
- Hal?.... —A note in the text considers this an error for Hillah already mentioned.
- Qādisiyyah, in Iraq, Long. 79.25, Lat. 21.45.—Cadesia with Hirāh and Khawarnak, says Abulf., are all three on the borders of the desert on the W. and 'Irāq on the E. This famous field determined the fate of Persia under the Caliphate of Omar.
- Sarsar, Do., Long. 79:55. Lat. 33:20.—Between Baghdad and Kufah and at 3 parasangs from Baghdad. There are two, an Upper and a Lower. Abulf. II. 11. 75.
- Hirah, Do., Long. 79 27, Lat. 31 30.—The text has Khirah for Hirah. The misprints or errors in Lat. and Long., the degrees and minutes of which are expressed in the notation of Arabic letters, are too frequent for further notice. Hirah is one parasang from Kufah. Ency. Islam, ii. 314.
- Basā of Fās. Long. 89'15, Lat. 29.—Known in earlier times as Basā-sir, a town in Fārs, 4 days' journey S.E. of Shirāz, was the most important town in the district of Darābjird. (Ency. Islam, ii. 60). J. S.
- Dara —In Abulf. this is in the 4th Climate, a small town at the foot of Mt. Maridin in Mesopotamia. There is another of the name in the mountains of Tabaristan. Abulf.
- Chaznah This has already been mentioned.
- Tib, in Khuzistan, Long. 83, Lat. 32.—Between Wasit and Ahwaz. Abulf.
- Qurqub in Ahwāz, said by some to be in Irāq, Long. 84.43, Lat. 33.—Seven parasangs between Qurqub and Tib and ten between it and Sus. Abulf.

- Jubbi, Khuzistān, Long. 84.35. Lat. 30.50.—Jobba in Abulf. and Jubbah in Yāqut. There are several of this name given by Yāqut; a cluster of villages between Damascus and Ba'albak: a village in Nahrwān; a village in the Khurāsān dist. and also a place in Egypt the birth-place or home of the grammarian Sibawaih. Jubbi is the relative adjective and not the name.
- Khansa, China, Long. 174:45, Lat. 29:30.—This in Abulf. is Khankou or properly Khanfou, a port of China on the river. According to Guyard, Khansa is Hang-tcheon-fou, the Kinsay of Marco Polo. II. II. 122; visited by Ibn Batutah II. 284.
- Sala, Mauritania, Long. 14 10, Lat. 33 30.—Now Salee or Sla, in K. I. on the W. coast.
- Samairam, near Isfahan, —In Yāqut Sumairam, a town halfway between Isfahān and Shirāz.
- Bam, —Already preceded. (Ency. Islam, i. 640, in the province of Kirman.)
- Balnan? Bailaman (Ency. Islam, i. 594), not traced.
- Balzam, —The text suggests Palermo, which seems plausible as the simple omission of the dot over the r would effect the change, but the name is in strange company, and Abulfeda places it in the 4th Climate.
- Baizā, Fars, Long. 83 15, Lat. 30.—According to Yāqut a well-known city called Dār Safed, the white city, Arabicised into Baiza, the white, on account of its citadel which was seen at a long distance; Istakhri describes it, as the largest town of the district of Istakhar and called the White. Its Persian name was Nasāik; it was nearly as large as Istakhar and was 8 farsakhs from Shirāz.

jausen or	Ju	sai	in.	₹.	•				
Kinah?									

Jor, in Färs, — Ency. Islam, ii. 113 (under Firuzābād). Long. 7830. Lat. 31 according to Yaqut who places it at 20 farsakh from Shirāz, pronounced by the Persians Gur. It is said that Malik Azdu-d Daulah bin Buwaih used to make frequent excursions of pleasure to it and the people used to say that he had gone to Gor, i.e., the grave—The ominous sound induced him to change the name to Firozābād. The original city is ascribed to Ardeshir-b.-Bābak, who gave it the name of Ardeshir Khurrah.

84	AIN-I-AK-BAKI
Dam	Kirmān with mines of iron, copper, gold, silver, and ammonis and tutty in a mountain in the vicinity. This mountain is called Dumbāwand, lofty and volcanic. It contains a huge cave which is heard the sound of rushing waters. When the vapourous smoke is thick around its sides, the people of the town assemble to obtain the sal ammoniac which is deposited of which 1/5 is taken by the Sultan and the rest divide amongst the people pro rata. Yāqut from Ibn u'l Fakil This must not be confounded with the mountain of Dumbiwand on the frontiers of Rayy of which marvellous legencare recorded by Yāqut.
Sabo	ah, —I do not trace this name. (? Saggiz in Kurdi
	tan, Ency. Islam, iv. 82, J. S.)
S'ala	bah,
'Ain	ush-Shams, Egypt, —Long. in Abulf. varying accordin
	to different authors between 53 30 and 61:50 and La
	between 29.30 and 30.20; said to be the residence of
	Pharoah, of which some ruins still remain, among them th
	needle of Pharoah, at half a day's journey from Cairo. Abul

II. 167. This is the famous Heliopolis, with the semitic name of Beth Shemesh and On (Genesis, xli. 45. Ezech. xxx 17).

near Aleppo with which a gross legend is connected, bu

by Abulf, in the 4th Climate. Yaqut locates it in the deser between Aleppo and Marrah; there are no wells and it

Climate in the Diyar Rabiah. Yagut places it at 5 farsak from Dārā in Mesopotamia. Also the name of a village is

'Ain Jārah, Said by Yāqut to have been a small villag

Kafartab Atwal, Long. 61-30, Lat. 34-45, place

Kafartuthä, Atwal, Long. 66'35, Lat. 37, in the 4t

Marbut, —Mentioned by Yaqut as one of the village

of Alexandria without further particulars.

the position is obscure.

dependent on rain water.

Kadwāl?

Palestine.

- Daskarah, in 'Irāq, Long. 81'3°, Lat. 38'40'.—In the environs of Baghdad or according to another account, a large village in its dependency on the road to Khurāsān and called Darkarat-ul-Malik; contains marvellous ancient ruins. Abulf. Yāqut gives two of the name, one a large village W. of Baghdad, and another on the road to Khurāsān near Shahrābād and called Darkarut-ul-Malik, on account of the frequent residence there of Harmuz son of Sapor, son of Ardeshir, son of Bābek. Two others are also mentioned by Yāqut one, opposite Jabbul, between Nuamaniyah and Wāsit, and a fourth in Khuzistān.
- Manf, Egypt, Long. 63'20°, Lat. 30'20'.—Memphis. The text has Minf. Yāqut points the word Manf, which is doubtless correct, the Noph of the Old Testament. Its antiquity is unquestionable, but Yāqut's authority, an undistinguished 'Abdur-Rahman, makes it the first city peopled after the Flood. Its first settlers were Baisar, son of Ham, son of Noah, with his family 30 in number, and their colony called Māfah from a Coptic word signifying 30, and turned by the Arabs into Manf.

THE FOURTH CLIMATE.

- Tanjah, a dependency of Fez, on the Atlantic, Long. 18°, Lat. 35'.

 —Tangier.
- Q'asr i 'Abdul Karim. Mauritania, Long. 18 30°. Lat. 37.40′.—A town 4 marches from Ceuta, N.W. of Miknessa, built on the river Luccos. The chief town of the province was formerly Al Basra, but on its destructio: the castle of 'Abdul Karim took the rank of the capital and was known as the castle of Ketāma. Abulf. Reinaud observes in a note that Abdul Karim is a branch of the Berber tribe of Ketāma and this castle was also surnamed Al Qasr al Kabir. This name is retained in K. Johnston, as applying to the modern town of Luxor.

Qurtubah, capital of Andalusia, Long. 18:30, Lat. 35.—Cordova. Ishbiliyyah, Andalusia, Long. 18:15, Lat. 36:50.—Sevile.

Dict.

- Sabtah, Mauritania, Long. 19.15, Lat. 35.30.—Ceuta, ancient Lepta. The deg. and min. of Long. are inaccurate in the to and seem generally to have been entered without discrimination or care and impossible localities assigned.
- Jazirat al Khadrā (the Green Isle) Andalusia, Long. 19:15. L 35:50.—Algeciras. The epithet of the 'isle' was given to says Ibn Sayd, from an island in the vicinity. It is now join to the continent. The epithet of 'the island' is also given to Mesopotamia and the difference by which the relating adjectives of these localities is distinguished is, that the former is Aljaziri, the latter Aljazari. Abulf. II. 347.
- Mārida, Spain, Long. 28:15, Lat. 38:15.—Merida, the ancie Augusta Emerit, built by Publius Carisius, legate of Augustu in B.C. 23, who colonised it with the veterans of the 5 and 10th legions whose term of service had expired (emriat the close of the Cantabrian War. It became the capit of Lusitania and one of the greatest cities in Spain. Geo
- Tulaitulah, Do., Long. 10.40, Lat. 35.30.—Toledo, the ancies Toletum, (Ptolemy) according to an old Spanish tradition it was founded in 540 B.C. by Jewish colonists who name it Toledoch, i.e., mother of people, Geog. Dict.
- Charnātah, Do., Long. 21'40, Lat. 37'30.—Granada.
- Jayyan, Do., Long. 21:40, Lat. 38:50.—Jaen.
- Almariyyah, Do., Long. 24'40, Lat. 35'50.—Almeria.
- Medinatu'l Farj, Do., Long. 25, Lat. 36'40.—Now Guadalajar Wāda-l-Hajārah, the river of stones, Amnus lapidum of Rode cus Toletanus. Gayangos. Mahom. Dyn. in Spain, I. 31 The name in the text signifies the 'city of the opening or gar which Reinaud supposes to convey the meaning of fronticity. This meaning of farj is borne out by Belazuri Gildemeister. De Reb. Indicis, p. 37.
- Malaqah, Do., Long. 26, Lat. 37.30.—Malaga, the ancient Malac Man'ah, var. Maltah, —Gladwin has here Malta, with the degrees of Long. and Lat. which are absent from the text

perhaps a misscript for Minorca.

- Island of Yabisah, Mediterranean, Long. 36.62, Lat. 38.30.— Iviza, anciently Ebusas.
- Island of Mayurqah, Mediterranean, Long. 34.7, Lat. 38.30.—Majorca, Balearis Major.

Bunah, Africa, Long. 28, Lat. 28.50.—The modern Bona on the coast of Constantine province in the vicinity of the ancient Hippo Regius.

laland of Sardaniyah, Africa, Mediterranean, Long. 41, Lat. 88.

Capital of the Island of Sicily, Long. 45, Lat. 38:10.—Palermo.

Balraghdāmis, Mediterranean, Long. 49.10, Lat. 39.10.—Barghadema is the nearest approach to the name in Abulf. but the Lat. is 57 and Reinaud considers the country between the Oder and Dnieper to be meant, but the text mentions it in the Mediterranean.

Island of Shāmus, Mediterranean, Long. 52'40, Lat. 38'10.—Samos.

Island of Ikritish, Do., Long. 55, Lat. 36:40.—Crete.

Island of Qubrus, Do., Long. 62.15, Lat. 34.—Cyprus.

Island of Rudis, Do., Long. 61'40, Lat. 36.—Rhodes, mentioned elsewhere.

Island of Hamariya, Do., Long. 64'15, Lat. 38'35.—I suspect this to be Morea; in Abulf. Lamorcya, but the location does not correspond as to Lat. and Long.

Island of Saqliyah, Do., Long 65, Lat. 36.—Sicily. Thus in the text but according to Yāqut, the orthography is Siqilliyyah.

Atheniyah the city of philosophers, Greece, Long. 63'40, Lat. 57'20.—Athens.

Jarun, Long. 66'30, Lat. 30'35.—An old castle in ruins opposite Constantinople. Reinaud gives its Long. 50 and Lat. 45 and writes the name Aljeroun, suggesting a better reading, Aljedoun, II. 39. Guyard doubts whether the Arabic article before Jarun is admissible (II. II. 142) and his objection is well founded.

Tarsus, Long. 68.40, Lat. 35.50.

Bayrut, Asia Minor, Long. 69'30, Lat. 34.

Ayas, Armenia, Long. 69, Lat. 36.40.—In the Gulf of Iskanderun.

Azanah, Do., Long. 69, Lat. 36.50.

Masisah, Do., Long. 69 15, Lat. 36 45.—The ancient Mopsuestia.

Bars Birt, Do., Long. 69.23, Lat. 37.—One march N. of Sis between little Armenia and Carmania. A strong citadel on a hill commanding the country.

Atrabolos Syria, Long. 69'40, Lat. 34.—Tripoli.

Baghrās, Do., Long. 70, Lat. 35'43.—The ancient Pagræ near the Syrian gates on the Syrian side of the Pass. Through these gates, the Assirion pylai of Arrian. Alexander passed and

- recrossed turning back to meet Darius at Issus. Arr. I, VI, VIII.
- Bāb Sikandarunah, Do., Long. 70, Lat. 36'10.—Alexandretta or Iskanderun.
- Lādhakiyyah, Do., Long. 70.40, Lat. 35.15.—Latākia.
- Hims, Do., Long. 70.15, Lat. 34.20.-Hems.
- Shughr Bakās, Do., Long. 71, Lat. 35'30.—Two strong fortresses within a bow shot of each other, half way between Antioch and Fāmyah. The former name occurs in K. J. supposed to have been Seleucia ad Belum.
- Suwāidiyyah, Do., Long. 71, Lat. 36.--The ancient Seleucia.
- Malitiyyah, Do., Long. 71, Lat. 37.—Properly Malatyah, according to Yāqut, and is in Asia Minor not Syria proper.
- Shaizar, Long. 71.10, Lat. 34.50.—A corruption of Kaisāreia or Cæsarea Phillipi. In his remarks on Hāmāth, Shaizar is said by Abulf. to be remarkable for the number of its norias.
- Antākiah, on the Roman frontier, Long. 71°26, Laf. 35°40.—Antioch. Sarmin, dependency of Aleppo, Long. 71°50, Lat. 35°50.—One march south of Aleppo between it and Ma'arrah.
- Qinnasrin, Long. 72, Lat. 35'30.
- Halab, one of the chief cities of Syria, Long. 72.10, Lat. 35.8.— Aleppo.
- Su. 1aisāt, Syria, Long. 72-15, Lat. 37-30.—Anciently Samosata.
- Hisn Mansur, Do., Long. 72.25. Lat. 37.—Near Sumaisāt, named from Mansur-b-J'aunah-b. al Hārith al 'Àāmiri, to whom was intrusted its construction under Marwān, the Ass.
- Saruj. Long. 72'40, Lat. 36'3.—In Mesopotamia, now in ruins, in the environs of Harran: it is marked in K. J.
- Mambij, Long. 72.50, Lat. 36.30.—Hierapolis, a name given by Seleucus Nicator in substitution of Bambyke, as it was cailed by the natives, being the chief seat of the worship of the Syrian goddess Astart. It is the Mabog of Pliny. See its history in Smith's Geog. Dict.
- Raqqah, Diyar Muzar, Long. 73, Lat. 36.—After the great inundation of Arim, famous in Arabian history, which is assigned to a period shortly after the death of Alexander the Great, eight tribes were forced to abandon their homes, from some of which arose the kingdoms of Ghassan and Hira. About this time also occurred the migration of colonies led into Mesopotamia by Bakr, Muzhar and Rabi'ah, the eponymous

chiefs of the three provinces still named after them. Diyar Bakr, Diyar Muzhar and Diyar Rabi'ah. See Sale. Prel. Dis. 7.

Harran, Long. 73, Lat. 37:40.—Anciently Carrhee, the Haran or Charran of Genesis; xi. 31. xxiv. 10. v. Geog. Dict.

Qaliqala, Armenia, Long. 73.45, Lat. 38.

Mārdin, Diyār Rabi'ah, Long. 74, Lat. 37.50.

Mayyā Fāriqin Diyār Bakr, Long. 74'15, Lat. 38.—The capital of Diyār Bakr. Here is the tomb of Saifu'ddaulah b.-Hamdān.

Hattākh, Do., Long. 74'30, Lat. 37'45.—Close to Mayyā Fāriqin. Yāqut.

Qarqisiya, Do., Mudhar, Long. 74.40, Lat. 36.—The ancient Circesium, situated on the Euphrates and Khabur, near Raqqah. Marked in K. J.

Jazirah, Ibn Omar, Mesopotamia, Long. 75.30, Lat. 37.30.—Marked in K. J.

Nasibin, Diyar Rabi'ah, Long. 75'20, Lat. 37'40.—The capital of Diyar Rabi'ah. Its roses have the peculiarity of being white, no red roses are found there. Ibn Batutah quotes Abu Nawas in praise of it. Vol. II. 141. Travels.

Makisin, Mesopotamia, Long. 75'32, Lat. 35.—On the Khābur, 7 parasangs from Qarqisiyah and 22 to Sinjar. Abulf.

Sinjär, Diyar Rabi'ah, Long. 76, Lat. 36.

Ma'arrat-un-Nu'aman, Syria, Long. 71'44, Lat. 35.—The name is from Nu'aman-b-Bashir a companion of Muhammad, who died while his father was Governor of Emesa and was here buried. It had been previously named Dhāt-ul-Qusur, "possessing palaces", and it is also said that Nu'aman is the name of a mountain overlooking it. Ibn Batutah, I. 144.

Irbil, a large city with a strong fortress, a dependency of Mausil, Long. 69:30, Lat. 30:8.—Arbila, now Erbil, Yāqut gives the Long. 69:30, Lat. 35:30, describes it as a large city with a strong fortress two days' march from Mausil of which it is a dependency. This name must be pronounced Irbil and not Arbil which he says is not admissible. (Ency. Islam, ii. 521-).

'Aānah, Mesopotamia, Long. 76'30, Lat. 34.

Madinah i Balad, Diyar Rabi'ah, Long. 76'40, Lat. 37'30.—A small town on the W. of the Tigris, 6 parasangs from Mausil, Abulf. It is commonly written Balad, simply,

- Mausil, Mesopotamia, Long. 76, Lat. 36-50.—Mosal in the maps.
- Arjish, Armenia, Long. 76, Lat. 38'30.—A fortress situated on the N. of the Lake of Van, identified with the ancient Arsene.
- Hadithah, on the Euphrates, Long. 77.20, Lat. 38.35.—There are two of the name (meaning New town), one in Mesopotamia below 'Aānah and another Mausil. The former is here meant. (It is marked in K. J.). The latter follows.
- Amid, Diyar Bakr, Long. 77'20, Lat. 36'12.—The present town of Diyar Bakr.
- Hadithah, on the Tigris, Long. 77-20, Lat. 86-15.
- Naushahr, Irāq, Long. 71'30, Lat. 36'35.—This is a Persian name, synonymous with *Hadithah* (Villeneuve), but I do not trace it in Abulf. or Yāqut.
- Tikrit, Mesopotamia, Long. 71'25, Lat. 34'30.
- Sāmarra, 'Irāq, Long. 79, Lat. 84.—Originally Surraman rān, viz., 'rejoiceth him that seeth it,' built by the Caliph Al Mu'atasim-billāhi in 218 A.H. (A.D. 833). See Jarrett's Hist. of the Caliphs (Siyuti) 330, for its origin.
- Salmās, Azarbijān, Long. 72, Lat. 37'40.—Situated on the extreme West of Azarbijān at 7 parasangs from Khowayy. Abulf.
- Khowayy, Azarbijān, Long. 79.42. Lat. 37.40.—12 parasangs N.W. of Marand, 21 miles from Salmās.
- Urmiyyah, Do., Long. 29.45, Lat. 37.—Or Urmiyah, on the borders of the lake of the same name.
- Irbil, capital of Shahrazur, Long. 78, Lat. 39'20.—Ency. Islam, ii. 521-523 (the name of many places in Mesopotamia). The district or hill country called by the geographers Jabal, is part of Persian 'Irāq, and according to Ibn Haukal is its distinguishing feature. The inhabitants are all Kurds. Shahrazur according to Yāqut is a large town in the mountains between Irbil and Hamadān, the chief of a cluster of towns and villages comprised under the same name. (See also Ibn Khaldun, De Slane I. 145).
- Marand, Azarbijān, Long. 80.43, Lat. 37.50.—N.E. of Tabriz, the ancient Maranda.
- Shahrazur, one of the towns of the Jabal, Long. 80°20, Lat. 35°30.

 —The town was named after Zur-b.-Zohāk who founded it. Yāqut.
- Ardabil, Azarbijān, Long. 80°30, Lat. 38.—Yāqut visited it in A.H. 617 (A.D. 1220) and remarks the extraordinary fact,

- that notwithstanding its good air and many streams, not a fruit tree was to be seen in or near it in the plain on which it stands. Fruit has to be brought from a day's journey the other side of the hills and no fruit tree will thrive there. According to the Qānun the Long. is 73.50, and the Atwal 72.30 and both make the Lat. 38.
- Aujān, Azarbijān, Long. 81-30, Lat. 37-20.—A small town of little importance, and little noticed by Abulf. In the Dict de la Perse it is said to have received from Ghazān Khan the name of "the City of Islam".
- Nakhchuwan, in Arran, Long. 81.45, Lat. 37.49.—Anciently Naxuana on the N. bank of Araxes. In Armenian tradition, it is connected with the first habitation of Noah and his landing from the ark. Geog. Dict.
- Kasr-Shirin, Azarbijān, Long. 81.50, Lat 36.40.—Near Qirmisin, between Hamadān and Hulwān on the Baghdad road. It was named after the beautiful Shirin wife or mistress of Khusrau Parwiz. The legend of its building is told by Yākut who says that this monarch was famed for three incomparable treasures, his horse Shabdiz, his mistress Shirin and his minstrei Balahbaz.
- Saimarah, in the Jabal district, Long. 81.50, Lat. 34.40.—See under Shahrazur for Jabal.
- Marāghah, Azarbijan, Long. 82, Lat. 37'20.—The old capital of Adharbāijān, (Ency. Islam, iii. 261-). The name of this town was originally Afrāz Haroz. The army of Marwān, Governor of Armenia and Azarbijān under Hishām the Umayyad Caliph here encamped in one of his expeditions. The stable litter of the cavalry and beasts of burden covered the plain and the animals constantly rolling themselves about in it (tamarrugh), it received the name of the "village of Maraghah" and subsequently Marāghah only), (Yāqut).
- Tabriz, Azarbijan, Long. 82, Lat. 37.—Tauris, the seat of the royal residence of the Tartar dynasty of Hulagu till its transfer to Sultaniyyah, the new capital founded by Khudabandah. Abulf. See its history in D'Herbelot.
- Ardabil, Azarbijān, Long. 82.25, Lat. 37.20.—A note to the text says that this name occurs twice in every MS, and that here Dabil in Armenia is probably meant. Abulfeda gives the

- Long. 72'40, Lat. 38 (Qānun) and Long. 70'20, Lat. 37'25 (Atwal) and calls it the capital of Interior Armenia.
- Mayānah, Azarbijān, Long. 82.30, Lat. 37.—Two days march from Marāghah, in K. J. Miana.
- Kirmisin, or Kirmān Shāh in the Jabal dist., Long. 83, Lat. 34'30.— Kermānshāh in K. J.
- Dainawar, Do., Long. 83, Lat. 35.—Ency. Islam, i. 976. "In the middle ages one of the most important towns of Jibāl (Media) now in ruins". Correct spelling Dinawar N.W. of Hamadān, near Kirmisin.
- Hamadān, Māh-ul-Basrah, Long. 83, Lat. 36.—Ency. Islam, ii. 241 under Hamadhān. Hamadān (or dān) with its districts formed what was called the Māh of Basrah, as Dinawar and its dist. formed the Māh of Kufah. The word Māh is derived from the same name as Media (Māda) according to Lagarde and Olshausen (Guyard II. II. p. 163, n.) and employed by geographers in the sense of province. Hamadān with Nahāwand and Qumm forms the Māh-ul-Basrah.
- Zanjān, Jabal dist., Long. 83, Lat, 36'30.—The most northern of the Jabal villages, on the borders of the Azarbijān.
- Muqān, borders of Arrān, Long. 83, Lat. 38.—Two marches distant from Derbend according to Ibn Haukal, but Abulfeda states that the town exists no longer and the name is applied to a tract of country bordering the Caspian, visited as winter quarters by Tartar hordes.
- Sohraward, Jabal dist., Long. 83.20, Lat. 36.—Near Zanjān, a little town inhabited by Kurds, Abulf.
- Nuhāwand, Māhul-Basrah, Jabal dist., Long. 83.15, Lat. 34.20.— Ency. Islam, iii. 911 under Nihhāwand, a town in the old province of Hamadhān, on the road from Kirmānsāh - [to Isfahān.] [J. S.]
- Bimānshahr, of Hamadān, Long. 84'30, Lat. 37'30.—A mere village. Abulf.. Ency. Islam, ii. 170 mentions a Bimashahr (not Bimanshahr) among the former most important places of Gilān.
- Burujird, Do., Long. 84'30, Lat. 36'20.—18 parasangs from Hamadan in the Jabal dist., produces saffron. Abulf.
- Abhar, Jabal dist., Long. 84'30, Lat. 36'55.—The text has incorrectly Ubhar. Yāqut correctly places it between Qazwin and Zanjān and Hamadān, the last forming the apex of the

- triangle of which the base is Qazwin and Zanjān, almost equally bisected by Abhar. Ency. Islam, i. 69.
- Kutam, Gilan, Long. 84'40, Lat. 37'20.—At one day's march from the sea, said to have been a considerable town, but it is not marked in the map. *Ency. Islam*, ii. 170 mentions it. [P. 41.]
- Karaj, Jabal dist., Long. 74.45, Lat. 34.—It is a town half way between Hamadan and Isfahan—called also Karaj-i-Abi Dulaf, having been founded by this general of the Caliph Al Mamun. Abulf. Yaqut.
- Sāwah, Do., Long. 85, Lat. 36'15.—Situate W. of Rayy, and S. of Tālaqān and 12 parasangs from Qumn.
- Qazwin, Do., Long. 85, Lat. 36:30.
- Sultāniyyah, Do., Long. 85, Lat. 36'30.—In Azarbijān. Its ruins are marked on K. J. It is immediately south of Zanjān, a town founded by Khudābandah son of Arghun, 12th of the llkhān dynasty. Ency. Islam, iv. 548.
- Abah or Awah, Jabal Dist., Long. 85:10, Lat. 34:40.—In K. J. Avah at the foot of the Karaghan Mts., 27 parasangs northeast of Hamadan.
- Qumn, Do., Long. 84'40, Lat. 34'45.—Kum in K. J. directly S. of Teherān. The inhabitants are all Shiahs and Yāqut amusingly describes the attempt of a Sunni Governor to find any one named Abu Bakr in the whole town. A wretched tatter-demalion was at length produced after a long search as the only specimen the climate could grow of that name. Ency. Islam, ii. 1117.
- Jarbādgan, Do., Long. 85'35, Lat. 34.—Between Karaj and Hamadān. There is another of the name between Astarābād and Jurjān.
- Kāshān, Do., Long. 86'12, Lat. 36.—A smaller town than Qumn and in its vicinity. Its houses mostly constructed of mud and their inhabitants Shiahs. Abulf. Ency. Islam, ii, 786.
- Natanz, Do., Long. 86:30, Lat. 38 13.—A small town 20 parasangs from Isfahan. Abulf.
- Dumbawand, Do., Long. 86'20, Lat. 35'35.—Demavend in K. J. It marks the frontier of Rayy. Ency. Islam, i. 937, under Demawend.
- Rayy, Do., Long. 86:20, Lat. 35:53.—The ancient Rhage, in Media. Ency. Islam, iii. 1105.

- Kālār, in Dailam, Long. 8.50; Lat. 36.35.—With Kālār is coupled in the text a corrupt name, perhaps, a misscript for Salous from which it is only a march distant. Kālār is a town S.E. of Lahajān, which is S.E. of Resht.
- Khuwar, Jabal dist., Long. 87:10, Lat. 35:40.—A dependency of Rayy between that town and Simnan.
- Tālaqān, Long. 85.45, Lat. 36.30.—Between Qazwin and Abhar, not to be confounded with the Tālaqān of Khurāsān.
- Hausam, Gilān, Long. 85'10, Lat. 37'10.—In the Jabal district beyond Tabaristān and Dailam is all the information in Yāgut.
- Dailaman (Isfahan) Yaqut describes it as one of the villages of Isfahan in the Jurjan territory.
- Dasht, Do. A village of the Isfahān district—also a small town in the mountains between Irbil and Tabriz populated by Kurds. Yāqut.
- Lahajān, Gilān, —Atwal, Long. 74, Lat. 36-15. The Safid Rud flows into the sea near Lahijan. Ency. Islam, ii. 170.
- Amul, Tabaristān, —Atwal, Long. 77-20, Lat. 36-35. Capital of Tabaristān.
- Dāmaghān, Qumis, —Atwal, Long. 78 55, Lat. 36 20. The largest of the towns in Qumis territory according to Ibn Haugal called by Yāqut.
- Simnān, Capital of Qumis, —Atwal, Long. 78. Lat. 36. Qānun Long. 79, Lat. 36.
- Biyār, Mazandaran, —A picturesque town between Baihaq and Bistām, two days' march from the latter. Dict. de la Perse.
- Sāri, Do., Long. 88, Lat. 37.—Also written and more commonly Sāriyah. Its derivation from Sari "Travelling by night" according to Yāqut, but the reason is not evident. It lies 3 parasangs from the sea and 18 from Amul.
- Bistām, Qumis, Long. 89:30, Lat. 36'10.—A town in Khurāsān, on the slopes of the Alburs mt. During the Khalifate it was the second city of the Qumis district (after the capital Damaghān). Famous for its apples and Saints' tombs. Ency. Islam, i. 733. (J. S.)

- Astarābād, Māzandarān, Long. 89.35, Lat. 36.50.
- Jurjan, Capital of its province, Long. 90, Lat. 36:50.—Its ruins alone are marked in K. J. Ency. Islam, i. 1065, modern Persian Gurgān, the ancient Hyrcania.
- Furāwah, Khurāsān, Long. 90, Lat. 39.—On the frontier of Khwārizm; it is called Ribāt Furāwah, a fort constructed by Abdu'llah b. Tāhir in the Caliphate of Mamun. Abulf.
- Sabzawār, —Long. 91'30, Lat. 36'15. The chief town of the canton of Baihaq a position previously held by the town of Khusraujird.
- Isfarāin or Mihrjān, Khurāsān, Long. 91.40, Lat. 36.55.—In the environs of Naisābur half way to Jurjān. The name of Mihrjān is said to have been given to it by Khusrau Kubād, father of Nushirwān, on account of the beauty of its climate and the freshness of its air. (Abulf.). Abu'l Qāsim al Baihaqi according to Yāqut, says that the ancient form of the name was Isbarain, from isbar, a buckler, and 'Ain custom, on account of the traditional usage of this weapon of defence from the time of Isfandiyār.
- Abaskun, Māzandarān, Long. 89.55, Lat. 37-10.—The text has Abisgun, situated on the borders of the Caspian; 24 parasangs from Jurjān. Ency. Islam, i. 6.
- Mazinān, frontier of Khurāsān, Long. 90;35, Lat. 36.—On the extreme frontier of Khurāsān bordering on Irāq.
- Turshiz, Long. 90.15, Lat. 35.—Ency. Islam, 1v. 974. The text has turned the Lon. into a series of 3 figures and marked the town as unknown. A reference to Yāqut would have shown that Turshish or Turaithith, celebrated for its savants and devotees, is a town and district dependent on Naisābur. The Persian orthography of the name is correctly represented in the text, (v. Dict. de la Perse, 390 n.). In the Zinat-ul Majālis, it is said that in one of its boroughs called Kashmir, is a cypress celebrated for its beauty and height and said to have been planted by Gushtāsp the sage, and alluded to by Firdausi in his Shāh Nāmah, (Mohl. t. IV, p. 364). It was uprooted by the order, it is said, of the Abbaside Mutawakkil, who was certainly capable of the barbarity.
- Naishābur, one of the chief cities of Khurāsān, Long. 92:30, Lat. 36:20.—Yāgut writes Naisabur—vulg. Nashāur.
- Tus, Khurāsān, Long. 92'30, Lat. 34'20,

- Mashhad, it adjoins Nuqān, Long. 92:33, Lat. 34:29.—Ency. Islam, iii. 467. Known as Meshed. It stands on the ruins of Nauqān and takes its name from the Mausoleum (Mashhad) of Ali, son of Musa-ar-Ridha, and is too well-known for description.
- Tun, Long. 92'30, Lat. 34'30.—Town of Kohistan near Qain. Dict. de la Perse.
- Nuqān, not the Nauqān of Mashhad, Long. 92, Lat. 38.—This must be the Nuqān in the environs of Naisābur.
- Qāin, Khurāsān, Long. 93.20, Lat. 37.30.—The capital of Kohistān. Kayn in K.J.
- Zuzan, Kohistän, Long. 93:30, Lat. 35:20.—Between Herat and Naisäbur.
- Buzjān, Khurāsān, Long. 94, Lat. 36.—A small town 4 marches from Naisābur.
- Marw, Shāhjahān, Do., Long. 94'20, Lat. 37'40.—Ency. Islam, Suppl: 146-149, (where Shāhjahān is shown as a mistake for al-Shāhijān).
- Herāt, Khurāsān, Long. 94.20, Lat. 34.30.
- Sarakhs Do. Long. 94-30, Lat. 37-8.
- Bādaghis Do. Long. 94 30, Lat. 34 20.—A dependency of Herāt, the chief town or towns of the canton being Bamun and Baun that adjoin each other.
- Marw-ar-Rud, known as Murghāb, Long. 94, Lat. 36'30.—The word signifies a white flint that gives fire, and rud is a stream, (the Murghāb). The town is 4 days' march (Abulf.) says five) from its more celebrated namesake. The relative adjective of this name is Marwarudi, and that of the other is Marwazi, to distinguish them.
- Mālin, of Herāt, Long. 94.30, Lat. 34.35.—Name of a cluster of villages at 2 parasangs from Herāt, and called at Herāt, Mālān (Yāqut.)
- Bushang, Long. 95.40, Lat. 36.3.—Bushanj in Yāqut, a picturesque town, 10 parasangs from Herāt. According to the Dict. de la Perse, the Persian name is Fushanj deriving its origin from the son of Afrasiāb. Ency. Islam, i. 802. under Bushandj ("or Fushandj"), a town south of the Hari Rud below Herāt, a day's journey from that city.
- Baghshur, Khurāsān, Long. 96.25, Lat. 36.—A small town between Herāt and Marw-ar-Rud. Yāqut passed by this in A.H. 616 and it was then nearly in ruins. The name of Bagh is also

- given to this town and the relative adjective Baghawi formed from it, not quite according to grammatical rule. Yaqut.
- Qarinain, Marw Shahjahan, Long. 97.25, Lat. 36.55.—Situated on the Marw river, formerly called Barkadir, but changed to Qarinain, (dual of *Qarin*, the two neighbours) because it was joined to Marw-ar-Rud from which it is 4 marches distant.
- Dandānqān, Do. Long. 97.30, Lat. 37.—A small locality two marches from Marw in the Sarakhs direction. Its cotton is said to be of excellent quality and it produces silk.
- Sharmaqan, Long. 104, Lat. 36'41.—By the Persians called Jarmaqan, a small town in the Isfahan dist. four marches from Naisabur, in the Khurasan hills.
- Tālaqān, Khurāsān, Long. 98, Lat. 36'30.—Not to be confounded with the Tālaqān between Qazwin and Abhar in the Jabal dist. This one is said by Yāqut to lie between Balkh and Marw-ar-Rud, at three days' march from the latter. It is not marked in the maps. Another Tālaqān is in Badakshān near Qunduz below the spurs of the Hindu Kush.
- Fāryāb, Long. 99, Lat. 36'45.—The text omits the tens in the min. of Lon. but similar errors are almost too numerous to notice. Fāryāb is a well-known town of Jarjan, 6 marches from Balkh, 3 from Shubrukān and 3 from Tālaqān. Zahir Fāryābi was from this town.
- Balkh, capital of Khurāsān, Long. 101'40, Lat. 36'41.
- Bāmiān, Zābulistān, Long. 102, Lat. 34'35.
- Halāward, Long. 101'40, Lat. 37'30.—A town of Khuttal, a province of Khurāsān in Transoxiana of which the chief towns are this and Lāwakand. Khuttal is comprised between the Waksh Badakhshān rivers.
- Balāsāghun, Long. 101 30, Lat. 37:40.—This is placed by Abulf. in the 7th Climate. A frontier town of Turkestan across the Jaxartes, near Kāshghar, (Abulf.) in whose times it was in the hands of the Tartars. De Guignes, speaks of Malikshāh, son of Alp Arslān, in 1089, as taking Samarqand and passing on to Ouzkend. compelling the king of Kāshghar to read the Khutba and mint the coin in his name and forcing tribute from the princes of Taraz, Balasgoun and Isfijāb.
- Siminjan, Tukharistan, Long. 102, Lat. 36.—A small locality in Tukharistan wedged in it between Balkh and Baghlan in the defiles, inhabited by a branch of the Bani Tamim. It is 2 13

marches from Balkh to Khulm and 5 on to Anderabah by Siminjān. Yāgut.

Qubādiān, territory of Balkh, Long. 102, Lat. 37'45.—A pleasant spot full of orchards, Abulf.; the town and district are marked in the survey map, across the Oxus directly N. of Khulm.

Walwālij, in Tukhāristān, Long. 102.20, Lat. 36.—The capital of Tukhāristān according to Abulf. which was anciently the kingdom of the Ephthalites (Hayatilah), 4 parasangs from Tāikān.

Saghānyān, Transoxiana, Long. 102'40, Lat. 38'50.—Pronounced Jaghānyān in Persian; the name of the town is extended to the country about it, larger than Tirmiz but not so rich or populous. Abulf.

Taiqan, Tukharistan, Long. 102.50, Lat. 37.25.—In the environs of Balkh. It is separated by a distance of 7 parasangs from Khurtal. Abulf.

Anderab, Khurasan, Long. 103'45, Lat. 36.—Between Ghaznah and Balkh, the road by which caravans enter Kabul. Adjacent is the mountain of Panjhir with its mines of silver.

Badakshān, Long. 104'40, Lat. 37'20.

Kabul, Long. 104'40, Lat. 34'30,

Banjhir, Kābulistān, Long. 104'40, Lat. 34'30.—Properly Panjhir, Yāgut, see Vol. 11.

Lamghan, Do., Long. 104.50, Lat. 34.3.

Karwez, Badakshān, Long. 105.20, Lat. 36.—The text is corrupt and the place unknown. Gladwin writes Gardiz, but this Tumān is S. of Kābul and S.E. of Ghazni. I would propose Kunduz. [H. S. J.] I cannot accept Qunduz (Ency. Islam, ii. 1117), "a town and district in N. Afghanistan, bounded by Badakshān, Tash Kurghān, the Oxus and the Hindu Kush. The town is the trade centre of a considerable district which produces the best horses in Afghanistan." The place seems to be Karzwān, close to Gharjistān in Afghan Turkestān, as given in A. Hamid Lahori's Pādishāh-nāmah, ii. 622. [J. S.]

Jirm, Badakshān, Long. 104'20, Lat. 36.—Ency. Islam, i. 552, "the frontier town of Islam, on the trade route via Wakhān to Tibet." (J. S.)

Kishmar, Long. 93'40, Lat. 36'15.—I read saj for Sah of the text for deg. of Long. and yh for min. of Lat. These alterations which the similarity of the letters and the constant inaccuracies

of the text justify, will bring this town approximately to the location of Tarshiz (p. 86) of which it is a neighbour. (H. S. J.) Turshiz in Ency. Islam, iv. 974, the capital of the district of Busht in the province of Nishābur. In the vicinity was the village of Kishmar, where according to tradition. Zoroster planted a cypress tree. (). S.)

Source of the Mihran (Indus), Long. 125, Lat. 36.

Sarfatain, —From this name to the end, the degrees of Long. and Lat. do not occur in the principal MSS. Many of the names are repetitions of those preceding and very corrupt.

Jisr, —A place near Hirah, the scene of a battle between the Persians and the Arabs in A.H. 13, in which the latter were defeated. The word signifies a bridge, which was thrown across the Euphrates by which the Arabs advanced to the attack. Yāqut. Ency. Islam, under Djism.

Harran, - Preceded.

Oarādah,

Fărhân,

Malan?

Abrakhis?

Audmiyyah?

Qarmāsin, - Preceded as Qirmisin.

Dauraq,—This is mentioned by Abulf. as a dependency of Khuzistān, 10 parasangs from Bāsyān and 18 from Arrajān, in the 3rd Climate.

Diyar Bakr, - Preceded.

Qarinain, -Do.

Ninawa, Nineveh, the lat. of this place is the same as Mausil, which it faces on the opposite bank of the Tigris, Lat. 36'30, Long. 6/. Abulf.

Palangān?

Qaisar, Atwal, Long. 60. Lat 40. Qaisariyyah in Asia Minor, capital of the Ottoman Sultans, concurrently or alternately with Iconium. Abulf. Ency. Islam, ii. 660-661.

Bijāyah, Mauritania, . . . —Placed by Yāqut on the sea-shore on the borders of Africa proper and the Maghrib or N.W. Africa, three days' journey from Milah. It is the modern Bougie. Ency. Islam, i. 766.

Balansia, — Valencia, Long. 20. Lat. 38:6 Abulf.

Sāmus, - Samos, preceded, as Shāmus.

Ayās, —Do.

- Irqah, Syrian coast, Erek, Long. 60:15, Lat. 34, a small town defended by a citadel, 12 miles S. of Tripoli, a parasang from the sea, the most northern part of the Damascus territory.
- Raqbah?....—(Is it a mistake for Raqqa, the capital of Diyār Mudar on the left bank of the Euphrates, anciently called Kallinikos? Encu. Islam. iii. 1108. J. S.)
- Sahyun, Qinnasrin, —Long. 60·10, Lat. 35·10, celebrated as one of the strongest fortresses of Syria, W. of Laodicea (Lādikiyeh) and one march from it (Abulf.). It is Sajun in K. J.
- Hārim, of Aleppo, —Long. 60'30, Lat. 35 50, a small town 2 marches W. of Aleppo, and one from Antioch, Abulf. It is marked in K. J.
- Fāmyah, (Apamea), —Long. 61'8, Lat. 35, district of Shaizar, pronounced also with a prosthetic Alif. Another Fāmyah, a town situate on the Famu-s-Silh near Wāsit, Abulf.
- Shaizar, Has preceded. [P. 43]
- Hamāt, Syria, —On the Orontes between Emessa and Qinnasrin, Long. 61.55, Lat. 34.45 (Abulf.) Epiphaneia; the location of Ptolemy is Long. 69.36, Lat. 30.26. It is supposed to be identical with Hamath (2, Sam. viii, 9, Kings, viii, 65. Is x, 9) called also Hamath the Great. It was called Hamath in St. Jerome's day (see Smith Geog. Dist.) Abulf. says it is remarkable like Shaizar for the quantity of its norias [bucket water wheels] even among the Syrian cities.
- Marash, a fortress of Syria, . . . —Atwal, Long. 61, Lat. 36'30. One of the two fortresses, the other Hadath, on the Syrian frontier. They were both captured by Khālid, A.H. 15, Marash dismantled and its inhabitants driven out. Abdulf. Annals, I. 227. De Sacy in his Chrest. Arab, says, that its ancient name was Germanicia corrupted by the Syrians into Baniki, I. 130.
- Aintāb, dependency of Qinnasrin, —Long. 62'30, Lat. 36'30. It is 3 marches N. of Aleppo, and at no great distance is the ruined fortress of Doluk, which name frequently recurs in the history of the wars between Saladin and Nur-u'ddin. Doluk or Delouc as he writes it, De Sacy identifies with the ancient Doliche, (Chrest. Arab, III. 109), but this name was

applied (Doliche or Dolichiste, a long island) to the present Kakava S. of Lycia by Ptolemy, Pliny and Alexander in his Periplus of Lycia. There is no other Doliche mentioned in the Geog. Dict.

- Hisn Kaifa, island in the Euphrates, —It is a town and fortress of considerable size, overlooking the Tigris between Amid and the Jazirat-i Ibn Omar of Diyār Bakr. Yāqut says the river there is crossed by a bridge, the largest he had ever seen of a single span, flanked by two smaller ones. Amid is now Diyār Bakr. The location in the text is strangely in error. It is marked in K. J. as Hosn Kefa.
- Siirt, Diyar Rabi'ah, —Long. 68, Lat. 37'20, a town situate on a hill N.E. of the Tigris, one day's march and a half from Mayyafariqin, and 4 from Amid, to the south of which Siirt stands. Abulf.
- Hisnu-t-Tāq, Sijistān, —Long. 80 30. Lat. 34 40. a fortress on a high mountain near an elbow formed by the Helmand in Sijistān. Abulf.

Jawain, The district dependent on Naisabur of which Azadhwar is the chief town. It is called by the Persians Kowan or Gowan, Abulf. II. II. 191.

Maru? (? Merv).

Karaj i Abi Dulaf. -- Has preceded.

Nasā, Khurāsān, --Long. 82'8, Lat. 36, in Khurāsān on the confines of the desert, 57 parasangs N. of Sarakhs. Yāqut gives the origin of its name from the abandonment of the town by the male population on the advance of the Muhammadans. Seeing no men, but only women, they exclaimed. "These are women, let us go and fight elsewhere." and the name Nisā or Nasa was thus commemorated. He places it at 2 days' journey from Sarakhs; 5 from Marw; 1 from Abivard and 6 or 7 from Naisābur.

- Abiward, Khurāsān, Abivard in K. J.
- Shahristān, frontiers of Khurāsān, This is another name for Isfahān, which followed the ancient name of Jayy. It fell into ruin and was replaced by Yahudiyyah, a mile distant from Shahristān and two from Jayy. The name of Yahudiyyah arose from the tradition that Nabuchadnezzar, after the destruction of Jerusalem transported its inhabitants to Isfahān. Jayy-Isfahan fell into decay, but the Jewish quarter prospered. This tradition according to Guyard is to be found in the Talmud, v. Abulf. II. II. 160. There is a long article in Yāqut on this city.
- Iskalkand, Takhāristān, —Atwal Long. 92.20, Lat. 36.30.

 A small town of Takhāristān. The prosthetic alif is sometimes dropped and the word pronounced without it. Abulf.
- Fārabr or Firabr, on the Oxus, —Atwal Long. 87:30, Lat. 38:45. On the Oxus towards Bokhara. Abulf. According to Yāqut, it is a small town between the Oxus and Bokhara, and one parasang from the river; formerly called Ribāt Tāhir b. 'Ali.

Farmyab?.....

- Tamghāj, —This is the name of Northern China. Abulf., II, III, 230 n. According to D'Herbelot, Tangag or Tamgaz (his transliteration of names defied even the penetration of Gibbon) is the name of a race of Turks or Turkomans, the same nation as the Gaz., who took prisoner Sultan Sanjar the Seliuk.
- Khuttlān, Transoxiana, —The name of a group of places beyond Balkh, a district distinct from Waksh, but under one and the same government. Its capitals are Halāward and Lāwakand, Abulf. II. II. 228. It has been previously mentioned.
- Waksh, Do., . . . —Atwal Long. 90'30, Lat. 38'20, a town of the Saghāriyān dist. in Transoxiana.
- Shuman, in Saghanyan, —Abulf. of this latter mention has been made.
- Maimanah and Chikhtu . . . —Abd. Hamid Lahori in his Pādishāhnāmah, ii. 622 gives Maimanah and Chichaktu as close to Gharjistan and Karzwān, in Afghan Turkestān. For Ghardjistān, Ency. Islam, ii. 141. [J. S.] 'The text baffled Jarrett.

THE 5TH CLIMATE.

- Ushbunah, Spanish Peninsula, Long. 36'45, Lat. 42'40.—Also called Lashbunah. Lisbon.
- Shantarin, Do., Long. 18'10, Lat. 42'45.—Ancient Scalabis, now Santarem. After the fall of the empire, it received the name of St. Irene, from St. Iria, who there suffered martyrdom. Reinaud.
- Centre of the Isle of Cadiz, Long. 21.2, Lat. 48.50.
- Madinah i Walid, Do., Long. 21.52, Lat. 29.20,-Valladolid.
- Mursyah, Do., Long. 28, Lat. 43.—Murcia.
- Madinah i Sālem, Do., Long. 29.10, Lat. 39.20.—Medina Celi.
- Dānya, Spain, Long. 31'30, Lat. 41'30.—Denia, anciently Dianium or Artemisium from a temple of Diana that stood on a lofty promontory of the E. coast of Hispania Tarraconensis.
- Tutelah, East, Do., Long. 30'30, Lat. 43'55.—Tudela.
- Saraqustah, Do., Do., Long 31'30, Lat. 42'30,—Saragossa, Cæsar Augusta.
- Turtushah, Do., Do., Long. 31'30, Lat. 40.—Tortosa, Colonia Julia Augusta Dertosa.
- Jazirah-i-Mayurgah, Mediterranean, Long. 34·10, Lat. 39·40.— Majorca, see p. 77, a different location given.
- Haikal, known as Haikal-i-Zuhrah (Temple of Venus) N. Spain, Long. 34, Lat. 43.—Port Vendres, Templum Veneris,
- Barshalonāh, country of the Franks, Long. 34'30, Lat. 42.—Barcelona, ancient Barcino, traditionally founded by Hercules and rebuilt by Hamiltan Barcus who gave it the name of his family, G. D. Smith.
- Arbunsh, Spain or heyond it, Long. 36'15, Lat. 43.—Not Urbunah as in the text, but Narbo Martins, the Roman colony was founded in B.C. 118, D. E. The Arab geographers are divided as to its position whether in Spain or beyond it.
- Tarraqunah, country of the Franks, Long 33, Lat. 43'22.—Tarragona, Tarraco, a Phœnician colony, its name Tarchon said to mean a citadel, probably derived from its situation on a high rock above the sea, v. Geog. Dict.
- Jenua, in Frankish territory, Long. 41, Lat. 41 20.—Anciently Genua, the orthography Janua to support the tradition of its foundation by Janus has no authority.
- Rumiyah, city of the Pope, Long. 33, Lat. 41.21.
- Rabusah?.....

- Madinah i Tabarqah, Long. 55'12, Lat. 48'15.—On the Mauritanian coast, E. of Bona but this lat. does not harmonize with previous latitudes in Mauritania. Yāqut gives but one town of Tabbarkah and places it with accuracy near Beja and to the east of the town are the castles Benzert (Biserta).
- Jazirah i ? Long. 58:50, Lat. 42:15.—The word is not pointed in the original and no indication is given.

Jazirah i, Sabālyā? Long. 55.15, Lat. 48.15.

Mansalya, Long. 45'30, Lat. 45'1.

Middle of the Pontus Euxinus, Long. 35:15, Lat. 46:5.

'Ayun Asfaras, Long. 36'45, Lat. 48'32.—I have little doubt that for Asfaras should be read Bosporus and the waters of this channel are here intended. The origin of the Thracian Bosporus attracted attention from the earliest times and it was the received opinion that the union of the Euxine and the Mediterranean was effected by a violent disruption of the continent in the deluge of Deucalion, v. G. D. Smith.

. The name in the text is without vowel points.

Magābiz Borystānes, —I do not hesitate in the emdendation Borysthenes (Dnieper) and the mouths of the river are here intended. There may be ingenuity, but there is no profit in the discovery; the whole list of Abul Fazl is the work of a scribe, not of a geographer. [P. 44]

Middle of Manus? Marmaros?

The extreme of the Yarqāhi territory?

?.... The name is unpointed. Perhaps Istros.

Mouths of the Tanais, -The Don.

- Mauza' Barnyā Nitas, —The second word is a corruption of *Palus Mæotis*, which occurs in Abulfeda in another similar form, as *Manitasch*, II, II, 143.
- 'Alāya, in Rum (Asia Minor), Long. 62 Lat. 39.30.—The ancient Coracesium, the boundary between Pamphylia and Cilcia, v. Ibn Batutah, II, 255.
- 'Ammuriyyah, Asia Minor, Long. 64, Lat. 43.—The ancient Amorium.
- Akuryah, called also Anqarah, Do., Long. 64'40, Lat. 41'45.—In Abulf. Ankuryah. Now Ankara.
- Maqedunyah, prov. of Constantinople, Long. 60.55, Lat. 41,—Macedonia.

- Aqshahr, Asia Minor, Long. 65, Lat., 41.40.—The White City, 3-days' march, N.W. of Iconium.
- Qunyah, Do., Long. 66'30, Lat. 41'40.—Iconium.
- Qaisariyyah, Do., Long. 60, Lat. 15'40.—Cæsarea, originally Mazaca, afterwards Eusebeia, the residence of the kings of Cappadocia. The name was changed to Cæsarea by Tiberius. G. D.
- Aqsarāi, Do., Long. 67.45, Lat. 40.—The White Palace, the ancient Archelais.
- Siwās, Do., Long. 71.30, Lat. 40.10.—Sebasteia on the Halys; Pompey increased the town and gave it the name of Megalopolis; it was made the capital of Armenia Minor.
- Tarābazun, Long. 78, Lat. 43.—Trebizonde. Anciently Trapezus, named probably from its situation on a table-land above the sea. Its annals are of historical interest from the time of Xenophon's retreat to its fall under Mahomed II in 1460.
- Shimshat, Long. 73.15, Lat. 40.—Samosata, the birth-place of Lucian. Its situation on the Euphrates gave it, great strategical importance and it was seized by Vespasian when Antiochus, king of Commagene, meditated an alliance with the Parthians to throw off the yoke of Rome. It contained the royal residence.
- Malazjird, Armenia, Long. 75, Lat. 39'30.—A small town near Arzun and N. of Bidlis. Abulf.
- Akhlät, Do., Long. 75.50, Lat. 39.20.—Now Aklat on Lake Van.
- Bābu'l Hadid, Long. 76, Lat. 41.—Darband or the famous Iron Gates called the Gate of Gates, Bābu'l Abwāb. Ency. Islam, i. 940 under Derbend.
- Arzanjan, Long. 73, Lat. 39:50. In Armenia, between Siwas and Erzeroum at 40 parasangs from either. Abulf.
- Arzan-ur-Rum, Armenia, Long. 76, Lat. 39-55.—Erzeroum.
- Bard'ah, in Arran, . . . Long. 83, Lat. 40'30.—The capital of Arran at the extreme of Azarbijān, nearly in ruins in Abulfeda's time. [Arran means al-Ran or Albania, a province between Shirwān and Ajarbaijān. Here the town of Partav was called by the Arabs Bardha'a while Kawalak (Pliny's Cabalaca) called by the Arabs Qabala, was the largest town in Caucasia. Ency. Islam, i. 460. J. S.]
- Shamkur, Do., Long. 83, Lat. 41'50.—A fortress near Bard'ah, Khankarah? Long. 83, Lat. 38'40.

Arzandrum, Long. 79, Lat. 41.15.—Marked doubtful in the text, but it is evidently a replica of Arzan-ur-Rum, by an ignorant copyist

Taflis, Garjistan, Long. 83, Lat. 43.—Tiflis, or Taflis (Yāqut permits either vowel), capital of Georgia.

Bailaqan, Arran, Long. 83'30, Lat. 39'50.—Situate in the defile of Khazaran, near Shirwan, six parasangs from Warthan.

Bākuyah, Shirwān, Long. 84'30, Lat. 40'50.—Bāku.

Shamākhi, Do., Long. 84.30, Lat. 40.50.—Now Shemākha in K. J.

Rumiya Kubra, Long. 85, Lat. 41.50.—This must be Medāin Kisra, which has already preceded in the 3rd Climate, but with a different location. The practical use of these tables is not very evident. *Madāin*, the ancient Ctesiphon had many names. Its name signifies 'Cities' and was formed of the union of seven, namely, Asfāpur (Jundisabur), Darzindān, Weh Jundikhusrau (Arab Rumiyah) and Nuniābād. Guyard. II, II, 76.

Bābu l Abwab, Arran, Long. 89, Lat. 43.—This is the same as the Bābu-l Hadid or Darband. The difference in Long. is no doubt caused by the change in the 1st Long. and probably an error in the units both in the Long. and Lat.

Jazirah i Siāh Koh, in the Caspian, Long. 89, Lat. 43'30.—The Siāh Koh or Black mountain appears from the indications in Ibn Khaldun, (Proleg. I. 152, De Slane) to be the Caucasus. Abulf. places this island in the 6th Climate and this mountain in an island on the Caspian, and states that it is a range of mountain to the E. of the Caspian and circling round it to Darband. The eastern chain is called the Caucasus by Arrian V.

Hashtar Khān - Astrakhan.

Agharjah - Probably Georgia.

Kāth, Khwārizm, Long. 95. Lat. 41'36.—On the E. of Oxus, a large town according to Yāqut, most of the Khwārizm territory lying to the W. It is 20 parasangs from Kurkanj. Its meaning in the Khwarizm tongue is a wall or enclosure in an open plain which is comprised within no other surrounding.

Kurkānj Sughra, Do., Long. 94, Lat. 42'30.—So in the MSS. but changed to Gurganj by the editor. Yāqut confirms the orthography of the text. Ency. Islam, ii. 183 has Gurgandj, "a town in the northern part of Khwārizm". There are two

- of the name, Kurkanj the Great, capital of Khwārizm (now Khiva) and Kurkanj the Less at 10 miles distance. The Persian form is Gurganj, the Arabic Jurjaniyyah. In 1216 it was a flourishing and populous town. Abulf.
- Jurjāniyyah, Do., Long. 94, Lat. 42:45.—See note above. The labours of Abul Fazl were confined to transcribing without investigation. See Ency. Islam, ii. 183, under Gurgandj.
- Kurkanj. the Great, capital of Khwarizm, Long. 94:30, Lat. 42:17.— The deg. of Lat. in the last 3 names are incorrect. Similar gross errors which give impossible figures are frequent.
- Hāzārāsb, Do., Long. 95'20, Lat. 41'10.—A strong citadel on the W. of the Oxus, 6 parasangs from Kāth, Abulf.
- Lamakshar, Do., Long. 94'30, Lat. 4.—A large village in which the famous commentator of the Qurān Abu'l Qāsim Mahmudaz-Zamakhshari was a native.
- Darghān, Transoxiana, Long. 96, Lat. 40°30.—Marks the frontier of Khwārizm towards Marw, 24 parasangs from Hāzārāsb.
- Bukhārā, one of the chief cities of Transoxiana, Long. 97:30, Lat. 39:30.—Ency. Islam, i. 776-783.
- Baikand, a dependency of Bukhara now in ruins, Long. 97:30, Lat. 39.
- Tāwawis, dependency of Bukhara, Long. 97:40, Lat. 39.—Seven parasangs from Bukhārā.
- Jand, Turkistan, Long. 97:45, Lat. 43:30.—Placed by Abulf. in the 6th Climate. It is on the Jaxartes on the frontier of Turkistan, close to Yenghi-kent.
- Nakhshab, called Nasf, Long 98, Lat. 39.—The former is the indigenous, the latter the Arab form of the name. A town in the plain, 2 marches from the mountains towards Kash and a desert intervenes between it and the Oxus.
- Samarqand, one of the cities of Transoxiana, Long. 99, Lat. 40.— Its position is defined in detail by Ibn Haukal. Ouseley, 260.
- I'laq. Bukhara, Long. 99'10, Lat. 43'20.—Ilaq forms a district of Shash extending from Naubakht to Farghanah, according to Yaqut, and the town of the name in the environs of Bukhara. Abulfeda makes it almost coextensive if not identical with Shash and its chief town Tunkat. I believe the word to signify summer station, in opp. to Qishlaq, winter station.
- Kash, or Shahr-Sabz, Badakhshān, Long. 99'30, Lat. 39'30.—Yāqut places it near Nakhshab. Its situation is given by Ibn

- Haukal. It is well-known by its name of Shahr i Sabz and lies directly S. of Samarqand. Ency. Islam, ii. 786.
- Zāmin, dependency of Usrushnah, Long. 92'40, Lat. 40'30.—Pronounced also *Zamij*, on the Farghānah road to Soghd, a small locality in the environs of Samarqand, Abulf.
- Isfijāb, of Shāsh, Long. 92.50, Lat. 43.35.—On the Turkestan frontier.
- Usrushnah, a chief city of Transoxiana, Long. 100, Lat. 41.—Beyond Samarqand on the Jaxartes. Yāqut mentions it as a town which Istakhri denies, allowing it to be applied only to the territory. It is bounded on the E. by Farghānah, W. by Samarqand, N. by Shāsh, Abulf.
- Shāwakath, of Shash, Long. 100'30, Lat. 41'10.—No further notice in the geographers than the text affords.
- Usbānikath, territory of Isfijāb, Long. 100'30, Lat. 40.—At one march distance from Isfijāb, 9 parasangs E. of Usrushnah.
- Khojand, on the Jaxartes, Long. 100 35, Lat. 41 25.—7 marches to Samargand and 4 to Shash, Abulf.
- Khawaqand, of Farghanah, Long. 100'50, Lat. 62.—Or Khakand, vulgarly, Khokand.
- Tunkat, a capital of Täshkand, Long. 101, Lat. 43.—Capital of l'läq, beyond the Jaxartes. Ibn Haukal says he had heard it pronounced also with the long a; Yaqut writes Tankut. It is marked in K. J.
- Tirmidh, on the Oxus, Long. 101-15, Lat. 37-35.—The birth-place of the great Traditionist al-Tirmidhi.
- Akhsikat, capital of Farghanah, Long. 10120, Lat. 6225.—Situate on the bank of the Jaxartes. It is mentioned by Baber in his *Memoirs*, as the strongest town in Parghanah.
- Kāsān, a town beyond Shāsh, Long. 101:35. Lat. 62:15.—This district is described by Baber. Memoirs. In consequence of its gardens being sheltered along the banks of the stream, it was called "the mantle of five lambskins".
- Qubă, Farghānah, Long. 101.50, Lat. 42.50.—A large town of Farghānah. It is the next largest to Akhsikat; the citadel in ruins. Abulf.
- Farghanah, Long. 102, Lat. 62:20.-Now Khokand.
- Rus, Long. 102:20. Lat. 43:20.—To what part of Russia this refers there is no indication. Abulf. has a town 'Roussye' (Reinaud), its capital, but in the 7th Climate, Long. 57:32, Lat. 56.

Khotan, Long. 107. Lat. 40.—Extreme of Turkistän, celebrated for its musk, beyond Yuzkand and cis Kashghar. Abulf.

Chāch, or Shāsh, Long. 109, Lat. 42:30.

Tibbet, Long. 110, Lat. 40.

Khāju, N. of China, Long. 123.32, Lat. 42.—Caiyon of Marco Polo. Kwatcheou. (Guyard). Abulf. places it 15 days' journey from Pekin, between Khatā (N. China) and Kaoli, province contiguous to the Corea.

Sankju, Do., Long. 107, Lat. 40.—Sou-tcheou.

Sakhas? Long. 130, Lat. 29-10.

Mahri, of Khata, Long. 140, Lat. 30.—Khata is N. China. I do not trace the name in Abulf., but Khuta, according to Yaqut is a town near Darband.

Nashawa or Nakjowan, in Arrān, Long. 101'30, Lat. 39.—Ancient Nuxuana, on the W. bank of the Araxes, already preceded in 4th Climate with a different location.

Kushānyah, in Soghd of Samarqand, Long. 98'20, Lat. 39'50.—The Kushān country is identified by M. St. Martin with Bactriana. Hist. du Bas Empire, III, 386 (Reinaud).

Yuman? -Yunan?

Shahar Nahās? — City of brass!

Rakkan?

Kabs?

Abrug. On this city Yaqut says 'It is a locality in the Bilad-ur-Rum, (Asia Minor), visited from distant parts by both Moslems and Christians. Abu Bakr al-Harawi who saw it, says that it is situated at the foot of a mountain, the entrance to it being through the gate of a fort. A subterranean passage leads to a wide space in the side of a hill with an aperture to the sky. In the middle is a pool round which are houses or chambers for the peasantry, whose fields are without. A church and a masjid are hard by for the needs of both religions. In the Crypt are several dead men with marks of spear and sword wounds, the bodies dressed in cotton garments. In another spot four bodies are buried with their backs against the wall and with them a boy whose hand is on the head of a very tall man, the face of the latter is sallow, the palm of the hand open as if he were about to take the hand of another, and the head of the boy leaning on his breast. By his side is a man with his upper lip cut

open, showing his teeth. They all wear turbans. The body of a woman suckling her child is near. Five other bodies are standing with their backs against a wall, and apart on an eminence is a couch on which are 12 men and a boy. whose hands and feet are stained with hinna. The Greeks claim them as their own people but the Muhammadans say that they are Muslims, slain in the wars of Omar b-ul Khattab. Some pretend that their nails have grown long and that their heads are shaven. This is not the case, but their skins have dried and shrivelled on their bones without other alteration." I suppose this to be Prusa ad Olympium in Bythinia, the modern Brusa, but the history of this town affords no clue to the above narrative and Ibn Batutah, who describes it under the name of Barsi, (II. p. 321) makes no mention of a curiosity which would scarcely have escaped his notice. [Jarrett] Brusa, Ency. Islam, i. 768. []. S.]

Bastah, dependency of Jaen in Spain, - Baeza. Kubā?..... Saksin, The author of the Kitab-ul-Atwal mentions a town called Sagsin, Long. 162.30, Lat. 40.50. The people meant were the Saxons or Goths who shared the possession of the Tauric regions with the Khozas. Reinaud refers to M. d'Ohsson's Hist. of the Mongols for Sacsin, v. II. I. 286. Ency. Islam, iv. 82 (discussed). Khuttlan, - Has preceded. Mikhlat? Rum. Shāmas. The island of Samos, has preceded. Sintarah, West, Thus in the MSS. but changed by the Editor to Santrivyah. The former signifies Cintra, of which the pronunciation on the middle age was Syntria. (Renaud, II. 244). There is also a Santriyyah to the W. of Favvum, which cannot here be meant. Oabrah, Spain, - Cabra in Andalusia. Kastalul. Castile, properly Kastilyun.

Scotland, v. De Slane, I. 105.

Batalyus, Spain, Long. 29, Lat. 38-50.—Badajos, Pax Augusta.

City of Walid? —A corruption of Madinah-i-Walid (Valladolid) already preceded.

Mursia, - Murcia, preceded.

Danya, Denia, preceded

Sälem, -- Medina Celi preceded.

Sarakustah - Saragossa Do.

Nuqab? - Tukat, Tokal? in Asia Minor.

Mush, Armenia, Long. 94'30, Lat. 29'30.—Ancient Moxoene, two marches from Mayyafāriqin and 3 from Khalāt. Abulf.

THE SIXTH CLIMATE [P. 46.]

Jalliqiyyah, capital of the kingdom of Gallicia, Spain, Long. 20, Lat. 46.—The capital of the Galician country according to Abulf, is Zamora.

Banbalunah, Spain, Long. 34'15, Lat. 45'15.—Pampeluna, or Pamplona, anciently Fompelo.

Burdal, Frankish territory, Long. 30'15, Lat. 44'15.—Anciently Bardigala, Bordeaux.

Lumbardyah, Do., Long. 40'30, Lat. 43'50.—This location in Abulf. is that of Milan capital of Lombardy, which is here meant.

Benedeqyah, Long. 42, Lat. 44.—Not Bunduqyah as in the text. but: Venetia.

Biza, N. of Spain, Long. 42, Lat. 47.—Pisa.

Borshan, Long 50, Lat. 45.—"Name of the capital of the Borjana, noted for their valour, exterminated by the Germana, and no trace of them is left." Ibn Sayd quoted by Abulf. He places the town to the N. E. of Athens and extends the country as far as Constantinople. Reinaud's conjectures point to the Balgarians, but they were known as the Bulghars v his references, II. 313. De Slane, however, interprets the word similarly, in *Prolog. 1bn Khaldun*, 1. 161.

Abzou, belonging to Constantinople, Long. 59 45, Lat. 50 —This is Abydos, Abulf. II. 36.

Buzantya, i.e. Constantinople, Long. 59-50, Lat. 43.

Kastamunyah, Long. 65'30, Lat. 46'20.—Corrupted in the text to Kalsutah. It is Kastamuni in Anatolia, v. Ibn Batutah II. 342.

Sinub, on the Pontic coast, Long. 65, Lat. 47.—Sinope.

- Hirqalah, Do., Long. 67.20, Lat. 46.20.—Heraclea Pontica; now Erekle.
- Amāsyah, Do., Long. 57'30, Lat. 45.—Amasia S.E. of Sinope on the Irmak.
- Samsun, Do., Long. 69'20, Lat. 46'40.—Still Samsun, anciently
- Furdhat-ur-Rum, Long. 74'30, Lat. 46'90.—For Rum I would read Qarm, Furdhat signifies a port. The meaning would then be a Crimean port, see post Kafa.
- Sarir Allān, near Darband, Long. 83, Lat. 44.—Now Daghestān. The Sarir is said to be a territory of the Allān (Allains) the capital of which is located in Long. 74 (or 72), Lat. 43, but in Ibn Khaldun, I. 161, is Sinope.
- Balanjar, capital of the Khazars, Long. 85:20, Lat. 46:30.—The passage relating to this name in Abulf. from Ibn Sayd is contradictory, placing the town on the S. of Darband, of Jorzān and then on the Volga. Reinaud believes it to have been situated between the Volga and the Caucasus. Some maintain that it is the same as Itil, a town taking its name from the Volga (Itil) and which stood where now is Astrakhan. Jorzān is probably the Khorzene of Strabo, R. [Ency. Islam, ii. 935, under Khazar. J. S.]
- Kersh, on the sea of Azac (Azof), Long. 87, Lat. 46:50.--Kertch on the straits of Yenikale, v. Travels of Ibn Batutah, p. 355, II.
- Yenghi-kent, Turkistan, Long. 96:30, Lat. 47.—Yeni-Kent, "the ruins of Djankent, about 14 miles S.W. of the modern Kazalinsk". (Ency. Islam, i. 419).
- Tarāz, Turkistān frontier, Long. 99.50, Lat. 25.—Near Isfinjāb.
- Fārāb, Do., Long. 98, Lat. 25.—Probably a repetition of Fāryāb, preceded in the 4th Climate.
- Shalj, Taraz territory, Long. 100'30. Lat. 44.—A small town on the Turkistan frontier, Yäqut.
- Almālik, Long. 102.20, Lat. 44.
- Uzkand, Turkistān, Long. 102.50, Lat. 44.—Yuzkand in Transoxiana, both forms are correct according to Yāqut.
- Käshghar, one of the chief cities of Turkistän, Long. 106'30, Lat. 44. Artan Kalorān? Long. 106, Lat. 46.
- Katāligh, Long. 108, Lat. 44.—Probably for Khānbāligh, (Pekin) which follows lower down and has preceded in the first Climate under a third form.

Kurāgurum, mountain in Kohistan,
Khanbaligh, capital of China,
Abuldah?
Asht?
Antazakht
Fartanah? —Probably a corruption of Qurtubáh, Cordova
Tatlyah?Tudela?
Asnut?
Sāmun?Sāmsun?
Kastamunyah. in Asia Minor, — Has preceded.
Tarābazun,
Jandah, —Genoa? [or Jānik, a province of Asia Minor,
J. S.J
Samurali, Spain, —Zamora.
Lumbardiyah,
Borshan,
Balanjar,
Jābulisa,
Desert of Qipchaq —The plain of Kipzac, says Gibbon,
extends on either side of the Volga in a boundless space
towards the Saik and Borysthenes and is supposed to contain
the primitive name and nation of the Cossacks, CLXIV. v.
Ibn Batutah, II, p. 536, who describes its character.
THE SEVENTH CLIMATE
Shant Yaqu, frontier of Spain, Long. 19, Lat 49.—St. James of
Compostella.
Sagji, near the Euxine, Long 58 37, Lat. 50.—Now Isakdje on the
Danube, Histria.
Agja-Kirman, Bulgaria, Long. 55, Lat. 50 -Now Akerman at the
mouth of the Dniester
Qarqar, in the As country, Long. 65'30, Lat. 50 -In the interior
of the Crimea, now called Tchoufout-kale or fortress of the
Jews from a colony of Caryate Jews, near the Chadir Dagh
mountain. Reinaud, 11, 119.
Kafa, port in the Crimea, Long. 6750, Lat. 50The ancient
Theodosia, a colony of the Milesians, v. Ibn Batutah, II. 357.
Solghat, ciz., Kirim, Long. 67 10, Lat. 50 10,—That is, that the
name of the country Kirim was also given to Solghat which
Abulfeda calls the capital of the Crimea and bearing also its
name, so that when the word Kirim is used by itself, it

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- signifies Solghāt. It still bears the name of Eski Kirym, Reinaud, n. p. 320, v. Ibn Batutah, II, 354.
- Tirnau, in the Ulak (Valak) country, Long. 57-30, Lat. 50.—Ternovo or Ternovaia in Wallachia.
- Bular, i.e., Bulghar on the shores of the Itil Sea (Caspian), Long. 90, Lat. 50:30.—The actual position of this town was on the W. bank of the Volga, 135 versts S. of Kasan. From the fact of coins having been found bearing the name of Bolgaraljadid or New Bulghar the existence of two towns has been supposed, and Erdmann, professor of O. Languages in the Univ. of Kasan, proposes or establishes a distinction between Bolar and Bulghar. Ibn Batutah passed three days in the town. II. 399.
- Azaq, a port on the Sea of Azaq, Long. 75, Lat. 48.—Azof at the mouth of the Don.
- Sarāi, capital of the Barakah country. —Ibn Batutah visited this town from Astrakhan (II. 446). The town was called Sera Barakah, the capital of Sultan Uzbec. This name is also given to the Prince by Abulf. The town stands on an E. branch of the Volga where the Tsarewka and Soloenka streams join that river. It was destroyed by Tamerlane in 1403. See Reinaud's notes and references on this name, II, 323.
- Alukak, in the Sarai country, Long. 85, Lat. 49'55.—On the W. bank of the Volga between Sarai and Bular at 15 marches from each. The horde of the Tartar prince of Barakah advances as far as this, but does not pass beyond, Abulf.
- Nahād? Aral Sea. —Aral in Ency. Islam, i. 419.
- Middle of the lake, the source of the Oxus, , .—This is either Sarikol on the Pamir tableland, the source of the northern Oxus which Wood discovered on 12th February 1838, or Barkat Yāsin, the source of the southern branch, traced in 1868 by the Mirzā an employee in the G. T. S. It is doubtful which of these two should rank as the chief source of the Oxus.
- Batik?....? Batiha—the marshland. Ency. Islam, i. 675.
 [J. S.]
- Bajnah? Turkistan,
- Siglab. —Slavonia. The Saglab peninsula, Reinaud considers to comprise the country between the Oxus and Dnieper,

but Norway, Sweden and Finland are included in it by Abulfeda, II, 314.

Mushqah, in the Slav country on the sea, —Ibn Sayd gives the Long. 43. Lat. 58'20. This country is also placed by Kazwini on the shore of the ocean, but it is probable, as Reinaud supposes, that Moscow is intended, its real position being unknown.

Kālak?......

Jābalq, extreme W. of Mauritania, —Jabulkā and Jabulsā are mythical cities placed at opposite sides of the mountain of Kāf, which is said to encircle the earth, but Jabulkā is generally placed at the extreme E. and Jabulsā to the W. They are employed in a religious sense to signify the first stages of a contemplative life, v. Burhan-i-Qati' or Vuller's Lex. and Yāqut, also Tabari Chron., pp. 27, 36, 1.

Shore of the Ocean, Long. 10, Lat. 34.

Mari Kirman? - Probably Sari Kirman.

Sudāq, on the Euxine, —Long. 56, Lat. 51. A town in the Crimea, a rival to Kufā in trade; opposite Samsun in Asia Minor, Abulf, now Novo Shudāk.

Islands of Urdujard? - In some MS. Rudjard.

Islands of Budan?

Islands of Quni, —Probably misscript for Thule. The Shetlands.

Nihānah? on the Ocean

Taniah, by some said to be on the Ocean, by others rising above the Ocean.

Bor, a city near the regions of darkness.

Cupola of the earth, Long. 90

Middle of the Oikoumene, Long. 90

Middle of the sea of Manus? Already preceded. Perhaps Marmora.

Extreme of the country of Barqānyah, Long. 36'20, Lat. 51'20.— Brittany or Armorica, according to Reinaud is here intended and Ibn Sayd's language reproduces that of the text, the extreme of the Bretagne country' which he'places at Long 9, Lat. 50'30.

Mouths of the Tānānis, Long. 36.55, Lat. 52.50.—Preceded, for Tananis, read Tanais.

Mouths of Tāmānish, Long. 37, Lat. 54'l.—Long. almost illegible. It is probably a repetition of the above.

Locality on the Niā Natis, Long. 37.55. Lat. 55.—Preceded: corruption of Mānitash, (Palus Mæotis).

Villages called Nablus, Long. 5.45 —Deg. of Long. and Lat. illegible.

Country adjacent to Lesser Britain, Long. 18, Lat. 58.

Middle of Great Britain, Long. 17:20, Lat. 56.

Middle of Lesser Britain, Long. 29, Lat. 61.

Extreme point of Lesser Britain, Long. 29, Lat. 62.

Islands called Anudu, Long. 29, Lat. 6.—In some MS. Aluh or Alwah.

Islands called Thule, Long. 20, Lat 63.

Afam, in the Slav country, Long. 64

Parts of the Slav country,

Uninhabited,

Extremest point of the world; here all the Zodiacal signs rise and set Lat. 90.

TO FIND THE DISTANCES OF PLACES. 33

[P. 48] The longitude and latitude of the given places are ascertained. The excess difference between each is multi-

In his XXI Chap. of the Indica, Albiruni tefers to several of his publications in which the method of finding the distances has been worked out. These are not repeated, but he gives the calculation of the desantara, i.e., difference between the places according to the Hindu method as reported by Alfazari, in his Cānon, viz., "Add together the squares of the sines of the latitudes of the two places and take the root of the sum. This root is the portio. Further square the difference of these two sines and add it to the portio. Multiply the sum by 8 and divide the product by 377. The quotient is the distance between the two places according to a rough calculation. On this Albiruni remarks, "This method is found in the astronomical books of the Hindus, in conformity with the account of Alfazari save in one particular. The here-mentioned portio is the root of the difference between the squares of the sines of the two latitudes, not the sum of their squares." I do not find the calculation mentioned by Abul Fazl, of this astronomer.

plied into itself and the products which are called squares (for the square of a number is that number multiplied by itself) are set down and the two squares added together and their square root extracted. This root is then multiplied into 56\frac{2}{3} Karoh which is the extent of a degree according to the moderns, or into 66\frac{2}{3} which is the degree according to the ancients, and the product is the distance of the two places from each other. As long as a variation in the extent of longitudes and latitudes arises, the excess is multiplied proportionately and the result ascertained; where the longitudes and latitudes are equal, the rule does not hold good. This distance is calculated on the straight line, but some discrepancy will occur from the curve in direction. Abu Raihān Biruni has calculated this approximately and added a fifth of the result found.

SINGULAR RESULTS ARISING FROM ACCIDENT OF LOCATION.

At the equator all the stars rise and set and the periods of both are equal. Night and day are constant in twelve hours each, and the movement of the celestial sphere is circular. In the first of Aries and Libra the sun is in the zenith and casts two shadows, and at these two periods where the temperature is equable over the greater part of the oikoemeny, at the equator the heat is excessive and the gnomon has no shadow. When the sun passes the first of Aries and inclines to the north, the shadow is thrown to the south, and when he passes the first of Libra and moves southwards, the shadow is cast to the north. The year has six seasons. Two summers, from the 1sto of Aries to the 15tho of Taurus, and from the 1sto of Libra to the 15tho of Scorpio; two winters, from the 1sto of Cancer to the 15tho of Leo, and from the 1sto of Capricorn, to the 15tho of Aquarius. At the change of the Sun into Cancer, the temperature rises in the climatic zones inclined from the equator, whereas at the equator it is the beginning of winter. It has also two springs, from the

16th° of Leo to the end of Virgo, and from the 16th° of Aquarius to the end of Pisces: and two autumns, from the 16tho of Taurus to the end of the Gemini and from the 16th of Scorpio to the end of Sagittarius. Avicenna and some learned men maintain that the equator is the most equable in temperature of all countries, because the seasons of cold and heat follow in close succession and the sun does not remain long in the zenith. Fakhr-Rāzi³⁷ and another school select the fourth climate and say that "although the sun's stay in the zenith is but for a short period, on the other hand he is never more remote than 23 degrees and a fraction, and we observe that in places where the greatest altitude of the sun is less than its altitude at the equator, as for instance at Khwarizm, where his altitude on the first of Cancer is 71° which is 5° lower than his altitude at the equator, the people are much inconvenienced by the heat, while at the equator it is the cold season. But as the altitude there is 5° greater, it follows that the winter of the equator should be hotter than the summer of Khwarizm: what then would its summer be? And the colour and appearance of the Ethiopians who are near the zone of the equator support this view." The partisans of each school maintain their several opinions at considerable length. The true resolution is this, that equability in the sense of approximate similarity of conditions is more apparent at the equator, and great heat on account of this assimilation, is to a certain extent unfelt, because the sensations caused by physical impressions succeeding each other rapidly have less force, while sensations directly antagonistic are more perceptible though disregarded in view of the equality in the constant proportions of heat and cold. In the first mentioned sense, therefore, Avicenna is correct, while in

^a Abu Bakr, Ency. Islam, iii. 1134 under ar-Rāzi. Muhammad lbn Zakariyyā ar Rāzi is known in the Schools of Medicine of the middle ages as Rasis, Rhazes or Rhazis, b. 864, d. 925 A.D., as distinguished in Philosophy, Chemistry and Astronomy as in Medicine.

the latter, the opinion of Ar Razi is tenable. Every place which has not the equinoctial and its pole directly in the zenith is accounted among climatic zones inclined from the equator, and these are specially differentiated in five classes. The first is in a latitude less than the greatest declination of the Sun from the equator: the latitude of the second is equal to the greatest declination: that of the third is greater than the declination but less than its complement measured from the equator: that of the fourth is equal to the complement: that of the fifth is greater than the complement but less than 90°. In the first, the sun is twice in the zenith, from the 1st of Aries to Cancer and from the 1st of Cancer to Libra and casts here also two shadows. In the second he is only once in the zenith, in Cancer. Here and in the remaining zones where the sun does not culminate, the shadow is thrown to the north. At the spot where the pole of the equinoctial is directly perpendicular it is 90° and the movement of the celestial sphere is like a mill. The year there forms a nycthemeron as has already been explained. There is no doubt that the fabled darkness38 which is the tradition of the vulgar, refers to the gloom of these nights. The points of the east, west, north and south are not here distinguishable.

Some divide the oikoemeny into three parts. The first is from the equator to a position the latitude of which is equal to the greatest declination of the sun from the equator. The inhabitants of this region are called Sudān (blacks), because the sun shining directly above them, they are coloured by its rays and their hair is curly. Those who dwell proximate to the equator are called Zingis.³⁰ They are

¹⁸ Ency. Islam, ii. 862, under al-Khadir. It is here that eastern fable locates the fountain of the water of life, which the mythical prophet, saint, or bard al Khidr is said to have discovered and tasted, and received his immortality.

³⁸ The inhabitants of Zanguebar, including the "Zingis" of Ptolemy near the entrance of the Red Sea and a large portion of inner Africa, v. Lane. Lex.

absolutely black and scarce resemble human beings. Those who live near the region of the greatest declination, are less swarthy and being of moderate stature and equable disposition are more of a class with the natives of Hindustan, and Yemen and some of the Mauritanian Arabs. The second is the region of which the latitude extends from the greatest declination to a quarter parallel with the Great Bear.40 The colour of its inhabitants is inclined to fairness and as the sun does not shine perpendicularly above them and yet is never far removed, their bodies are fashioned in a naturally-adjusted mean, as the Chinese, the Turks, and the people of Khurāsān, Irag, Persia and Syria. Of this race, those who dwell nearest to the south have a subtler intellect because they are nearer the zodiac and the orbits of the five planets, while those are of a more powerful build who inhabit the regions to the west. Proximity to the east produces a softness of frame and by such as these great deeds are never accomplished. The third region is parallel with the orbit of the Great Bear such as the country of the Sclavonians and Russians, and as it is distant from the Zodiac and little affected by the heat of the sun, the cold impels to hardihood, moisture is predominant, and natural living products do not mature. Their colour is fair, their hair red and worn long, their bodies sleek, their temper fierce and their disposition inclined to evil. Hermes,41 the most

Bear lies under the pole: under it the orbit of Saturn: then that of Jupiter: next, Mars, the Sun, Venus, Mercury and the Moon. They rotate towards the east like a mill in a uniform motion peculiar to each star, some moving rapidly, others slowly. Albiruni criticises this statement with his usual intelligence. See Indica, Chap. XXVII, Sachau, p. 288.

⁴¹ The Hermetic books are said by Fabricius to be the forgeries of a Jew or of a semi-Platonic semi-Christian writer of about the 2nd century after Christ. Hermes Trismegistus himself is a fiction of the Neo Platonists and was the offspring of the Oriental and Hellenic philosophies. He was the supposed mystic author of all knowledge and the author, on the authority of Manetho, of 36,525 books. His principal works published under this name are given in the Class. Dict. of Dr. W. Smith.

celebrated of the name, divides the earth into seven parts analogous with the seven spheres, one within the other. The first towards the south is the continent of India: the second, Arabia, Yemen, and Abyssinia: the third, Egypt, Syria and Mauritania: the fourth, Persia: the fifth, the Greeks, Sclavonians, Franks: the sixth, the Turks and the Khazars: the seventh, China, Khotan and Tibbet.

It is said that Noah apportioned the length of the habitable globe into three lots. The southern he gave to Ham, and this is the country of [50] the blacks and the Arabs: the northern to Japhet, where the fair-skinned, ruddy faced races dwell: the middle portion was assigned to Shem, inhabited by the wheat-coloured people. Feridun divided the breadth of his dominions into three parts; the eastern he gave to Tur: the western to Salm and the intermediate tract to Irai. Some of the Greeks have made two sections of the habitable earth latitudinally from Egypt. The eastern they call Asia, the western which is the Mediterranean Sea, they subdivide into two, that on the south being named Libya, the country of the negroes, and that on the north Europe42 where dwell the white and ruddy-complexioned races. Bisecting Asia from the angle between the east and north transversely in a southerly direction, they divide it into two segments, of which the inner is the less and the outer the greater. The middle is called Asia Minor and comprises the country of Iran, Hijaz, Yemen and Khurasan. The outer is Asia Major, comprising China, 13 India and Sind. Some say that Hindu philosophers

⁴² This tripartite division into Europe Asia and Libya was unknown to Homer, and the earliest allusions to it are found in the writers of the 1st half of the 5th century B.C., viz., Aeschylus and Pindar and the logographers Hecatæus and Pherecydes: v. Art Asia, Smith C. D. Herodotus discusses it in Melpomene (42) with some wonder at the character of the division.

¹³ This partition into A. Major and A. Minor was not made, according to a writer in the Cl. Dic. till the 4th century of our era. Asia Major (A. y mcgaly) was part of the continent E. of the Tanais, the Euxine, an imaginary line drawn from the Euxine at Trebizond to the Gulf of Issus and the Mediterranean. It in-

partition the habitable earth into a diagram of nine parts, viz., the south (dahkhin) the Arabian country; the north (uttar). that of the Turks; the east, (purab), China; the west, (pachchim). Egypt and Barbary; the north-east (isan). Khata and Khotan: the north-west (bāuab), the Greeks and Franks: the south-west (nairit) the country of the Copts and Berbers. Africa and Spain. The middle country was called Madhyadesa, " But this account is not found in this order in any Sanskrit work nor is it thus handed down by any of the learned of this country.

THE SCALE OF NOTATION.

	Units up to 9		•••	Ekam.
	10 ,, 100	***	•••	Dasa.
	100 1000	• • •	•••	Sata.
	1,000 &c.	•••		Sahasra.
	10,000 ,, &c.	•••	•••	Ayuta.
	100,000		• • •	Laksh vulg, lakh.
	1,000,000	•••	•••	Prayuta.
	10,000,000	•••		Koti, vulg. Kror.
	100,000,000	•••	• • •	Arbuda.
[51]	1,000,000,000	• • •	•••	Abja.
	10,000,000,000	•••	•••	Kharba.
	100,000,000,000	•••	• • •	Nikharba.
	1,000,000,000,000		•••	Mahāpadma.
	10,000,000,000,000		***	Sanku.
	100,000,000,000,00	_		Jaladhi.
	1,000,000,000,000,		•••	Madhya.
	10,000,000,000,000		• • •	Antya.
	100,000,000,000,00	W,000	•••	Parardha.

cluded Sarmatia Asiatica, with all the Scythian tribes to the E., Colchis, Iberia, Albania, Armenia, Syria, Arabia, Babylonia, Mesopotamia, Assyria, Media, Susiana, Persis, Ariana, Hyrcania, Margiana, Bactriana, Sogdiana, India, China. Asia Minor (A. y mitra Anatolia) was the peninsula on the extreme W. of Asia, bounded by the Euxine, Ægean and Mediterranean.

44 He has omitted the S. E. The diagram will be found in Albiruni's Indica, Ch XXXIX, 262, Sachau, with the authorities. Abul Fazl's ill-digested knowledge is heaped up indiscriminately without order or method and without head an approximately without order.

without order or method and without heed or consciousness of the

worthlessness of so much of it.

The Brahmans have not more than eighteen places of notation, the first being units, Ekam, and the rest proceeding by multiples of ten. All above units have a separate designation as above noted, thus differing from the Greek compounds of notation. An intervening number of this scale, for instance, fifteen, is included in the second, one hundred and [52] twelve, in the third place, and so on.45 And further by the addition of eleven places to the eighteen, they reckon up to twenty-nine places and employing the terms of six of the series, the remainder are suffixed as compounds, as will be seen from what follows. Thus: Tens. hundreds, thousands. lakhs, tens of lakhs, krors; krors tens, hundreds, thousands, tens of thousands, lakhs, tens of lakhs, krors of krors; krors of krors tens, hundreds, thousands, tens of thousandsnineteen places from the unit's place, and this illustrates the foregoing description. Krors or krors tens of thousands is 1,000,000,000,000,000,000, up to nine tens of thousands of krors of krors, and in a descending scale, nine thousand krors of krors and nine hundred so on to nine. Again, krors of krors lakhs, tens of krors of krors of lakhs, krors of krors of krors; krors of krors of krors tens, hundreds, thousands, tens of thousands, lakhs, tens of lakhs, krors of krors of krors of krors.46 which series proceeds in the manner above given.

The Greeks have their scale of notation from one to nine, and the recurring ternary series they call a cycle. Thus from one to nine are units, from ten to ninety, tens, and from one hundred to nine hundred, hundreds. This is termed the first cycle. From one thousand to nine thousand are units of

from the units.

⁴⁵ Read the 16th Chapter of Albiruni's India in connection with this reckoning. He says some maintain a 19th order called Bhuri. According to others the limit of reckoning is koti and starting from koti the succession would be koti, tens, hundreds, thousands. etc. Sachau has inadvertently reversed this order. Albiruni adds that Dasa sahasra, and Dasa laksha are used for the 5th and 7th orders respectively, as the terms Ayuta and Prayuta are rarely employed.
10,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000. Twenty-nine places

thousands, from ten thousand to ninety thousand are tens of thousands, and from one hundred thousand to nine hundred thousand are hundreds of thousands. This they call the second cycle. And thus at the end of each cycle the word "thousands" is added, as for instance, the third cycle begins with units of thousands of thousands, i.e., a thousand thousand, followed by tens of thousands of thousands, i.e., ten thousand thousand up to ninety thousand thousand. Next follows hundreds of thousands of thousands, i.e., a hundred thousand thousand. The beginning of the fourth cycle is units of thousands of thousands of thousands, and so on throughout the remainder of the series. The designations in all are but three, viz., tens, hundreds, thousands, and as to what is said in ancient books of this system being borrowed from the Greeks, the version above given certainly does not support it.

THE QUARTERS OF THE GLOBE.

The Hindus term a quarter disā and also dig and of these they reckon ten. Each of them they consider to be under a tutelary spirit whom they name Dig-pāla as will appear in the following table:—

[53] Sanskrit nar of quarter.	English.	Regent.47
Purva Agni Dakshina Nairrita Paschima Vāyaviya Uttara Isāna Urddhva Adhah	East South-east South South-west West North-west North North-east Above Below	Indra. Agni. Yama. Nairrita. Varuna. Vayu. Kuvera. Isāna Brahma.

⁴⁷ Indra is the Indian Jupiter; in Sanak. Dyaush-pitar, or that one among the many Jupiters which personified the firmament.

[54] Some assign a quarter to the interval between the upper and lower regions and thus reckon eleven. The regent of this is Rudra.

Agni is the god of fire, and one of the most ancient objects of Hindu worship who answers to the Vulcan of Egypt. Yama in the Vedas is the god of the dead with whom the departed spirits dwell. The S. W. regent is a demon or Räkshasa. Varuna is one of the oldest vedic deities, and like its derivative Ovranos a personification of the all-encompassing sky. The name also designates one of the lunar mansions. The god of the air, the Hindu Eolus is represented by Vayu and is associated in the Vedas with Indra, riding in the same car. Kuvera, as living in the shades and being the god of wealth, unites the characteristics of Pluto and Plutus. Isāna is a name of Siva or of one of his manifestations. The serpent-worshipping Nagas may boast of their connection with or descent from this regent of the nether world. Hastings, Encyclopædia of Religion, xi. 560, xii. 602—610 and Macdonnell and B. Keith's Vedic Index. [J. S.]

CHAPTER III.

ANIMAL LIFE.

This subject cannot be altogether omitted and shall be cursorily touched upon. In what relates to man, somewhat has already been set down. In distinguishing the finer shades observable in the measure of divergence in the dispositions of men in this region of the globe, investigation points to little discovery. Judges of character, generally, when considering the Hindu people, incline to the ancient opinion that each of them is a presentment of the race contained in the individual. One, from the eminence of his virtues will be beyond price; another will be dear at the basest coin. If regarded with the eyes of impartiality, the sincerely devout of this country are unlike the seekers of God in other lands and in warring with interior spiritual foes that wear the guise of friends, they are rarely to be matched. Their knowledge of affairs, capacity in execution, recklessness of valour, fidelity, especially in times of difficulty, their devoted attachment and disinterested service, and other eminent good qualities are beyond measure great. And yet there are many obdurate and pitiless spirits, devoid of gentle courtesy who for the merest trifle will rise to the shedding of blood, and marvellous are the tales told of these ravening fiends in the guise of angels.

The Hindu philosophers reckon four states of auspiciousness which they term varna. 1. Brāhmana. 2. Kshatriya vulgarly, Khatri. 3. Vaisya, vulgarly Bais. 4. Sudra, vulgarly sudra. Other than these are termed Mlechchha. At the creation of the world the first of these classes was pro-

^{&#}x27;The term in its primitive meaning signifies 'colour', the Aryans from the north priding themselves on their fair complexion, in contradistinction to the 'black skin' typical of the indigenous races. The term subsequently was applied to caste.—Hastings, Encyclopædia, iii. 230-239, Muir's Sansk Texts, i., and Vedic Index (under Varna.)

duced from the mouth of Brahma, a brief account of whom has already been given: the second, from his arms; the third, from his thigh and the fourth from his feet; the fifth from the cow Kāmadhenu,² the name of Mlechcha being employed to designate them.

The Brahmans have six recognised duties.³ 1. The study of the Vedas and other sciences. 2. The instruction of others (in the sacred texts). 3. The performance of the Jag, that is oblation of money and kind to the Devatas. 4. Inciting others to the same. 5. Giving presents. 6. Receiving presents.

Of these six the Kshatriya must perform three, 1. Perusing the holy texts. 2. The performance of the Jag. 3. Giving presents. Further they must, 1. minister to Brahmans. 2. Control the administration of worldly government and receive the reward thereof. 3. Protect religion. 4. Exact fines for delinquency and observe adequate measure therein. 5. Punish in proportion to the offence. 6. Amass wealth and duly expend it. 7. Supervise the management of elephants, horses, and cattle and the functions of ministerial subordinates. 8. Levy war on due occasion. 9. Never ask-an alms. 10. Favour the meritorious and the like.

[55] The Vaisya almost must perform the same three duties of the Brahman, and in addition must occupy himself in: 1. Service. 2. Agriculture. 3. Trade. 4. The care of cattle. 5. The carrying of loads.

From birth to the time of investiture with the sacred thread, these ten duties may be performed by all the three castes above-mentioned.

The Sudra is incapable of any other privilege than to serve these three castes, wear their cast-off garments and eat

See these duties in the Institutes of Manu, I, 88, and fl., p. 12,

Burnell's Trans,

³ The granter of desires, said to have been produced at the churning of the ocean, belonging to the sage Vasishtha. Called also Kāma-duh, Savalā and Surabhi. Dowson.

their leavings. He may be a painter, goldsmith, blacksmith. carpenter, and trade in salt, honey, milk, butter-milk, clarified butter and grain.

Those of the fifth class, are reckoned as beyond the pale of religion, like infidels, lews and the like. By the intermarriages of these, sixteen other classes are formed. The son of Brahman parents is acknowledged as a Brahman. If the mother be a Kshatriya, (the father being a Brahman) the progeny is called Murdhavasikta. If the mother be a Vaisya, the son is named Ambastha,4 and if a Sudra girl, Nishada. If the father and mother are both Kshatriya, the progeny is Kshatriya. If the mother be a Brahman, (and the father a Kshatriva) the son is called Suta. If the mother be a Vaisya, the son is Mahisya. If the mother be a Sudra, the progeny is Ugra. If both parents be Vaisva, the progeny is Vaisya. If the mother be a Brahman, (which is illicit) the progeny is Vaideha but if she be a Kshatriya, which also is regarded as improper, he is Māgadha. From the Vaisva by a Sudra mother is produced a Karana. When both parents are Sudra, the progeny is Sudra. If the mother be a Brahman. the progeny is Chandala. If she be a Kshatriya, it is called Chattā.5 From a Sudra by a Vaisya girl is produced the Auogava.

In the same way still further ramifications are formed. each with different customs and modes of worship and each with infinite distinctions of habitation, profession, and rank of ancestry that defy computation.

Jones writes Cshattri. Muir (Sans. Texts, I. 174), Kshattri.

⁴ These names and many other variations of the progeny of inter-marriages will be found in the tenth chapter of the Institutes of Manu. The management of horses and driving wagons, is therein said to be the occupation of Sutas; the practice of medicine that of Amhasthas; attendance on women, that of Vaidehakas; trade that of Māgadhas; killing fish that of Nishādas; carpentry of Ayogavas. Catching and killing animals that live in holes, is the occupation of Keattars, Ugras, and Pukkasas.
According to Burnell, (X. 306) the term is Ksattar, Sir W.

The Brahmans, in regard to the study of the Vedas, are of four classes, and each occupies himself with the perusal of a special sacred work. There are twenty ways of reading the Rigveda; the Yajurveda has eighty-six; the Sāmaveda, one thousand, and the Atharvaveda, five, and their several disciples fall into distinct categories. There may be also ten distinctions of Brahmans, according to their occupations.

1. Deva. 2. Muni. 3. [56] Dvi-ja. 4. Rājā. 5. Vaisya.

6. Sudra. 7. Bidālaka. 8. Pasu. 9. Mlechchha. 10. Chandāla.

The first named perform the Hom' for themselves, not for others, and give presents, but do not receive them, and learn, but do not teach. The second perform the Hom for others as well as for themselves and receive gifts and teach. The third class have twelve distinctive notes,—The six aforesaid and 7. Meekness. 8. Restraint of the five senses from things unlawful. 9. Unshrinking from austerities. 10. Attachment to the precepts of the Vedas. 11. Taking no life. 12. Attributing the possession of nothing to themselves. The fourth class perform the same offices as the Kshatriya. The fifth, those of the Vaisya. The sixth, those of the Sudra. The seventh class have the characteristic of cats.

⁶ According to Albiruni, Vyāsa divided the Veda into the four parts named below, and to each of his four pupils, he taught a separate Veda to be learnt by heart. They are enumerated in the same order as the four parts of the Veda: Paila Vaisampāyana, Jaimini, Sumantu.

⁷ This oblation consists in casting clarified butter, etc., into the sacred fire as an offering to the gods, with invocations and prayers according to the object of sacrifice.

The three castes of the Brahman, Kshatriya and Vaisya, were called, dvi-ja, twice-born, from their title to investiture with the sacred thread which literally constitutes the second birth, but the term is particularly applied to the Brahmans, who maintain that their caste alone remains, the other three having been lost or degraded and it is generally accepted that the pure Kshatriya or Vaisya does not now exist. The intercourse and inter-marriage of various castes have produced the mixed castes called Varna-Sankara, see Dowson, 336.

The Bidalaka, from Sansk.

go from door to door and mix with high and low. The eighth, like brutes' know not good from evil. The ninth follow the practices of the Mlechchhas (barbarians or non-Aryans), and the tenth are low outcasts and eat carrion.

The Kshatriya form two races, the Surajbansi (Solar dynasty) and the Somabansi (Lunar dynasty). The first mentioned are descendants of the Sun. It is said that by the volition of Brahma, Marichi¹⁰ was created who begot Kasyapa (Muni), from whom the Sun (Vivasvān or Surya) sprung. From him was produced Vaivaswata from whose mose Ikshwāku came forth by a sneeze and from him the succeeding generations proceeded. Three princes of this race ruled the world and extended their dominion over the seven climes. These were Rājā Sagara, Rājā Khatwānga, and Rājā Raghu.

The second race is descended from the Moon. From Brahma was born Atri, from whose right eye came forth the Moon (Soma) who begot Mercury (Budha) and from him proceeded the succeeding generations. Two princes of this race held universal sway, namely, $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ Yudhisthira and $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ Satānika. There are more than five hundred tribes of the Kshatriyas of whom fifty-two are preeminently distinguished and twelve are of considerable importance. At the present day, no trace of the true Kshatriya exists. Some of their descendants, abandoning the profession of arms, have taken

^{*} The Pasu from Sansk.

Abul Fazl's names and transliterations are incorrect. I substitute the true readings of the names as far as I am able to discover them.

¹¹ Notices of these three legendary princes will be found in Dowson. After Raghu the line practically loses its original name of the Surajbansi and is known as Raghubansi or Raghu-bansa from whom Rēma Chandra descended and whose epic the Raghu-vansa in 19 cantos was sung by Kālidasa. Sagara was a king of Ayodhyā and his wife Sumati was delivered of a gourd containing 60,000 seeds which became embryos and grew. The anxious father placed them on milk but afterwards provided each with a nurse and at ten months' old they were all able to run about.

to other occupations and this class is known to the world by this name. Another body of them adopting the sword as their calling are designated Rājputs, and are divided into thousands of septs. I record the names of a few of the most renowned, that are now in His Majesty's service.

[57] 1. The Rathor; there are several tribes of this clan in service. They number sixty thousand cavalry and two hundred thousand infantry. 2. The Chauhan are divided into several branches, viz., Sungira, Khichi, Deora, Hādā, and Narban. 12 The troops of the clan number fifty thousand cavalry and two hundred thousand infantry. 3. The Panwar. In ancient times, of this tribe was the royal dynasty in Hindustan, and it numbered many clansmen. At the present time their force consists of twelve thousand cavalry and sixty thousand foot. 4. The Jadon. Fifty-thousand cavalry and two hundred thousand foot. 5. Bhāti. 6. Jārejah. 7. Januhah. to which clan the Khānzādahs of Mewat belong. 7. Gehlot. Twenty thousand cavalry and three hundred thousand foot. 8. Sesodia. 9. Chandrawat. 10. The Kachhwahah, who are celebrated among the Raiputs, and number twenty thousand cavalry, and one hundred thousand infantry. 11. The Solankhi. Thirty thousand cavalry and one hundred thousand infantry. 12. Parihāra. 13. Tonwar, for a time the sovereignty of this country rested in this tribe. They number ten thousand horse and twenty five thousand foot. 14. Badgujar. Ten thousand horse, and forty thousand foot. Each of these tribes claim an ancestry traced back to hundreds of thousands of years, a source of splendid pride to the intelligent judgment and is indeed a theme far above the level of an idle tale to distract the mind.

The Vaisya and the Sudra are in the same way divided into numerous branches. For instance, there is one caste of

¹² Sherring gives the names of twenty-four branches, I, Chap. V. The deeds of many of these famous clans are preserved by Tod in his Rājasthān.

the Vaisyas called Banik, more commonly termed Baniyā, (grain-merchant). The Persians name them Bakkāl and of these there are eighty-four divisions.

There are besides troops of astonishing sorcerers, cunning jugglers, [58] wonder-working magicians, and conjurers of such sleight of hand, performing such extraordinary feats that not the vulgar alone, but the acutest minds are deceived into a belief in their miraculous powers. For instance, one of them will say in broad day-light to one of the spectators: "I have just returned from heaven, and having there been assured of your honour and probity, I entrust my wife to your care." Then placing her in his charge, he takes a coil of rope of untanned hide, one end of which he holds in his hand, and flings the coil to such a height that the other end becomes invisible. By means of this he mounts up and is lost to sight. After a little time his limbs one after the other come falling from above, upon which the woman, after their national rite, burns herself in presence of the spectators and is consumed to ashes. In a brief space of time, the man himself reappears and claims his charge. The spectators relate to him what has happened which he affects to disbelieve, and hastening to the house of the person to whom he had entrusted her, calls to his wife from the door. She comes forth, giving thanks for his safety, and leaves the spectators in bewilderment. Again he will cut a man up into forty pieces, and cover him over with a sheet. Then at his summons, the man will appear unhurt and answer for his Teality.18

similar performances are described by Ibn Batutah who witnessed them at an entertainment of the Viceroy of Khansa (Kinsay of Polo). Another witness to similar feats is Edward Melton, an Anglo-Dutch traveller who was present at a like scene in Batavia in 1670, where the limbs that fell successively were caught up and cast into a basket. The last fragment was the head and no sooner had it touched the ground than the man who had gathered up the limbs into the basket, turned them all out topsy turvy. Melton continues as follows: "Then straightway we saw with these

Or, he will place some grains of mustard seed in the palm of his hand, and by some incantation, will make it straight way shoot and bear leaves and fruit. In the same way they will produce mangoes and melons out of season. In short, the marvels of their sorceries, and snake-charming and the like, are beyond expression.

LANGUAGES.

Throughout the wide extent of Hindustan, many are the dialects that are spoken, and the diversity of those that do not exclude a common inter-intelligibility are innumerable. Those forms of speech that are not understood one of another, are the dialects of Delhi, Bengal, Multān, Mārwār, Gujarāt, Telingānah, Marhatta, Karnātik, Sind, Afghān of Shāl (between Sind, Kābul, and Qandahār), Beluchistān, and Kashmir.

FAUNA.

A summary description of the noblest of the animal creation having been given, I proceed to notice the lower types of animal life.

The Ban-mānus is an animal like a baboon, dark in colour, and in stature and face resembling a human being and

eyes, all those limbs creep together again, and in short, form a whole man who at once could stand and go just as before without showing the least damage. Never in my life was I so astonished as when I beheld this wonderful performance and I doubted now no longer that these misguided men did it by the help of the Devil." The Memoirs of the Emperor Jahängir furnish further testimony of similar performances by seven jugglers from Bengal. In one feat, a man is severed limb from limb and decapitated and reproduced from under a sheet. In the other the Emperor says, "They produced a chain 50 cubits in length and threw one end of it towards the sky where it remained as if fastened to some thing in the air. A dog was brought forward and being placed at the lower extremity of the chain, immediately ran up and disappeared in the air. In the same manner, a hog, a panther, a lion and a tiger were successively sent up and all equally disappeared. At last they took down the chain and put it into a bag, no one discovering in what way the different animals were made to vanish. Yule's Marco Polo. (Ed. 1871), p. 281.

walks on two-feet. Although it has no tail, its body is slightly covered with hair. One of these was brought to His Maiesty from Bengal which performed the most astonishing antics. Elephants, lions, 14 leopards, panthers, tigers, bears, wolves and dogs of various breeds, and monkeys, lynxes, hyænas, jackals, foxes, otters, cats, white and tawny and even winged that will fly for a short distance, and other kinds of animals are numerous. Sardul is the name of an animal smaller than a dog but preys upon lions and other wild beasts. Through the encouragement of His Majesty, the breed of horses is as fine as those of Irak and Arabia. The rhinoceres is a stupendous creature. He is twice the size of a buffalo and much resembles a horse in armour. His feet and hoofs are like those of an elephant, and his tail similar to a buffalo's, and he has a pastern-joint like a horse. On the point of his snout he carries a single horn and his hide is so thick that an arrow will not pierce it. Of this, breast-plates and shields and the like are made, and he is bold enough to charge a man on horseback. The black antelope, has two long horns and for beauty and swiftness is unrivalled among his kind. The deer, from which the musk is taken, is larger than the fox. and his coat is rough. He shows two tusks and protuberances in place of horns. They are common in the northern mountains. The Yāk approximates to the domestic cow but of its

¹⁴ Lions are mentioned, according to Lassen, in the oldest Indian writings. They have now nearly disappeared, as they have from Persia, Syria, Asia Minor and Macedonia. Alexander found them in the Eastern Panjab. Lassen supposes the tiger to have advanced as the lion disappeared. The Indian hounds were famous and a Babylonian satrap had so many that four villages were specially taxed for their maintenance. They were considered worthy to be presented to Alexander the Great by king Sopeithes. See Lassen's note on this.

The winged cat is probably the flying squirrel which Mr. Routledge informs me is called by the natives urti billi.

Sardul in Sanskrit signifies a tiger, but here is perhaps meant some species of wild dog which in packs of 6 or 7 will hunt down the fiercest game.

tail is made the kutās 15 or fringed tassel, and many they join together. There is also the civet cat.

The Shārak is an astonishing talker, and listeners would not distinguish its tones from human speech.

The Munahi7 is twice the size of the Shārak, with glossy black plumage, but with the bill, wattles and tail-coverts yellow. It imitates the human voice and speaks with great distinctness.

Parrots are of different colours, red, white and green and talk like human beings. At the present time, under His Majesty's patronage, animals of all kinds from Persia, Turkestan, and Kashmir whether game or other, have been brought together to the wonderment of beholders.

The Koel, 18 is like a mynah, jet black with crimson irides and a long tail. Romance sings of its loves as of those of the bulbul.

The Papihā,19 is smaller than the Koel, with a shorter and slenderer tail. Its love is chanted in story. It is in full song in the beginning of the rainy season and has a peculiar

17 Eulabes intermedia, Jerdon. The Nepal Hill Mynah, found also in Assam, and about the Chittagong tracts, more or less with these characteristics. There are various species not easily distin-

guished by the inexpert.

1º Coccystes Melanoleucos, Jerdon. The piedchested cuckoo. It is found all over India, and is above of a uniform black with a greenish gloss. Jerdon unromantically describes it as very noisy with a high pitched metallic note, which would appear highly calculated to reopen any old wounds or cause a fresh one. It is best known in Hindu poetry under the name of Chatak.

the Gāo Kutās as the Yāk Tibetanas or Bos grunniens.

"In Sansk. Shārika, Hind. Shārik, Sārik or Sārak. In Bengal the word is written and pronounced Sālik and applied to the common Mynah, the Acridotheres tristis, which is occasionally a fine talker.

Linnæus. It is well-known throughout India. Its name is from its cry of koil-koil which increases in volume of sound as it goes on. The female lays its eggs in the nest of the common crow, generally only one and sometimes destroys the eggs of the crow at the time of depositing her own. The crows appear to be aware of the fact when too late and often pursue these cuckoos with great fury.

note and its plaintive strain is heard oftenest at night, and makes love's unhealed wounds bleed anew. It is from its note that the word piu is taken, which in Hindi signifies 'heloved.'

The Hāril²⁰ has green plumage with a white bill and crimson irides, smaller than the ordinary pigeon. It never settles upon the ground and when it alights to drink, it carries with it a twig which it keeps beneath its feet till its thirst is quenched.

The Baya²¹ is like a wild sparrow but yellow. It is extremely intelligent, obedient and docile. It will take small coins from the hand and bring them to its master and will come to a call from a long distance. Its nests are so ingeniously constructed as to defy the rivalry of clever artificers.

The astonishing feats which the animals of this country can perform and their beautiful variety of colouring is beyond the power of my inexperience to describe. Former romancers have related stories in abundance of their extraordinary characteristics, but the writer of this work mentions nothing that he has not himself seen or heard from accurate observers.

I write of things within my ken, Nor tell a twice-told tale again.

Pigeon, (Jerdon). The text is evidently in error, omitting the negative before the word 'settles', which stultifies the sense of what follows.

shaped nest is a familiar sight in India. Jerdon says that it can be taught to pick up rings or such like articles dropped down a well or carry a note on a given signal. Mr. Blyth has seen it fire off a miniature cannon and apply the match five or six times before the powder ignited, which it finally did with a report loud enough to frighten all the crows in the neighbourhood, while the little bird remained perched on the gun without moving. In their breeding plumage, the old males have the crown of the head yellow, the rest of the upper plumage with the wings and tail, dull brown, edged with pale fulvous brown; the breast is bright yellow, but in the younger, pale rusty; while the females and the males in winter dress totally want the yellow head, the crown being brown with dark streaks.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Measures 22

6 Atoms = 1 Marichi.

6 Marichi = 1 Khardal, (Brassica nigra).

3 Khardal = 1 Sarshaf, (Brassica juncea).

= 1 Barley corn. 8 Sarshaf

4 Barley corns = 1 Surkh (Abrus precatorius).

6 Surkh = 1 Māshah.

4 Māshah = 1 Tānk.

2 Tank = 1 Kaul.

2 Kaul = 1 Tolchah.

2. Tolchah = 1 Sukti.

= 1 Pal. [60] 2 Sukti

> 2 Pal Palm of the hand.

2 Palms = 1 Anjali, (two hands joined with the

palms hollowed.

2 Anjali = 1 Mānika.

2 Mānika == 1 Prastha.

4 Prastha = 1 Adhaka.

4 Adhaka = | Drona.

= 1 Surpa. 2 Drong

= 1 Khāri. 2 Surpa

The Khāri of the present day is three times this measure.

to BLACK-MUSTARD (BRASSICA NIGRA).

The former name is, Watt says, (in Dict. Econ. Prod. I, 521)

¹² See Vol. I, p. 16, 11, and p. 36, for some of these measures and the weights that follow. The 15th Chapter of Albiruni deals with the metrology of the Hindus and may be compared with these measures. I append a very valuable note by Dr. Prain, Curator of the Herbarium, Royal Botanical Gardens, Calcutta, on the distinction between the kinds of mustard called 'Khardal' and 'Sarshaf' in the text and which remarkably confirms by actual experiment the accuracy of the weights. To Dr. King, the distinguished Superintendent of the Gardens, to whom I have already expressed my many obligations in the 2nd Vol. of the work, I am again indebted for the learned co-operation of Dr. Prain.
"Khardal" and "Sarshaf" are both names that are applied

LEWELLER'S WEIGHTS.

These are based on the Tank and the Surkh. A Tank is equal to twenty-four Surkh, and the ordinary Miskal is two Surkh more. The Surkh is divided into twenty parts, each part being termed a biswah. Formerly two and a half biswah were reckoned to one rice-grain, but the grains of that time were larger. His Majesty's foresight and sagacity have adjusted the proportion of two biswah to the grain. Each Surkh was equal to ten rice-grains. His Majesty in his wisdom directed that the grains should be made of the cat's eye stone and thus obviated the defect of currency. The standard weights kept ready for use are the following: the biswah, the rice-grain, 1/4 and 1/2 of Surkh, 2 Surkh, 3 Surkh, 6 Surkh (which is 1/4 of a Tank), 1/2, 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, and 50 Tank. Any other gradations may be compounded of these weights,

There is little doubt that by the lower unit of the two (KHARDAL) the seed of Black or true mustard is meant.

ring to a well-known and common plant by his second word.

As regards the physical conditions, Rai seeds seem to suit very well, so far as the Calcutta Herbarium material goes. For in weighing 3 ripe seeds of Brassica nigra from Madeira against one ripe seed of India Brassica juncea, the scale shows very close approximation in weight; and 8 ripe seeds of Brassica juncea from India exactly balance a ripe grain of barley from Afghanistan,

though a ripe barley-corn from Europe outweighs them.

applied, with a qualification, to WHITE MUSTARD; the latter apparently is not.

The question is as to the identity of the other unit. Had "Sarshaf" been applied to both and "Khardal" restricted to black mustard, one would have felt inclined to say that white mustard (Sinapis alba) was intended. But it must be remembered that white mustard is an uncommon plant in Asia; and that Boissier only speaks of it as a plant of waste places and groves in Greece, Palestine and Taurus, (not even admitting it as a Persian species) and that its seeds, though much larger than those of B. nigra, do not suit the conditions required better than those of another species to be mentioned immediately. This is Brassica juncea—the well-known Indian mustard or Rai which is cultivated in Persia, as it is in India, for its oil. The vernacular names given by Watt do not include "Khardal" alone or qualified, but apparently the "Sarshaf" appears (e.g., in the Bengali name "Rāi Sarisha") and this, therefore, seems to be the species that best suits the conditions; for Abul Fazl would be most probably refer-

ANIMAL LIFE.

and for the imperial service, weights of cat's eye up to 140 Tanks have been made of such brilliancy that they cannot be distinguished from gems.

BANKER'S WEIGHTS.

These are based on the Tolchah, the Māshah, and the Surkh.

Formerly 6 now 7½ rice-grains = 1 Surkh

8 Surkh = 1 Māshah

12 Māshah = 1 Tolchah.

The ordinary weights in use are ½, 1, and 4 Surkh: 1, 2, 4, 6, Māshah: 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, 500 Tolchah. But in the imperial Exchequer, the gradations of weight kept ready are very numerous.

OTHER TRADE-WEIGHTS.

Formerly in Hindustan, the ser weighed 18 and in some places 22 dam. In the beginning of His Majesty's reign it was current at 28 and is now fixed at 30, each dam being 5 Tank. In the transactions in coral and camphor the dam was reckoned at 5½ tank, but the price of these articles having fallen, it is valued at five only. The weights in ordinary use are ½, ¼, ½ of a ser; 1, 2, 5, 10 ser; ½, 1 man which consists of 40 ser.

CHAPTER IV.

THE LEARNING OF THE HINDUS

[Editor's explanation—Abul Fazl wrote his Ain-i-Akbari to serve as a popular summary of or general introduction to Hindu philosophy and science for the benefit of the Muslims, and not as a help to a deeper study. In a work of this type it is useless to reprint in 1947, Col. Jarrett's long notes and quotations (made in 1895) from works on Hindu philosophy by the earliest Orientalists and his parallels from Muslim philosophy, because his authorities have long been superseded by the works of more modern scholars, and these latter books can be easily consulted in our libraries, while the obsolete works cited by Jarrett are now extremely rare. Moreover, highly specialised and erudite monographs on the different branches of Hindu learning are now easily available, and the student wishing to follow the subject up further will be much better helped and more correctly guided by references to these modern special treatises than by the mere extracts from obsolete books which larrett gave in the 1st edition of his translation. I have therefore omitted most of his lengthy notes and quotations. The modern student of the subject is referred to the authoritative histories of Hindu philosophy by Radhakrishnan and S. N. Das Gupta, the Grundriss monographs, and (for a shorter study) to the two best Encyclopædias, the Encyclopædia of Islam and Dr. Hastings' Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics. Jadunath Sarkar.]

Throughout the wide extent of Hindustan there are three hundred and sixty systems of philosophy and conduct. By such means is the warfare with the malice of the spirit carried on, and the hand of violence extended against the deceits of our internal foes. The desire unto evil leadeth to perdition

and the worship of the Lord exalteth the heart. The writer of his work has mixed with many of the leaders of thought and has made himself acquainted to some extent with the discussions of the different schools. A considerable body do not rise beyond the experience of sight and hearing. They consider argument as idle discussion and accept no proof other than tradition of the past. Another school profess acceptance of demonstration, but from interior blindness remove not the rust of doubt. Another sect urge on the swift and light-paced dromedary of vision to the halting-place of truth in some questions, and from self-esteem imagine that they have likewise attained the same goal in others. And yet another body submit their intellects to those who affect stoicism and indifference, and in pursuit of their desire, lend to what is not the deceptive gloss of what is. Volumes would not contain the full tale of these. Who thinks to break his fast at the board of the parasite? But for the benefit of real seekers of knowledge. I here set down the series of fundamental systems which may be considered as nine in number and present the doctrines of each without discussion of their merits. It is my hope that inquirers may carefully study them and compare them with the principles of the Platonists, the Peripatetics, the Sufis and dogmatic theologians, and removing the obstructions of prejudice, seek alone for demonstration, and putting aside the estrangements of ignorance. exercise scrutiny with caution.

In this country there are eight sects who professedly teach the doctrines of the emanation of the world, of a life to come, of the essence and attributes of the verities that underlie superior and inferior cosmic phenomena, and the ceremonial and modes of worship and the forms of monarchical government both visible and symbolic: the ninth denies the existence of God and rejects the belief in a beginning or end of existence. Each of these have their special doctrines and rules of conduct and an ample nomenclature, but the

system is that of the Greeks before the time of Aristotle. Formerly they wrote with an iron style on the leaves of the palm and the tuz, but now on paper, and from left to right. The leaves are kept separate and it is not the practice to stitch hem together. Their mystic idealism enlightens the understanding and invigorates the soul. But how shall I proceed? or my heart inclines from speech to silence. Time after time, the ordinary subjects of knowledge, sinking deep into my mind oppress me to use true science, by which stair the oul might rise to insight into truth, as a means to procure ank and wealth, and again, at times, my understanding is uminously inspired not to make bread-winning and pencraft he end of knowledge. The searcher after a formula is anable to express it, of if discovered, the mind suffices not or its full cognition. For this reason, the tongue of speech dheres to the palate of silence and the head of thought sinks nto the collar of depression, although it is said that he whose eisure is undisturbed, may in stillness be inspired to eloquence nd the lover of taciturnity find voice though the inspired imself shall be dumb. But in truth to sully the tongue with tterance is to expose oneself to error. My own spirit is reary with discussion and my tongue oppressed by declaimng. I know not if this be lassitude of the disposition or the est revelation of truth, whether darkness overshadow my ath with confusion or the leader of the caravan on this long urney be not yet arrived. Speech is a beverage filled with bison, and silence is a desert of sweet waters, the hidden surce whereof flows from the possessors of truth. I have ken no quarry better than prayer and have seen no lamp ighter than silence. If my state were not one of such rplexity, and my mind not so averse from lengthened scussion, I would expound the philosophy of the Hindus ter the systems of the Greeks, but as it is, in accordance ith my design, I here set down what befits the scope of this ork and my leisure permits.

DESCRIPTION OF THE NINE SCHOOLS

Naiyāyika is one who is versed in the Nyāya philosophy. Vaiseshika treats likewise of philosophy and its professors will be later on noticed. Vedānti is one who is conversant with the Vedānta System. Mimāmsaka is a follower of the Mimāmsā philosophy. Sānkhya, Pātanjala, Jaina, Bauddha, Nāstika. Each of these is distinct in its doctrine and their several principles will be hereafter explained. The Brahmans consider the last three as heretical and they admit no philosophical systems beyond the first six which they term shaddarsana, that is, the six modes of knowledge. The Nyāya and Vaiseshika agree in many points, as do the Vedānta and Mimāmsā, and the Sānkhya and the Pātanjala.

Nyāya. The founder of this school was the sage Gautama. It comprises within its field, physiology, theology, mathematics, logic and dialectics. Its followers hold the Supreme Being to be exempt from plurality, neither begotten nor begetting, incorporeal and free from all defect. He is without beginning as without end, the Creator, the Preserver, and they regard Him as pure Spirit: but they assert that he created a bodily form and united Himself thereto in a determinate manner; and as the body is capable of action through its union with the soul, so does this corporeal form energize in union with the Deity without sullying the robe of its inviolable sanctity. This doctrine is akin to that of the Christians. The appellations of divinity are conceded to it, but it is not believed to be from all eternity. The Creator of the world, through the instrumentality of this Being, revealed His words unto men, and this revelation they call Veda. It [63] consists of upwards of one hundred thousand verses (sloke) each of which comprises four feet (charana) each foot being of not less than eight or more than twenty-six letters (Akshara). In this book it does not exceed twenty. An akshara consists of either one or two letters: if of two, the last is quiescent. A holy man

named Vyāsa divided this book into four parts to each of which he assigned a separate name, viz., the Rigveda, the Yajurveda, the Samaveda and the Atharvaveda. These four are considered divine books. Some assert that the First Being had four mouths from each of which a Book issued. Every Brahma who appears, wonderful to relate, delivers the same letters and words without diminution or addition.

They maintain that God is the absolute Efficient Cause and that the works of men are produced by these two sources of causation, (viz., God and Brahma). The moral distinctions of good and evil in actions are deduced from the divine books. They believe in hell and heaven. The former they term Naroka and locate it in the lower region. The latter is called Svarga and is assigned to the celestial region. They do not believe in a perpetual duration of existence in either paradise or hell, but that men in the measure of their evil deeds may descend into hell and receive condign punishment, and thence coming forth assume other bodies, and for their good works obtain happiness in heaven, and again issuing from it, return into new forms: thus they will come and go until they have fully received the recompense or punishment of their former deeds, after which freed from the necessity of these two states, they will be liberated from joy and sorrow as will be hereafter related.

Some believe that portions of the world are from eternity and that some are created, as will be afterwards mentioned. They assign eight attributes to the Deity which they call accidents. 1. Gyāna, omniscience, by which He knows the future and the past, all that is secret or manifest, in whole and in part, and ignorance and forgetfulness cannot approach Him. 2. Ichchhā, will. All things at His pleasure are created or fall into nothingness. 3. Prayatna, providential order and the due procession of causes so that existence and non-existence may have their realisation. 4. Sankhyā, numerical series, and this is of three kinds, unity, duality and excess

of these. The first named is an attribute of the Almighty. 5. Pramāna, extent, and this is of four kinds as will be here-inafter mentioned. As they believe God to be omnipresent, his extent must be infinite [64]. 6. Prithaktva, severalty and individuality. As of Sankhya, this is of three kinds, the first being a Divine attribute. 7. Samyoga, co-inherence, because all things unite in Him. 8. Vi-bhāga, disjunction. The last six of these are accounted to have been from all eternity.

Sixteen subjects called predicaments (padārtha), are discussed by this system and these topics comprise all the objects of thought. Although it does not strictly proceed beyond the second, nor, indeed, beyond its subordinate classification of Artha, yet a few details are here set down for information.

THE SIXTEEN PREDICAMENTS.

Pramāna.	2 Prameya.	3 Sansaya.	4 Prayojana.
5 Drishtānta.	6 Siddhānta.	7 Avayava.	8 Tarka.
9 Nirnaya.	10 Vāda.	11 Jalpa.	12 Vitanda.
13 Hetvābhāsa.	14 Chhala.	15 Jäti.	16 Nigraha-sthāna.

The First Predicament, Pramāna (proof), is of four kinds.

1. Pratyaksha, (perception) by the six perfect senses, viz., the five external senses together with manas which will be hereafter explained.

2. Anumāna, inference.

3. Upamāna, resemblance and analogy.

4. Sabda, tradition of trustworthy and pious men. These four are held to embrace a considerable extent of knowledge.

¹ This term is translated by Colebrooke indifferently as category or predicament, and by Dr. Röer as Category. Davies in his Hindu Philosophy, uses predicaments and categories as synonymous (p. 127) in his rendering of padārtha. I have distinguished these sixteen subjects as predicaments to avoid confusing the numbers with the subordinate categories given by Abul Fazl under the heading of artha, the 4th classification of the second predicament, prameya.

The Second Predicament. Prameya signifies the objects of thought, and this which is beyond the reach of numeration, is yet classed under twelve heads. 1. Atman. 2. Sarira.

- 3. Indriya. 4. Artha. 5. Buddhi [65]. 6. Manas.
- 7. Pravritti. 8. Dosha. 9. Pretyabhāva. 10. Phala.
- 11. Duhkha. 12. Apavarga.
- I. Atman, soul, is a subtile, all-pervading substance which is the seat of the understanding, and it is of two kinds. The first kind is Jivātman (the vital principle), which vivifies human bodies and the animal and vegetable creation. Each body is supposed to be informed by a distinct spirit whose perceptions, through the senses and operations of the intellect, can be exercised only in conjunction with the substance manas² to be subsequently explained. The second kind is Paramātman, the Supreme Soul, which they hold to be One and from all eternity. Its intellectual cognitions are independent of the operation of manas.
- II. Sarira, body, is also of two kinds. Yoni-ja (uterine), sexually produced. Ayoni-ja, that which is not so produced. The first mentioned has two further subdivisions, viz., jarāyu-ja, viviparous, and anda-ja, oviparous, and both are formed of the five elements. The latter, ayoni-ja, has four subdivisions. 1. Pārthiva, formed of earth; 2. Apya, formed of water; 3. Taijasa of fire. 4. Vāyaviya, of air.
- III. Indriya,³ signifies the five organs of sense together with Manas (the internal organ), a subtile substance intimately connected with the cone-shaped human heart. It is the source

These are: the eye, the ear, the nose, the tongue and the skin; the five organs of action being the voice, the hands, the feet, the arms and the organs of generation. Manas or mind, is the

The distinction between the sensitive material organ manas and the rational conscious soul jivātman, is the thimos and phrên, of Pythagoras, one perishing with the body, the other immortal, v. Colebrooke. Essays, 1, 442. For the Hindu conception of the mind, see Hastings, Encyclo. i. 137 (mind), ii. 824-831 (brain and mind), i. 774-778 (body and mind), ii. 773 (body and future life.) The Nyāya system in ibid. 442 and the Atomic theory in ii. 199-201. [J. S.]

of perception, and it is by its action, they consider, that a man roams in imagination through distant countries. In contradistinction to *Atman*, it is not considered to be all-pervading, but the Mimāmsa School maintain that it possesses this quality.

IV. Artha (objects of sense). Under this head are seven categories [66].
1. Dravya.
2. Guna.
3. Karman.
4. Sāmānya.
5. Visesha.
6. Samavāya.
7. Abhāva.

The first signifies substance, which they conceive to be all-pervading and eternal, while with regard to the four elements, its indivisible atoms only are held to be eternal in duration. (It is subdivided into) Atman; Manas; Akāsa; the four elements, kāla and dis.

The first two have been already mentioned. The third is a subtile fluid, all-pervading, and has the quality of sound. The four elements are recognised after the system of the Greeks, but air is regarded as the highest in order. Kāla

organ of the bodily senses. By union with the external senses it produces knowledge of exterior objects. Its office is to separate the sensations and to present them singly to the soul; since the soul does not receive more than one perception at the same instant. The Manas is minutely small as an atom: for otherwise it might come into connection with many things or sensations at one time. It is eternal and distinct both from soul and body. Davies, Hind. Phil., pp. 21, 122.

Phil., pp. 21, 122.

This first category dranya (substance) is subdivided by Davies into nine divisions. I Earth (prithivi); 2 water (āpas); 3 light (tejas); 4 air (vāyu); 5 Ether (ākāsa); 6 time (kāla); 7 space (dis);

8 Soul (ātman); 9 mind (manas), p. 128.

Substance is defined by Kanada to be the substrate of qualities and actions and possessing intimate causality. This is explained in the commentary of Bhāshā Parichcheda to be the substrate of qualities either in the relation of intimate union (Samavāya Sambandha) or in the relation of antecedent negation (Prāgabhāva) that is, of future existence. The latter definition is to obviate an objection which may be raised from the condition of substances at the time of their production. When substances are produced, they have, according to the Nyāya, no qualities. If they have no qualities, they are no substances according to the definition that substances are the substrate of qualities. By the second definition that they are substrates of qualities either in the relation of intimate union, or of future existence, this objection is removed. Categories of the Nyāya Philosophy. Dr. E. Röer, p. 3.

time,⁵ is a substance impalpable and universal. Dis, space, has the same character.

Attributes are of the following six kinds. (1) Karman, action, the third category, is divided into five varieties, progressive action, upward and downward action, contraction and dilatation, and is non-eternal. (2) The fourth category is Sāmānya,⁶ community, and is one, expresses existence, and denotes qualities. Its generic character is eternal, and it resides in substance, quality, and action. It is also called Jāti Sāmānya (generic community) and secondly Upādhi (discriminative or specific) Sāmānya; it has an objective existence, having qualities common to all objects.

- (3) The fifth category Visesha, particularity, is an attribute, being of its own essence dissociated from everything, has a separate resting-place, and is based only upon eternal matter. Prithaktva, individuality, is, on the other hand, a quality, and although it implies disjunction, it does not do so to the same degree, and is not in the same manner distinguished.
- (4) The sixth category, Samavāya, denotes the co-inherence of five entities with their correlatives, such as (1) movement and its author; (2) quality and substance; (3) matter

Davies' definition is that it expresses only existence in its highest degree, and is the source of our notion of genus. It denotes also species as indicating a class, these genera and species having

a real objective existence.

Time is inferred from the relation of priority and subsequence other than that of place. It is marked by association of objects with the sun's revolutions. Space is inferred from the relation of priority and subsequence other than that of time. It is deduced from the notion of here and there. Davies, p. 130.

The difference between this and the following term is explained as follows by Prof. Cowell, "Particularity is the individuality which characterises simple substances,—it is 'their ultimate. and not further explicable difference'. All compound substances from jars down to the combination of two atoms, are mutually separated by the difference of their component parts, but particularity is the only mutual difference of atoms. This difference is differenced through itself only." Siddh-Muktav. Colebrooke. I. n. p. 308.

and the thing made, as clay and the vessel of clay, yarn and and its cloth; (4) the whole and its component parts; (5) particularity and eternal matter.

Strangely enough they regard Samavāya⁸ as one and eternal. This school classes co-inherence under three heads. The first as mentioned above, and if it occurs between two substances, it is termed Samyoga, simple conjunction, as is stated in the mention of qualities, and they consider it to possess plurality. Secondly, the connection of the immaterial with the material, as the soul with the body. This they call Svarupa, natural form.

(5) The seventh category is abhāva, privation or negation, and is of two kinds. Samsargābhāva universal and anyonyābhāva, mutual negation between two things, as one might say "this is not that". This reciprocal negation must be one in time and place.

The first kind includes three species: (1), prāgabhāva, antecedent negation; [67] (2), pradhanasābhāva, emergent negation; (3), atyantābhāva, absolute negation, that is a negation of what is not one in place, while one in time as, "Zayd standing on the bank of the river, is lost in the desert."

(6) Attributes that do not come under these last five categories are qualities and termed guna, (second category)

* Quality is closely united with substance; not, however, as an intimate cause of it, nor consisting in motion, but common: not a

Numerically it is one, and then it is the same Samavāya that connects a jar, and its colour in India, and another jar &c., in Europe, and that connected Adam's soul with its qualities, and that of the reader's with its own. They affirm that substance may want qualities altogether as the latter are not produced till after the production of the substances themselves, so that a jar, when first produced, may be devoid of colour, smell, taste and tangibility, and in the next moment become endowed with them. A whole has no qualities, whereas its parts have, by the relation called Samavāya. Smoke is said to reside in a place by relation of Samyoga and in its parts by Samavāya. Therefore by asserting that whenever there is amoke there is fire, they contradict it by this distinction, for smoke, besides residing in a given place by Samyoga, resides by Samavāya, in its own parts, where fire is not. V. Dr. Fitz-Edward Hall, p. 94-5.

of which there are twenty-four varieties: (1), Rupa, colour (or form) of which five are elementary, namely, red, yellow, blue, black, white, the other colours being compounded of these; (2), Rasa, savour. This is of six kinds; sweet, bitter, acid, saline pungent and astringent; (3), Gandha, odour; (4), Sparsa, tangibility, that is the perception of touch which is of three kinds, cold, hot, and temperate; (5), Sankhya, number which is also of three kinds, unity, duality, and plurality; (6), Parimana, quantity, which is of four kinds, (a) anu, atomic, (B) hrasva, 10 the measure of two atoms, also called dvy-anuka, (7) dirgha, the measure of three or more atoms, () mahat, (vast) the measure of the ethereal firmament and the like; (7), Prithaktva, individuality, distinguishes one of two things from the other. It is in itself common to all, and is not defined in the same manner as visesha. It is of three kinds, as for instance, "one is unlike that", or "two or more are unlike it"; (8), Samyoga, is the conjunction of two substances, eternal and non-eternal, which are united by a mutual attraction. They do not consider it to be one, like samavāya; (9), Vibhāga, disjunction; (10), Purvatva, priority in time and place; (11), Aparatva, posteriority; (12), Buddhi, intellect; (13), Sukha, pleasure; (14) Duhkha, pain; (15), Ichchhā, desire; (16), Duesha, aversion; (17), Prayatna, volition or effort; (18), Gurutva, gravity. [68] Lightness is not held to be quality, but the negation of gravity: (19), Dravatva, fluidity; (20), Sneha, viscidity; (21) Sanskara, reproduction (of thought) which is of three kinds. (a) Vega (Sanskāra) (velocity)" a quality which springs from mobility and

genus, yet appertaining to one. It is independent of conjunction and disjunction, not the cause of them, nor itself endued with qualities. Colebrooke, Essays, I. 296.

This word in Sanskrit signifies, less, little, small, short, and in grammar a short vowel. Doy-anuka, is transliterated by Abul Fazi, dinkua. Dirgha signifies the quantity of a long vowel.

Rajendralāla Mitra in his translation of the Yogas of Pātanjali thus expresses himself:— 'The most important word in the appearance is Sanskāra which has unfortunataly not bear

the aphorism is Sanskara which has unfortunately not been

produces motion, like the flight of an arrow from the bow, for according to this school, motion is destroyed in the third moment after its production, and hence this quality must of necessity be called into action and produce moment. (β) (Bhāvanā) Sanskāra thinking, is a special characteristic of the reasoning faculty, and since knowledge does not endure in the mind beyond the space of three moments of time, recourse to this quality is imperative, and through the operation of the intellect, analogy, induction or intuition becomes the effective cause of the recollection of what has passed from the mind. (7) Sthitisthapaka, elasticity, that is the resilience of what is bent to the contrary direction. (22), dharma, 12 merit, or the state of rectitude in the intelligent soul. (23), adharma, demerit. This school believes that souls through these two qualities, assume various bodily forms, and receive their due recompense in sorrow or joy. The first have their portion in Paradise: the second, in hell, and the world of death is the ultimate end of both. (24), sabda, sound.

The rational soul is distinguished by fourteen qualities:
(1) intellect, (2) pleasure, (3) pain, (4) desire, (5) aversion,
(6) effort, (7) merit, (8) demerit, (9) thinking, (10) number,
(11) quantity, (12) individuality, (13) conjunction, (14) disjunction. The first nine are inseparable from it, while number (viz., unity), quantity, individuality, conjunction, dis-

explained in the commentary of Bhoja or in the Pitanjala Bhāshya. In ordinary Sanskrit it has many meanings. In the Nyāya it occurs in three different senses, velocity (vega), thinking (bhāvanā) and elasticity (sthitisthāpaka). Adverting to the second meaning the Bhāshā Parichcheda says: Sanskāra, called thinking (bhāvanā) resides in sentient beings and is imperceptible to the senses.

¹² The commentators, who are generally under a Vedantic influence, explain virtue, dharma, as including humanity, benevolence, acts of restraint (yama) and of obligation (niyama). Acts of restraint, according to Gandapāda, are restraint of cruelty, falsehood, dishonesty, incontinence and avarice! Acts of obligation are purification, contentment, religious austerities, sacred study and divine worship. Davies, p. 57.

junction, and sound, are referrible to ether. Sound is its chief characteristic. With the exception of sound, these five are qualities of time and space, and the eight formed by these four together, with priority, posteriority and velocity are qualities of manas: - Tangibility, number, quantity, individuality, conjunction, disjunction, priority, posteriority and velocity are the nine accidents of air. Colour, tangibility, number, quantity, individuality, conjunction, disjunction, priority, posteriority, fluidity, velocity, are the eleven qualities of light (fire), and motion and tangibility, are its characteristics. Colour, taste, tangibility, number, quantity, individuality, conjunction, disjunction, priority, posteriority, gravity, fluidity, viscidity and velocity are the fourteen qualities of water. Motion, viscidity, and tangibility are its characteristics. The same fourteen are likewise those of earth, substituting for viscidity odour which abides in earth alone.

[69] Eternal qualities. Of these, six characterise the deity, viz., intellect, desire, effort (one), number (i.e., unity), vastness of quantity (one), and individuality. Three qualities connote the vital principle, (jivātman), the mind (manas) and ether, time and space, viz., quantity (one), number (unity), individuality. Four belong to the indivisible atoms of air, tangibility (one), number, quantity (one), individuality. Five to atoms of light (fire), colour, tangibility (one), number, quantity (one), individuality. Nine to those of water; viz., colour, savour, tangibility, viscidity (one), number, quantity (one), individuality, gravity, and fluidity. Four to those of earth, viz., number (unity), quantity (one), individuality, and gravity. They affirm that qualities, in their non-eternal (transitory) aspects, including desire, effort, and intellect, are sited in other than the Deity, and pleasure, pain, aversion and sound are produced in one moment of time, do not endure to the second, and are lost in the third, and the rest are not of great length of permanence.

Eight qualities are universal: number, quantity, individuality, conjunction, disjunction, priority, posteriority, gravity. Four are incident to all substances: namely, conjunction, disjunction, number other than unity, and individuality likewise not single. Those that alone are united in manas, are held to be intellect, pleasure, pain, desire, aversion, and effort. Such as are cognisable by inference are merit, demerit, thinking and gravity.

This much will suffice for example from among a multiplicity of division of these qualities.

Having now discussed the various categories of artha, I come to the fifth classification of Prameya, namely,

V. Buddhi¹³ (intellect). Although it has been mentioned under the second category (guna) of artha, a somewhat more extended explanation will be of service. It is two-fold: (1) anubhava, (notion or concept), which is produced by means of the four kinds of proof, ¹³ and (2) smriti, ¹³ recollection, which is effected through bhāvanā sanskāra, (present consciousness

¹³ In the system of Kapila, buddhi is the faculty or organ, by which outward objects are presented to the view of the soul in their proper and definite form, and he assigns to it every quality or state that is connected with the active life, as its primary sust and the first emanation of Nature (Prakriti). Davies, p. 57.

¹⁴ These are pratyaksha (perception), anumāna (inference), upāmāna (analogy) and sabda (verbal testimony). To these four kinds of proof of the Nyāya or logical school, the Vedantic adds arthāpatti (presumption) an informal kind of inference; as, "Devadatta does not eat by day and yet is fat, it is presumed therefore that he eats by night"; and abhāva (non-existence), a method of proof from an impossibility, or a 'reductio ad absurdum' as, "there can be no flowers in the sky." Davies, p. 24.

¹⁵ Smriti signifies also tradition, the institutes of law as opposed to sruti, the Veda or revelation. The laws of the Hindus, civil and religious, are believed by them to be founded on revelation, of which the Vedas are preserved in the very words. Another portion has been preserved by inspired writers who having revelations present to their memory, have recorded holy precepts for which divine sanction is presume. The latter is smriti, recollection, (remembered law), in contradistinction to sruti, audition, revealed law. Colebrooke.

of past ideas). Anubhava is of two kinds, a right notion or a wrong one. A wrong notion, i.e. (one not derived from proof) is threefold, namely, sansaya, doubt; viparyaya, error, and tarka, false premises. This last is a padartha (predicament) and will be explained in its place.

- VI. Manas, 16 although referred to under substance, requires to be mentioned next in order.
- VII. Pravritti, activity, or employing the mind, tongue and other organs in good and evil works. They maintain that four functions are necessary to an outward action, knowing, willing, resolving and bodily motion.
- VIII. Dosha, (fault) they assert to be a cause of prayatna (effort), and is of three kinds; raga, passion or extreme desire, duesha, aversion; and moha, delusion of mind.
- [70] IX. Pretyabhāva, (transmigration) signifies life, after death and the union of the soul with the body, followed by death after life and dissolution succeeding connection.
 - X. Phala (retribution) is the fruit of merit and demerit.
- XI. Duhkha, is the opposite of Sukha, joy, which is not here introduced, as the pleasures of this world are by them accounted misery.

Is the first of the internal organs receiving the impression made upon the senses. Primordial matter, the Elei of the Greeks, produced buddhi or intellect, from which proceeded Ahankāra or egotism, and from this latter proceed the five organs of sense (indriya) and the five organs of action, and lastly Manas, the receptive or discriminating faculty. The tongue is classed as an organ of action, and the faculty of speech is as much sensation as touching or walking. The Manas has the nature of both classes, being formative or plastic and a sense organ. In the Sānkhya system of Kapila, it is not to be confounded with mind or the rational faculty of the soul, but is regarded as a form of matter. I refer the reader to Davies' work whence I have taken in scattered notices the substance of the above, and to Colebrooke. This dismal philosophy is curious as an intellectual product, the precursor of the ghastly metaphysics of Hartmann and Schopenhauer. The Hindu has the merit of originality and a better excuse.

XII. Apavarga, (emancipation) is eternal release from pain. There are twenty-one varieties of pain, or evil, and these reside in the six organs of sense, the six objects (vishaya) of sensation, the six mental apprehensions that proceed from them, the body which is the centre of evil, pleasure itself which is filled with pain, and pain. In short, pain signifies all that men are averse from and by which distress occurs. The attainment of that state where these effects disappear, is called mukti, or final emancipation, where the soul rests without perception or consciousness, is no longer connected with the body and is delivered from heaven and hell. They consider the union of the soul with body which they call janman (birth).17 as the source of pain. Its existence is due to merit and demerit, and through its companionship with the soul, it receives the recompense of good and evil. The cause of this is karman (action), from which proceeds befitting time. or unsuitable deed and pain or pleasure. Yatna (effort), which is synonymous with prayatna, and pravritti, activity, produce these consequences, and this in turn results from raga or passion, which springs from mithyājnāna,18 erroneous opinion, originated by bhāvanā sanskāra. By mortification of spirit and body and by good works, the means of perfect knowledge are secured, resulting in the attainment of perfected capacities. Ignorance is destroyed, true knowledge acquired, and the flux and reflux of existence vanish for ever.

Some say that when the intelligence attains its highest illumination, error and ignorance are annihilated and with them raga and dvesha, that is passion and aversion depart,

which estops release from the world.

¹⁷ In every form of earthly life, the soul is united to its own peculiar vehicle or body, but is not blended with it but enveloped by it. By this is meant, not the gross material body which perishes at each migration, but the linga, the subtle umbra or sheath formed from the substance of the three internal organs, and the finer elements of matter (tanmatra). For Body and Soul, see Hastings' Encyclo, xi. 742-744. [J. S.]

18 Mithyā-jnāna is used to signify that special misapprehension

and hence pravritti, activity, is extirpated, and by its disappearance janman (birth), is no more, and pain and grief are dissolved and mukti brings everlasting bliss. Another opinion is that tattvajnana, true knowledge, dispels mithyaināna, or error, which causes the subversion of desire, which overwhelms prayatna. By its fall karman (action) is subverted and overturns with it dharma and adharma (merit and demerit). Janman (birth), thus, is swept away carrying with it duhkha (pain) in its overthrow. The Nyāya school assert that when the material body perishes, knowledge dies with it. Perfect knowledge depends upon three conditions: (1) sravana, hearing, and studying the Vedas and the existing traditions of the sages, and this cannot be attained except by the aid of one who has travelled this road: [71] (2) manana, consideration, by which the sacred books and the precepts of the virtuous are when apprehended, studiously illumined by proofs that convince the mind. The effect of this study, according to one opinion, issues in a speculation as to the nature of the rational soul and whether it is not apart from all else; 19 (3) nididhyāsana, profound contemplation; by frequent reflection and reiterated thought on the objects of contemplation in their entirety, the mind becomes habitually absorbed herein and advancing beyond the objective sensations of sight and deed, becomes the recipient of truth.

It is asserted that the contemplation of the rational soul may be so continuous as not to be interrupted. When these three conditions are fulfilled with diligence and unwavering resolve, a sublime knowledge is attained and liberation secured from pain and pleasure and the fetters of the corpo-

¹⁰ In Kapila's system, the soul is solitary and perfectly distinct from matter and therefore from the modifications the modes of Nature produce. It beholds as an eye-witness, for insight and cognition are not properties of matter. It is neutral (Madhyastha, lit. standing between) "as a wandering ascetic is lonely and unconcerned, while the villagers are being engaged in agriculture". The soul in its regal grandeur, has no part in the inferior life of action. It directs as a sovereign but does not work. Davies.

real state. This school professes the doctrine of Kāyavyuha, multiplication of bodies.²⁰

They maintain that when any of the specially favoured are illumined by the light of this knowledge, and are cognisant of their past existences and future destiny, and know that a course of further transmigration awaits them, and desire to complete it, they receive a special power from the Supreme Being, and in a brief space receive these various forms and endure the pains and pleasures of life with the same spirit and the same intelligence, and when these forms pass away, attain eternal bliss. It is also said that all men will? arrive at final emancipation, and that though the world is without a beginning, birth and production will eventually cease.

The third predicament Sansaya, doubt, is three-fold: (1), it may arise from the sight of objects with common qualities, as for example, an object may be seen from a distance, and not distinctly, known whether it be a tree or a man, and the like; (2), cause of doubt is likewise (a non-general or special attribute) in regard to a particular object which is separate from the notion of eternal or non-eternal, substance or quality, and the doubt arises whether it be eternal or non-eternal, substance or quality: (3), Cause of doubt lies also in controversy when a subject may be the occasion of contradictory affirmation and denial between two learned disputants.

aphorisms of Patanjali. "When a Yogi, who has a mastery over the cardinal principles. with a view to enjoy at once the fruits of his actions, from the perception of his own superior transcendental powers, wishes to assume many bodies at the same time, whence does he derive many thinking principles" (to vitalize these bodies)? In reply the author says: "the created thinking principles (proceed) solely from egoism." That is, that his own consciousness or rather his absolute Ego, (for Fitchte distinguishes between the two) by force of will evolves the power, as fire emits sparks. Vide Rājendra-lāla Mitra's translation, p. 171-72.

²¹ A variant, the reading of one MS., has a negative. According to the Sănkhya (and Mimāmsa) systems, acquiring knowledge and thus gaining deliverance from contact with matter is the privilege of the few rather than a duty manifest on all. See Davies, p. 114.

The fourth predicament, Prayojana, motive, is that which necessarily precedes and produces an effect and is termed causality. Of this there are not accounted more than three kinds: (1), the presence of efficient conditions and means is termed nimitta kārana, or instrumental causality: (2), the material cause is samavāyi kārana, intimate or direct causality: (3), the indirect or non-intimate causality is called asamavāyi kārana.22 Cause is termed kārana and effect kārya, and sāmagri is total causality, (the aggregate of conditions necessary for the forming of either, a material product or a physical state). This subject is treated in Sanskrit philosophy under the first predicament.

[72] The fifth predicament is Drishtanta, instance or example, showing invariable connection (between subject and

predicate).

The sixth redicament, is Siddhanta, dogma or determinate truth.

The seventh predicament is Avayava, (members of a) syllogism. This consists of five members.23 I. Pratijna, the

23 The members are these:-

This hill is fiery. For it smokes.

Whatever smokes is fiery.

4. This hill is smooth.
5. Therefore it is fiery. This hill is smoking.

Sound is non-eternal.

2. Because it is produced.

Whatever is produced is non-eternal.

Sound is produced. 4.

5. Therefore it is non-eternal.

Some confine the syllogism to three members, either the first three or the last. In the latter form it is the syllogism of Aristotle. According to Röer, the Nyāya knows only the two first figures of syllogism, and of these only the two moods Barbara and Camestres. A complete syllogism is properly termed nyāya, the five members or component parts are called avayava.

ss The usual order is the intimate, non-intimate and instru-mental. An instance of the first, is thread from which cloth is made; for the second the conjunction of the threads; for the third, the loom. Intimate causality belongs to substances. non-intimate causality to qualities and actions. Röer, p. 10.

proposition, as in the statement, "there is fire in this hill". Il. Hetu, the concomitant reason supporting the proposition, "for it smokes", by which the presence of fire is apprehended which is the ground for the inference, and this, in regard to the invariable connection (between subject and predicate), is threefold. If the necessary connection is affirmative, it is called kevalānvayin (concomitancy of affirmatives), and if negative, kevala-vyatirekin (concomitancy of negatives), and if both, anvaya-vyatirekin (affirmative and negative induction). Of this third kind five members are necessary for a complete syllogism. (1) Paksha sattva24 (subject of the conclusion) where the subject to be proved is supposed to be in a given place. (2) Sapaksha sattva (similar instance, involving the major term) where the place of the subject and predicate are with certainty known or inferred as smoke and fire in a kitchen hearth. (3) Vipaksha sattva (negative instance) where the subject and predicate exclude each other as water (and fire). (4) Abādhita vishayatva, non-negation of the object of proof (by other proof). (5) Asatpratipakshatva, (nonequalisation), where there is no counterbalancing reason proving the negation of what is to be proved. In the first classification of Hetu, (kevalanvayin), the third of these five is absent. In the second, (kevala-vyatirekin), the second of the five is absent.

III. Udhāharana, the instance or example. The subject of a proposition is called vyāpya: the predicate is the vyāpaka,

These and the following terms are thus rendered in Dr. Richard Garbe's translation of Aniruddha's commentary on the Sānkhya Sutras. 'By means of a syllogism construed in this manner we discern (1), that the invariably concomitated (vyāpya) is an attribute of the subject of the conclusion (paksha-dharmatva), (2), that the vyāpya exists in those things in which the invariable concomitant (vyāpaka) undoubtedly exists (sapaksha-sattva), (3), that the vyāpya is excluded from those things from which the vyāpaka is also excluded (vipakshādvyāvrittih). (4) that no equally strong reason can be adduced against the reason which proves the proposition (asat-pratipakshatva), (5), that the vyāpya is no such that its object does not exist in the subject of the conclusion (abādhita-vishayatva),

and vyāpti, pervasion [73] or invariable concomitance, is the mutual relation of the subject and predicate.

IV. Upanaya is the application of the reason to the subject in question.

Nigamana is the conclusion. Although it lies implicate in the major premiss, it forms the statement in the general proposition and becomes the consequent in the fifth.

The eighth predicament Tarka, is inadmissible conclusion at variance with proof, that is, the perception of a deduction from wrong premises.25 By its statement the disputant removes the doubt in the relation of subject and predicate. For instance to one who denied the existence of fire (in the hill) he would rejoin that without it there could be no smoke, of which fire is the cause.

The ninth predicament is Nirnaya, (ascertainment), or a certainty of conclusion on the completion of proof.

The tenth Vāda, (controversy) is the expression of their respective views of a subject by two seekers after knowledge. supported by reasons brought forward with good feeling, and in the interests of truth, allowing neither their several convictions nor self-assertion to influence them. Verily such courteous26 disputants, like the phænix, move with steps that leave no trace.

The eleventh Jalpa, or wrangling, is the debate of disputants contending for victory.

The twelfth is Vitanda, objection or cavilling: The object of one disputant being the advancement of what is true and reasonable, and of the other to dispute his statements.

ingenuity that is rare, but courtesy and good temper.

²⁵ The text is corrupt. The words of the Tarka Sangraha, are thus translated by Vidyā Sāgara, Reductio ad absurdum or Tarka is that which consists in founding the pervader (vyāpya) (here supposed to be denied) through the allegation of the pervaded (vyāpaka here supposed to be taken for granted). As for instance: If there were not fire (which you do not grant), there would not be smoke (which you admit there is). V. 68.

26 I would read farohindah for farohidah. It is not wisdom nor

The thirteenth is *Hetvābhāsa*, fallacy. This is a syllogism with the semblance of a reason, of which there are five kinds. If this predicament were placed in order above *Vāda*, the tenth, or below the three following, it would be more in place.

The fourteenth is Chhala, perversion of an adversary's

statement through malice, and disputing it.

The fifteenth is Jāti, futility, or a reply both irrelevant and reprehensible, advanced with speciousness and cavilling. This is of twenty-four kinds.

The sixteenth predicament is Nigrahasthana, the confutation of an adversary, and is of twenty-two kinds.

Each of these sixteenth subjects have numerous questions arising out of them, supported by a variety of opinions, arguments and instances.

It is believed that whosoever apprehends these sixteen in their integrity, is released from further birth and death, lives in freedom from pleasure and pain, and attains his final end by three degrees of knowledge: viz. (1), uddesha, (enunciation), by which he distinguishes the name of each of these sixteen predicaments and bears them in memory; [74] (2) lakshana, (definition), by which he arrives at their essential truth; (3) parikshā (investigation), by which he ascertains the sufficiency and pertinence of their definition.

This school, though not acknowledging that the world had a beginning, yet believes in its final destruction. This they term pralaya, which is of two kinds.

In the first, Brahmā slumbers in the chamber of non-existence, and appears no more, and all created forms perish. His absolute cause is the divine will, the completion of a decreed period and the coming of an appointed time. When this time arrives, by the will of God, merit and demerit cease to exist, and by the same divine will, the indivisible atoms (of primordial matter) are set in agitation, from which

bhāga, (disjunction), is brought into reality, and samyoga (union from contiguity) is dissolved. First the globe of the earth, next fire, followed by air and water are successively destroyed and creation ceases to exist and all souls attain final emancipation. This is termed mahāpralaya. In the second, is the final emancipation of Brahma, which is called Khanda-pralaya (partial dissolution). In this, with the exception of merit and demerit, present consciousness, and action, all else perish. At the close of one hundred extraordinary vears.28 of which mention has been made. Brahma attains this accomplishment of desire. After the lapse of this period, a succeeding Brahmā is born. Another opinion is that there are four dissolutions. Besides the above two, there is a third when right apprehension is taken up from mankind and this will happen at the close of a cycle of the four ages. The fourth is the dissolution of each particular thing which is called its pralaua, as when the manas first dissolves its connection with the rational soul, and following this, when the union of soul and body is then severed.29

eternal in its parts. An atom is defined thus: "an atom is; what exists has no cause and is without beginning and end: an atom is contrary to what has a measure." Röer, p. 14. Colour, taste and the like are said to be eternal, or otherwise according to the substances in which they exist, these two being eternal in the atoms of water and light but in other substances have a cause. The atomic nature of the mind is inferred from the fact that several objects of knowledge are not perceived by it at once.

I believe vibhaga is here meant, and the suffix has been omitted by the error of a copyist. This is undoubtedly the sense of the passage.

Kali multiplied by a thousand, constitute a day of Brahmā; his night is of equal duration, and of such days and nights is the year of Brahmā composed. One hundred such years constitute his whole life. A great Kalpa, as distinguished from a minor Kalpa, is properly not a day but a life of Brahmā. Vishnu Purāna, Wilson, pp. 23, 25, 6.

by the Vishnu Purāna. 1. Naimittika occasional; Prākritika,

The (renewed) creation of the world is called srishti. Through the volition of the Supreme Being, and after the lapse of ages and at the advent of a special time, merit and demerit recover their sway, and the indivisible atoms of matter are again moved. Two atoms first combine: this is called dvy-anuka; then three dvy-anukas unite and are named try-anuka; the union of four dvy-anukas is termed chatur-anuka, and thus they gradually coalesce, till numerous forms are manifested, and contrariwise to their dissolution, they are produced in the following order: air, fire, water, earth, and subsequently. Brahmā, Vishnu and Mahādeva. The three last are not apparent to the light of vision but assume shape and are beneficent in their operation. From air spring aerial forms which reside in Vāyuloka, a [75] sphere above the earth, and the sense of touch and the blowing wind whose energising

elemental; Atyantika, absolute; Nitya, perpetual The first. also termed the Brahmā dissolution, occurs when the sovereign of the world reclines in sleep. In the second, the mundane egg resolves into the primary element from whence it was derived. Absolute non-existence of the world, is the absorption of the sage through knowledge into supreme spirit. Perpetual destruction is the constant disappearance, day and night, of all that are born. Vishnu Purāna, 56. The first three kinds are very powerfully described in the 6th book, the fourth chapter of which represents the elemental dissolution in very striking language. The third kind, involving the final liberation from existence, is the subject of the 5th Chapter, where the sufferings of infancy, manhood and old age are pourtrayed in a manner not surpassed in power by any description in literature. With no hope beyond the grave, with hell for the wicked and no cessation from pain even in heaven, whose inhabitants are tormented with the prospect of descending again to earth, no wonder that exemption from birth was the desire of the wise, and annihilation the last hope of those who were doomed to the sorrows of conception, birth and decay.

the properties of sound and the rest, existed as distinguishable according to their qualities, but possessing various energies they could not without combination create living beings. Having combined therefore, they assumed the character of entire unity and from the direction of spirit with the acquiescence of the indiscrete Principle, Intellect and the rest, to the gross elements inclusive, formed an egg. This vast egg was the abode of Vishnu in the form of Brahmā." Vishnu Purāna, p. 18.

essence is called in Sanskrit, prana (vital breath), of which there are five kinds 11 as will be related.

From fire (light) spring fiery bodies dwelling in Aditya-loka³¹ which is the sphere of the sun, and vision and the modes of heat. From water are the aqueous bodies dwelling in Varunaloka³² which is said to be near the mountain Sumeru, and the rudiment of taste and the seas and ice and hail. From earth, are earthly forms, and the rudiment of smell, minerals, plants and animals. Brahmā by his volition first brings into being all (immovable)³³ forms produced without generation,

³¹ These are (1) prāna, breath, the ordinary inspiration and expiration.

⁽²⁾ Apana, downward breath, the air or vital force acting in

the lower parts of the body.

⁽³⁾ Samana, collective breath, so named from conducting equally the food, &c., through the body.

⁽⁴⁾ Udena, separate breath, the vital force that causes the pulsations of the arteries in the upper portions of the body from the navel to the head.

⁽⁵⁾ Vyāna, separate breath, by which internal division and diffusion through the body are effected.

These airs are not the elemental air, but subtle inward forces necessary to vitality and the efficacy of the organic functions of the human frame. Davies, pp. 66, 67.

A name of the sun; his car is presided over by a troop of

A name of the sun; his car is presided over by a troop of seven celestial beings who in turn, occupy his orb during several months of the year. Their names are given in the Vishnu Purana (p. 234). They are the agents in the distribution of cold, heat and rain at their respective seasons. Their number was subsequently increased to twelve, representing the months of the year.

Varuna a name which corresponds with Otranos, was appointed to the sovereignty of the waters, according to the Vishnu Purāna (p. 153) and was likewise an Aditya, but his functions reached far beyond this sphere and he was considered anciently as sovereign ruler of the three worlds. The planets, the winds, the waters were equally in his power, and his attributes raised him to a height of moral grandeur above that of any of the Vedic deities.

Dr. Dowson who quotes Muir.

33 The creation of the creator in his abstraction was the fivefold immovable world without intellect or reflection, and void of
perception and sensation, and destitute of motion. Since immovable things were first created, this is called the first creation. Vish.
Pur. 34. These, Wilson observes, are final productions, or the
forms in which the previously created elements and faculties are
more or less perfectly aggregated. By immovable things are meant
the mineral and vegetable kingdoms.

and wonderful are the details they give herein, and it is said that a single eternal volition of the Deity at their appointed times operates to create and destroy. The creative will is called *Chikirshā* (desire to act) and the destructive will *Sanji-hirshā* (desire to take away).

Their works are in a five-fold series. (1) Sutra, a short technical sentence: (2) bhāshya, commentary on a somewhat difficult sutra: (3) vārttika, a critical annotation on the two: (4) tikā, commentary (properly of the original or of another commentary) on No. 3; (5) nibandha, an explanation of technical rules. Another opinion is that the series runs to twelve. Besides those enumerated, (6) vritti, a brief elucidation of some complicated subjects in the first-mentioned; (7) nirukta. etymological interpretation of a word. Sound is held to be of two kinds, (a) inarticulate, which is termed dhvani (sound, noise), and (β) articulate, varna (a letter.) also called akshara. The junction of several letters is called pada, a word, and several words in connection form, vākya, a sentence, and a collection of these make a sutra, or aphorism, and several sutras are called prakarana (article or section). These last again when connected are [76] termed āhnika, and an aggregate of the latter, adhyāya, which combined together compose a sästra or didactic work. In some treatises, ambiguities are discussed regarding the definitions of pada which are therein resolved: '(8) prakarana, is a section treating of one or two topics: (9) āhnika, a short task sufficing for a diurnal lesson: (10) parisishta, a supplement to a technical work: (11) paddhati, a manual of the texts relating to each of the six sciences in prescribed order: (12) sangraha, an epitome of the sciences. These classes of works are not confined to this school alone. Vrajua is a compendium or homogeneous collection, and instead of the divisions into sections and chapters, the following ten words are used.

(1) anka, (2) uchchvēsa, (3) serga, (4) visrēma, (5) ullēsa, (6) patala, (7) adhyāya, (8) uddesa, (9) adhina, (10) tantra.

The Nyāya philosophy is divided into five adhyāyas. The first gives a list of the sixteen subjects to be discussed, and a definition of each. The second deals with the detail of pramāna (proof or evidence) and accurate knowledge and the like. The third is on the six kinds of objects of thought, namely, soul; body; organs of sense; objects of sense; intellect and mind. The fourth treats of its remaining heads. The fiffth is on jāti (futility) and nigrahasthāna (confutation of an adversary). Although the system of Kanāda is antecedent in date, yet since the Nyāya treats of a multiplicity of subjects, and is generally the first studied, I have given it priority of place.

VAISESHIKA.

This great system of science owes its origin to Kanāda.³⁴ It agrees in the main, with the Nyāya, differing from it only on a few points.

In the works of this school, seven predicaments are named which comprise the entire scheme. [77] These are dravya, substance, guna, quality, karman, action, sāmānya, community, visesha, particularity, samavaya intimate relation, and abhāva, negation. Of pramāna, proof or evidence, they accept only pratyaksha, (perception) and anumāna³³ (inference). The change in qualities occurring in the process

The text has atman, a copyist's error for anumana, which it would closely resemble even to the diacritical points. The Vaiseshika system differs from the Nyāya in this very point, admitting only two kinds of proof, perception and inference.

The Vaiseshika school as represented by Kanāda, the reputed author of the Vaiseshika system, in Hastings, Encycl., xii. 568-570. [J. S.] Of Kanāda little is known. The Vaiseshika system is one of physical science; the Nyāya deals with elementary, metaphysical notions, and the forms of the syllogism, and is the standard work in logic among the Hindus. I refer the reader for a critical account of the system to the introduction to the Categories by Dr. E. Röer, Colebrooke (Miscellaneous casays), to the Dialogues on Hindu Philosophy by Dr. K. M. Banerjea and Dr Fitz-Edward Hall's Refutation of Hindu Philosophy.

The text has ātman, a copyist's error for anumāna, which

of cooking termed pāka-ja,36 arises from the sun's rays or heat of the fire. These qualities are colour, taste, smell and tangibility.

The Naiyāyikas assert that bodily substance is unchanged, whether in its natural state or under the influence of heat. The Vaiseshikas, that the (conjunction of) atoms forming the body, disintegrate through the action of heat and are reunited by divine power.

Again, the Nyāya school make samavāya (constant intimate relation), perceptible to vision, while the Vaiseshikas allow it to be cognisable only by argument and proof.

MIMAMSA.37

The founder of this school was the sage Jaimini. It is more ancient than the two already described, and the chief exponents of its philosophy are Kumārila Bhatta, Prabhākara Guru, and Murāri Misra. Its professors are said to reject the notion of a Supreme Being, while some accept it, but do not

The Mimāmsa is classed sometimes as the Purca or Prior and the Uttara or Posterior. The object of the first was to support the authority of the Vedas, to maintain their ritual, and interpret their true meaning. The second is the Vedānta or supplement of the Vedas, and was formed at a later date based on the synonymous term Upanishads, or the mystic teaching of the Vedas. The Upanishads are called Vedāntas, and their philosophy is known as the Vedāntic System. For Mimāmsā, see Hastings, viii. 648,

also i. 137.

the Vaiseshikas in the single atoms". So the Bhāsha Parichchheda. The commentator observes on this, that as long as the parts are retained in the compound, no change by cooking is possible, but when by the union of fire, the compound substances have been destroyed, change occurs in the atoms which become independent units. Again by the junction of atoms changed by process of cooking, a production is effected from the compound of two, three &c., atoms, again to a compound of many parts, for by the extraordinary velocity of heat, the transition from the destruction of one compound to the formation of another is sudden. The Naiyāyika view is that compound substances have pores and the minute parts of fire enter them and therefore the change by the process of cooking is possible, although the parts be retained in the compound.

allow of a Creator, attributing the production of existing things to merit and demerit. When an assembly of the learned was convened with a view to ascertain the truth as to their creed, it was discovered that they were all of this latter opinion, but in deference to the variable character of minds, they are silent as to the nature of the Divinity, and lay the principal stress in discussion on the diversities of works. But men from ignorance and captiousness lay this opinion to their charge. Quantity is not accounted by them as attributable to God. Parimana, quantity, which the Nyaya school places among qualities, is not predicated by them of the Deity, and they do not allow that Brahma, Vishnu and Mahadeva are divine manifestations, affirming that human souls attain that eminence through good deeds. They hold mystic hymns in the place of particular deities whose potency they ascribe to the subtile spells of sound. They allow no beginning, nor end to the world, and believe the four elements, the mountains, and the great seas to be eternal. They believe that bodies are produced from an aggregate of minute atoms, and not from one substance; manas and ātman are all pervading, and a man's actions are the result of his own free will and initiative, and while granting the states of hell and heaven, and transmigration into lower and higher forms of being, and final emancipation, they do not believe that the latter is attainable by all men but is the result of the union of perfected understanding and action, and a sublime knowledge and an ineffable repose will be the eternal portion of that state.

[78] The perception of sound by the ear, they believe to be one of the qualities of air. The Nyāya places it in ether. The second of the two philosophers above-named teaches that samavāya, co-inherence, exists as eternal in things eternal and non-eternal in things non-eternal, and everywhere separate, and they interpret it by the term tādātmya (identity of nature). They reject visesha. According to Kumārila

Bhatta and Murări Misra, there are ten predicaments (padartha): (1) substance, (2) quality, (3) action, (4) community, (5) identity of nature, and (6) negation. (7) Vaisishtya (endowment with attributes), is the term applied to the connection of non-existence²⁸ which they regard as a separate éntelékheia, as the Nyāya regards Svarupa (true nature) and Sabda. (8) Sakti (energy) is a characteristic imperceptible to sight but efficient in action, like the property of burning in fire, and quenching of thirst in water. This they affirm to be two-fold; essential (jāti) as has been exemplified, and accidental, such as may be produced by incantation and the like. The Nyāya school recognises the properties of burning and quenching of thirst as inherent in fire and water. (9) Sādrisya, similarity between two objects. (10) Sankhyā, number, is not regarded as a quality but as a distinct substance. Prabhākara Guru reckons nine predicaments and excludes abhāva (negation) from the notion of things.

Kumārila Bhatta acknowledges eleven substances, the nine already given and (10) andhakāra, darkness. The Naiyāyikas, with the Guru and Murāri Misra recognise the negation of light, but this school makes it a separate object of knowledge, which casts its shade over everything. Colour quantity, individuality, conjunction, disjunction, priority, and posteriority, are qualities appertaining to it. (11) Sabda (sound) is considered eternal³⁸ and all-pervading. Letters are substance and possess the same qualities as darkness, except colour. Qualities are twenty-two in number. Prabhākara Guru and Murāri Misra do not hold sound to be substance, but acknowledge its eternity. According to Kumārila Bhatta,

³⁸ See the Sarva Darsana Sangr. Udayana tries to establish that although ether, the site of sound, is imperceptible, the non-existence of that which abides in this site is perceptible, p. 194.

The Naivävikas deny this, asserting that it is non-eternal. The eternity of the Veda depends on the Mimamsa doctrine that sound is eternal. The arguments pro and con are stated at some length in the Jaimini Darsana, v. Saroa Darsana-Sangraha.

intelligence operates like cognition arising from inferential reasoning. The Guru teaches that its own (indwelling) illumination proceeds from intelligence, as a lamp illumines itself while revealing other objects. The Misra holds with the Nyāya that it proceeds from the manas. This school does not accept the four kinds of proof (pramāna) but only the two first, perception and inference.

The Naiyāyikas say that gold has its origin in fire, the Mimāmsakas, in earth. The notion of time with the former, is apprehended by the reason, with the latter, by the senses, who also consider colour, among qualities, to be eternal, and each of the five colours in all diversities of position, to be one. Generality is innate in substance. They do not accept the notion of Vega Sanskāra, (velocity) and ascribe its effect to karman (action or motion).

According to Bhatta and Misra, pramāna (proof) is of six kinds, four of which are the same as those of the Nyāya, and the senses are said to be seven, as they add tāmasendriya by which the quality of darkness is cognized. They reject kevalānvayin, (con-comitancy of affirmative) and kevala vyatireķin (concomitancy of negatives); and the Guru, mithyājnāna (erroneous opinion). Sansaya (doubt)¹⁰ and viparyaya (misconception), are recognised as two forms of veritable knowledge. [79] The Naiyāyikas prove the existence of air from inference, the Mimāmsakas from touch. The fifth kind of pramāna is arthāpatti (presumption), discerning the subject and assuming the predicate. ⁴¹

The sixth kind of anupalabdhi, non-perception of things. They assert that perception of the non-existence of things

41 That is, the assumption of a thing not itself perceived, but necessarily implied by another which is seen, heard or proved.

Colebrooke, I. 329.

⁴⁶ Doubt is founded on the notion whether a thing is what it seems to be, as a man or the stump of a tree; misconception is incorrect notion, as the notion of silver in mother o' pearl.

arises from the non-knowledge of those things. ¹² The Misra like the Naiyāyikas includes this in pratuaksha.

The cardinal point of their system lies in works, which are of two kinds; vihita (enjoined), a work productive of good, and nishiddha (prohibited), resulting in pain. The first is again fourfold, (1) nitya (constant), that is, a daily duty, reprehensible to omit: (2) naimittaka (occasional rites), necessary duties at special times such as eclipses: (3) kāmya (desirable), things done with desire of fruition: (4) prāyaschitta, expiatory acts. Of the nine schools, the first six recognize these obligations and carry them into practice to the prosperous ordering of their lives. A separate order of ceremonies is appointed to each of the four castes of men.

The questions comprised by this philosophy are set forth in twelve books. The first treats of the predicaments and of proof: the second, of various rites and certain elucidations of the Vaidic text: the third, of certain important ceremonies the results of rites which are revealed in that sacred volume and other minor points accessory to the main objects. The fourth, that the acquisition of worldly goods is twofold, personal comfort and (to procure oblations) for casting into the fire⁴⁴ (for sacrificial purposes). The fifth, of the order of various duties. The sixth, of the substitutes for various rites.

⁴² The sophism anupalabdhi-sama is the trying to establish a fact from the impossibility of perceiving the non-perception of it. For the Nyāya on pratyaksha see Röer, p. 26.

⁴³ Jacobi in his translation of the Vedānta-Sāra, illustrates "nitya" constant rites, such as the Sandhyā prayers and the like, (which) cause ruin if left undone, and Naimittika, occasional rites, as the birth-sacrifice following the birth of a son, &c. The prohibited things are the slaying of a Brahman. &c., which result in hell: and the "things done with a desire of reward" (kāmya) are such as are done to procure heaven.

[&]quot;I have no doubt that the Persian words casting into the fire' is a translation of the Sanskrit home which exactly expresses this meaning, that is, the oblations such as butter, &c., which are part of the ceremonial of worship, and the ability to purchase these goods is one of the advantages of wealth. Abul Fazl appears to assume in his readers a general acquaintance with the subjects he expounds, and the half lights under which he displays them, mislead and perplex.

The seventh, of the detail of the ceremonies to be performed which are only briefly described in the Vedas. The eighth is an exposition of dependent rites which are included in the performance of the primary. The ninth, a discussion of the mystic verses specified for a particular case in the sacred book, when quoted in a new connection, and hymns of praise. The tenth, the discussion of dependent rites which are precluded by non-performance of the primary rite. The eleventh discusses the occasion where one act suffices for the fulfilment of two (or more) acts. The twelfth, where the chief purpose of the rite is one only, but has a further reference without express assignment.⁴⁵

VEDANTA.

The founder of this school was Vyāsa. The Hindus ascribe extreme longevity to him among nine other persons as follows: Lomasa, Mārkandeya, Vyāsa, Ashwatthāmā,

⁴⁵ This synopsis of the Mimāmsaka treatise is very imperfect and would be unintelligible without the aid of an exact and scientific summary of its contents. Fortunately this is furnished by the Sarva-Darsana Sangraha or review of the different systems of Hindu philosophy by Mādhava Achārya, translated by Messrs. Cowell and Gough. This work was composed by the author in the 14th century.

tury.

** For the Vedānta school, see Hastings, ii. 597-598, i. 137-9 (advaita), ii. 796-799 (brahma), xi. 185-189 (Sankara), besides very many excellent modern works and exact translations. The legendary personage, known as Veda-vyssa or divider of the Vedas, is represented in the Vishnu Purana, as an incarnation of Vishnu. He is also the reputed author of the Mahabharata, known to mortals as Krishna Dwaipāyana, and to the gods as the deity Nārāyana, for none else, but a deity was considered capable of the feat. The name of Badarayana is also given to him. The principal tenets of the Vedanta are that God is the omniscient and omnipotent cause of the existence, continuation, and dissolution of the universe. Creation is an act of His will. At the consummation all things are resolved into Him. He is sole existent, secondless, entire, sempiternal, infinite, universal soul, truth, wisdom, intelligence and happiness. Individual souls emanate from Him like sparks from a fire and return to Him, being of the same essence. The soul is a portion of the divine substance. Colebrooke, Misc. Essays, Ed. Cowell, I. 394 The original Vedanta did not recognise the doctrine of Maya or illusion.

Hanumant Bāli, Vibhishana, Kripachārya, and Parasurāma, and relate wonderful legends regarding them. [80]

The professors of this important school of philosophy follow the Mimāmsa in the definitions of padārtha, and pramāna and other points, and accept the teachings of Bhatta, but heaven and hell, rewards and punishments and such other cosmical phenomena, they look on as a delusion under the appearance of reality. In some works there are two predicaments, (1) drik (discerning)=ātman (soul): (2) drisya (the visible creation). They allow of no existence external to God. The world is a delusive appearance, and as a man in sleep sees fanciful shapes, and is affected by a thousand joys and sorrows, so are its seeming realities. One effulgent light conveys a multiplicity of impressions and assumes diversity of names.

The subjects of discussion in this great system are six: Brahman, Iswara, Jiva, (intelligent sentient soul), Ajnāna (Ignorance), Sambandha (relation), Bheda, difference. These six are held to be without beginning, and the first without end.

Brahma is the Supreme Being; and is essential existence and wisdom and also bliss which is termed ānanda. These three alone are predicated of the Inscrutable. Ajnāna, Ignorance, in opposition to the ancients, is regarded as having a separate existence, and two powers are attributed to it.

(1) vikshepa-sakti, the power of projection: (2) āvarana-sakti, the power of veiling the real nature of things. Sambandha is the relation of Ignorance with the first-mentioned. Bheda is the disjunction of these two.

It is said that Ignorance in connection with the first is called Māyā, or the power of Illusion, and with the second, avidyā (nescience).

[81] By the association of Illusion (māyā) with the essential sanctity (of Brahma), a definite hypostasis arises which is called *Isvara* in whose omniscience there is no defect.

This Supreme Being in his association with nescience (avidyā) is called jiva (the soul) and also jivātmā, (rational. conscious soul). Knowledge lurks behind the veil of concealment, and the dust of defect falls not on the skirt of the divine majesty. One sect believe that as avidyā is one, jiva can be only one, and these aver that none has ever attained emancipation. Another sect affirm that as avidyā is distributively numerous, so likewise is jiva; and that many of the wise have attained that accomplishment of desire which consists in the removal of ajnana (Ignorance) before-mentioned, by right apprehension. Ainana has three qualities: sattva (goodness), which is attended with happiness and the like: rajas (foulness or passion), from which spring desire, pain, pleasure, and similar effects: tamas, darkness, which is accompanied by anger, dullness, love of ease, and the like. Isvara, in union with rajas, takes the name of Brahmā from whom, emanates the appearance of creation. Isvara, in union with sattva, becomes Vishnu, whose office is the preservationof the created. Isvara united with tamas is Mahadeva, who annihilates what has been created. Thus the chain of creation is linked in these three modes, and all are unreal appearances produced by Ignorance.

Like the ancients they hold the elements to be five, but each is twofold:—(1), sukshma, (subtile), imperceptible to the eye which is termed apanchikrita, (non-quintuplicated)?

... Then in ether, sound is manifested, in air, sound and touch, in heat, sound, touch and form, in earth, sound, touch, form, taste

⁴⁷ Literally "not becoming five by combination," that is, rudimentary. It is thus explained in Jacobi's Vedānta-Sāra. "From Intelligence associated with Ignorance, attended by its projective power, in which the quality of insensibility (tamas) abounds, proceeds ether, from ether, air, from air heat, from heat, water and from water, earth. The prevalence of insensibility in the cause of these elements is inferred from observing the excess of inanimateness in them. Then in those elements, ether and the rest, arise the qualities of pleasure, pain and insensibility in the proportion in which they exist in their cause." These are subtile, rudimentary or non-quintuplicated elements. "The gross elements are those made from combining the five (subtile elements).

in which the quality of tamas is more largely associated: (2), sthula (gross), the reverse of the other, and this is named panchikrita (quintuplicated). It springs from the greater admixture of foulness, and carried to a greater degree, receives the name of ether, the quality attaching to which is sound, and thus considered, air takes its origin which has the two qualities of sound and touch. From predominance of goodness, fire is generated, from which proceed three qualities, the two former and form. From the greater proportions of goodness and foulness, water is manifested which has four qualities, the three former and savour. From excess of darkness, earth is produced, to which appertain the whole five qualities, viz., the four former and smell.

It is said that through the predominance of goodness, hearing is manifested from ether, tangibility from air, vision from fire, taste from water, and smell from the earth. These five are termed jnānendriya, organs of perception. From ether comes the power of utterance termed vāch, (speech). From air, the power of the hand (pāni) is manifested: from fire, [82] the power of the foot (pādah). From water, the power of evacuation, vāyu; from earth, urinary discharge, called upastha (tā aidoia).

In each of the five, foulness is predominant, and they are called *karmendriya*, organs of action." The majority of Hindu philosophers hold to these opinions.

Through the predominance of sattva a subtile substance proceeds called antahkarana (the interior sense), which under four distinct states, has four separate names. That in which goodness predominates and where the intention of distinguishing and investigating enter, is called chitta (thinking-principle). Where foulness (or passion) has more promi-

and smell." The process of quintuplication is described later by Abul Fazl.

⁴⁸ The organs of action are the mouth, hand, foot, arms and organ of generation, the five organ of sense are the eye, the ear, the nose, the tongue, and the skin.

nence and doubt arises, it is called manas, (mind), and where the proportion of goodness exceeds to such an extent that certainty is attained, it is called buddhi (intelligence), and when through excess of darkness, it regards itself and attributes to itself what is extraneous to its own nature, it is called ahankāra, egotism or consciousness.

From the non-quintuplicated elements, through the predominance of foulness, five vital airs are generated:—(1), prāna, respiration from mouth and nose: (2) udāna, breathing upwards from the wind pipe; (3), samāna from the stomach: (4), apāna, flatulence; (5), vyāna, pervading the whole body. The ten organs (of perception and action) with antahkarana, (the interior sense) and the five vital airs, sixteen altogether, are called lingasarira¹⁰ or sukshma-sarira (the subtile frame). Some distinguish antahkarana, the internal sense, as two in regard to (a) intelligence (buddhi) and mind (manas), and (β) the thinking principle (chitta), with egotism (ahankāra), and thus make seventeen members.

This body is affirmed to exist in all animals, but by reason of its tenuity is not apprehended by the senses. A living principle is generated which is cognisant of all subtile frames in their entirety, called *Hiranyagarbha*¹⁰ (golden womb, or

⁴⁹ The soul whose desire is fruition is invested with a subtile person, towards the formation of which the evolution of principles proceeds no further than the elementary rudiments (non-quintuplicated). The body is propagated by generation and is perishable. The subtile person is more durable, and capable of transmigration through successive bodies which it assumes as a mimic shifts his disguises. It is primeval, produced by original nature at the initial development of principles, and is of atomic size. v. Colebrooke, I. 257.58.

the intelligent spirit whose birth was in the Golden mundane egg from which he is thus named. Māyā or the cosmical illusion, is fictitiously associated with Brahma from all-eternity. In the series of asons without beginning or end, the forms of life have at the beginning of each ason emanated in, first Isvara, the unreal figment of the cosmic fiction, unreal to the philosopher, real to the ignorant multitude; secondly Hiranyagarbha, the golden germ, or Prāna, the breath of life, or Sutrātman, the Thread-spirit, which is the totality of migrating souls in the state of dreaming sleep. His body

fœtus) and all that is generated subsequently is believed to emanate from this immaterial form.

The origin of the gross body is thus described. Each of the (five) subtile elements is divided into mojeties, and each of the first five of the ten moieties is subdivided into four equality parts. The remaining (undivided) moiety of subtile ether. combined with one part from each of the other four subtile elements, air, fire, water and earth, produces the coarse or mixed [83] element of ether. The (undivided) moiety of air, combined with one part of ether, fire, water, and earth becomes the mixed element of air. The (undivided) moiety of fire, with one part of ether, water, earth (and air), becomes the mixed element of fire, and so on with water and earth. Others say that the mixed elements of ether and air are formed without the combination of fire, water and earth, but that the mixed elements of fire, water and earth are formed as described. Each of these three is divided into two moieties; one moiety of each is left undivided and the other is divided into three equal parts, which are combined in the manner above stated, and thus these three mixed elements of fire, water, and earth are produced: from these quintuplicated elements, by the predominant combination of one of the threefold qualities (of goodness, foulness and darkness) the fourteen worlds 11 and their inhabitants are brought into existence. It is said, that a living principle is generated, which discerns all gross bodies. This is termed Virat.

is the sum of invisible bodies, the tenuous involucea in which the soul passes from body to body in eternal palingenesia. (Gough, 53-55).

These lokas or worlds are Bhur. terrestrial: Bhuvar, the atmospheric sphere from the earth to the sun. Svar-loka, heaven; ten million leagues above is Maharloka, the inhabitants of which dwell in it through a day of Brahmā: at twice that distance is Janaloka where Sanandana and other pure-minded sons of Brahmā reside: at four times the distance is Tapo-loka, the sphere of penance inhabited by deities called Vaibhrājas, who are unconsumable by fire. At six times the distance is Satya-loka, the sphere of truth, the inhabitants of which never again know death. Vishnu Purāna, 213. The remaining seven are the nether worlds.

The annihilation of the world is thus described. The earth will be destroyed by water, the water by fire, the fire by air successively, and the air in its turn perishes in ether and ether in Māvā or illusion, and Ignorance (aināna) with its results rises out of this Unreality. Three degrees of this (dissolution) are described. (1). Dainanding (daily), when the (close of) the day of Hiranyagarbha which is the same as that of Brahmā, destroys the greater part of creation. (2). Prākrita, (elemental), when all creation is absorbed in ajnana (Ignorance). (3) Atyantika (absolute), when Ignorance ends and Right Apprehension sheds its radiance. The first kind has frequently occurred and will recur. The others happen but once, and Ignorance, with the constant recurrence of works and the co-operation of the wise of heart, together with the three principles [satva, rajas and tamas] before mentioned. will be absorbed into non-existence.

This system of philosophy is laid down in four books. The first contains an account of Brahma: the second removes the (apparent) discrepancies between form and substance: the third is the preparation of the soul for the reception of divine knowledge, and the fourth on the modes, forms, fruit and effect of its attainment.

The Hindu sages have divided the Vedas into three portions. The first is the karmakānda (relating to works), the practical section termed Purva Mimāmsa, which has been briefly described as the third school. The second is the jnānakānda, the speculative section, called also Uttara Mimāmsā, celebrated as the Vedānta. The third is the Upāsanā (service) [84] which is termed Sankarshana

The destruction of creatures, not of the substance of the world. The incidental or occasional dissolution is termed naimittika (see p. 147) of this Vol. It is called incidental as occasioned by the interval of Brahmā's days, the destruction occurring during the night. The elemental occurs at the end of Brahmā's life, and the absolute or final, is individual annihilation and exemption from future existence. V. P. 630: Dainandina-pralaya is the destruction of the world after 15 years of Brahmā's age. Monier Williams, Sansk. Dict.

Mimāmsā. This regards the worship of God under a personal aspect, and is not now extant.

They profess that the study of the Vedănta is not suitable for every person, nor are its mysterious doctrines to be heard by every ear. The inquirer should accurately investigate what is eternal and non-eternal and discarding from his mind belief in the actuality of existence, he should zealously pursue the objects to be attained. He will then be no longer distressed by the annihilation of sense-perceptions, nor be fettered by pain and pleasure; and will gain a daily increasing hope of final liberation.

Sānkhya.

The founder of this philosophical system was Kapila. Some assert that the followers of this school do not believe in God. The fact is, however, that they do not affirm the existence of a creator, and creation is ascribed to Nature (Prakriti), and the world is said to be eternal. All that is veiled by non-existence is not believed to be non-existent but the caused is absorbed in the cause, as a tortoise retracts its feet within its shell. They accept the doctrine of freedom of will in actions, and of hell, of heaven, and the recompenses of deeds. With regard to emancipation, they agree with the Mimāmsā. Proof (pramāna), is of three kinds. They do not

³⁸ For Sankhya, see Hastings, xi. 189-192, vi. 454, and for Yoga, xii. 831-833. Wilson's Vishnu Purana, ii. 346. Davies and Colebrooke.

sthe Sankhyas hold. Thus, cloth is not distinct from the threads as it abides in the latter. "As the limbs of a tortoise when retracted within its shell are concealed, and when they come forth are revealed, so the particular effects as cloth, &c., of a cause, as threads, &c., when they come forth and are revealed, are said to be produced; and when they retire and are concealed, are said to be destroyed: but there is no such thing as the production of the non-existent, or the destruction of the existent." Sarva Darsana Sangraha. Cowell, Gough, pp. 225-26, and Colebrooke, I, 266.

believe in the soul (aman).56 Analogy and comparison are not accounted sources of knowledge, nor are time and space. substances, but caused by the motion of the sun. The word tattva (first principle) is used in their treatises for padartha, of which there are twenty-five, and these are comprised under four heads. 1. Prakriti (Nature), which is evolvent and not evolute. 2. Prakriti-vikriti (developments of Nature), evolvent and evolute; these are of seven kinds, viz., mahat (the great one. Buddhi or Intellect), ahankāra (consciousness or egotism), and five tanmātra (subtile elements). 3. Viķriti (modifications), are evolutes only, and are not more than sixteen, namely the eleven indriva-(five senses, five organs of action and manas) and the five gross elements (ether, air, light or fire, earth and water). 4. The fourth is neither Nature, nor modification, nor evolvent nor evolute, and is called Purusha, that is Atman, the soul.

The first of the principles above-mentioned is primordial matter, ilei, which is universal, indiscrete, and possessing the modes of goodness, passion and darkness. The fourth is viewed under two aspects, (a) the Supreme Being, as absolute existence and knowledge, 57 (b) the rational soul, omnipresent, eternal and multitudinous. By the union of the first and fourth, existence and non-existence come into being. Nature is said to be blind. It has not the power of vision nor of perception but only that of flux and reflux and the soul is

understands by Purusha, not individual soul alone, but likewise God (Isvara) the ruler of the world. Colebrooke, 1, 256.

⁵⁶ It exists as pure inward light without any instrumentation by which it can become cognisant of the external world. This has been supplied, but it is foreign to the soul and as objective to it as any form of matter. Like Kant, the Sankhyas hold that there is no knowledge of an external world save as represented by the action of our faculties to the soul, and they take as granted the objective reality of our sense-perceptions. The soul is different in kind from all material things, and will be finally severed from them by an eternal separation. It will then have no object and no function of thought, and will remain self-existent and isolated in a state of passive and eternal repose. v. Davies, pp. 18-20.

The theistical Sankhya, as opposed to the system of Kapila,

regarded as a man without feet. When the two conjoin, [85] the renewal and destruction of life come into successive operation. At the time of elemental dissolution, the three modes (of goodness, passion and darkness) are in equipoise. When the time of creation arrives, the mode of goodness preponderates, and Mahat (Intellect) is revealed, and this is considered the first emanation, and it is separate for every human creature. It is also called Buddhi, and is a substance, and the primary seat of eight states or qualities, viz., virtue, vice, knowledge, ignorance, absence of passion or passivity (viraga). from which springs perception of the nothingness of worldly things, and indifference; aviraga its opposite; aisvarya, supernatural power acquired through austerities, and acts that seem incredible or impossible to human vision, of which eight kinds are given in the Pātanjala system: anaisvarya its opposite. Four of the above positive states arise from the predominance of the mode of goodness and the other four from that of darkness. From Mahat (Intellect).58 proceeds consciousness (ahankāra). It is the principle of egotism and is the reference of every thing to self. In Mahat (intellect), when the mode, goodness predominates, it is called vaikrita ahankāra, modified consciousness. If under the influence of the mode, darkness, it is called bhutadi ahankāra (source of elemental being). If passion is in the ascendant, it becomes taijasa ahankāra or impellent consciousness. From the first kind of consciousness, the eleven organs proceed, six of sense (including manas) and five of action, as before described. From the second, the five tanmatra (subtile elements), sound, tangibility, colour or form, savour and odour. These are regarded in this system as subtile substances from which the five gross elements take their rise; from sound, ether; from tangibility, air; from form, fire; from savour, water, and from odour, earth.

⁵⁸ That is, not the exaltation but the predominance of self in thought to the supreme conviction of the sole subjective personality of the thinker. v. Davies and Colebrooke.

From this exposition it is clear that the seven substances mentioned (intellect, consciousness, and the five subtile elements) are on the one hand evolvents, and on the other evolutes, and the sixteen, that is, the eleven organs and the five gross elements, are evolutes. The soul (ātman) is considered neither evolvent nor evolute. The five senses are held to be organs of perception, and manas discriminates between advantage and detriment. Consciousness cognizes itself by act or the omission of act, and intellect determines one or the other. From the five gross elements, other productions are evolved, but as tattvas, are incapable of further creations, causality is not attributed to them.

The elemental order of creation is sixfold:—(1) svargaloka, the world above, in the constitution of which goodness prevails: (2) mrityu-loka, (world of death), the abode of men, in which foulness or passion predominates: pātāla-loka, the world beneath, in which darkness is prevalent: devatā (superior order of being) in which the element of goodness is predominant. [86] Through their extraordinary power they can appear in divers shapes, and assume astonishing appearances, and from the transparency of their essence their true forms are invisible to the sight. There are eight orders of these:--(1) Brāhmya, blessed spirits, that inhabit the abode of Brahmā. (2) Prājāpatya: Prajāpati is the name of a great divinity to whom is assigned a sphere, and those that dwell therein are thus styled. (3) Aindra: Indra is the regent of the heavens, to whom a sphere is likewise referrible, and its dwellers are thus denominated. (4) Paitra: 50 the belief of the Hindu sage is that each individual's progenitors that have died after a life of good works, will receive celestial shapes and enjoy their recompense in a special abode. The devatās therein, are called by this name. (5) Gandharva: this is said to be a sphere where the heavenly choristers reside. (6) Yāksha: in this sphere the Yakshas dwell; they are great

"Relating or consecrated to the Manes. Sanskrit pitarah

ministering spirits, the guardian of the north. (7) Rākshasa, is a sphere inhabited by the Rākshasas, who are the malignant fiends of these orders and who slay men. (8) Pisācha: by this name an order of beings is defined who are characterized by an evil nature and perverted intelligence. They are less powerful than the Rākshasas, and are assigned a special sphere, and extraordinary legends are related of each of these orders. 60

The Animal creation (tiryagyonya)⁵¹ is one in which the mode rajas (passion or foulness), prevailed at its production and is of five kinds:—(1) pasu, domestic animals: (2) mriga, wild animals: (3) pakshi, birds: (4) sarisripa, creeping things applied to the different reptiles and fishes: (5) sthāvara, the vegetable kingdom. Mānushya, man, was produced through excess of the quality of passion. The general opinion adopts this division and belief. At the dissolution of the world, these creations perish with the five elements, and the elements are absorbed in the five tanmātras (rudimentary elements) which again are veiled in egotism (ahankāra), and this in turn is absorbed in the secret recesses of mahat, intellect, which is (finally) lost in the pure depths of Prakriti (Nature).

Pain is of three kinds:—(1) ādhyātmika, intrinsic pain, both bodily and mental: [87] (2) ādhidaivika, supernatural pain or calamity from a divine source, and (3) ādhibhautika, extrinsic pain arising from the natural source of the elements. Bandha, bondage, is the source of all that fetters the spirit and debars it from emancipation.

Präkritika signifies one who holds Nature (Prakriti), in place of God. Vaikritika is one who from ignorance assumes the eleven organs (of action and sense), (indriya) to be the Supreme Being. Dakshina (religious offerings or oblations

⁶⁸ An account of these various orders will be found in the Vishnu Purāna.

derived from the Sanskrit tiryak, crooked or horizontal, applied to an animal (as not erect) and yoni, womb, or source.

in general) implies the being attached to the performance of works and believing them to be the ultimate aim of spirituality.

They affirm that he whose mind is concentrated upon one object (of contemplation) and the fruition of the celestial abode, if the subject of his absorption be the first-mentioned and his thoughts be thus continuously applied in efficacious devotion, he attains to the enjoyment of bliss in the sphere above for a hundred thousand manuantaras,62 after which he returns to this world; in the organs of sense and action (indriva), during ten manvantaras, in the elements during one hundred, in consciousness (ahankāra), during one thousand, and in intellect (mahat), during ten thousand, he enjoys the fruition of heavenly delights; after which term he reverts to this earth. A manuantara is one and seventy enumerations of the four ages. 63 For each good action a period of heavenly bliss is allotted: for instance, he who gives to a Brahman sufficient ground for the erection of a house, will be recompensed by ten kaipas in heaven, a kalpa being equivalent to four yugas. He who bestows a thousand cows in charity, passes one kror and 14,000 kalpas in paradise, and after numerous alterations of earth and heaven, the severance between nature (Prakriti) and the soul (Purusha) is evolved before the vision, and right apprehension arises. This is the

Kali , 1,200

12,000 years of the gods.

By multiplying each of the above by 360, a year of men being a day of the gods, the total is 4,320,000 for a Mahā-yuga or great age: this multiplied by 71=306,720,000. According to the Vishnu Purāna there is a surplus which Wilson shows to be the number of years required to reconcile two computations of the Kalpa. The later is equal to 1,000 great ages or 4,320,000 × 1,000=4,320,000,000. But a day of Brahmā is also 71 times a Great Age, multiplied by 14: or 4,320,000 × 71 × 14=4,294,080,000 or less than the preceding by 25,920,000 and it is to make up this deficiency that an addition is made to the computation by manuantras. See the V. P., p. 24, n. 6. Abul Fazl makes a Kalpa to consist of four Yugas only.

⁶² 12,000 years of the gods or 4,320,000 mortals.

⁶³ Thus the Krita Yuga 4,800

Thus the Krita Yuga 4,800 Tretā , 3.600 Dvāpara , 2,400

goal of emancipation and the renewal of embodiments ceases for ever.

This school also like that of the Vedānta, recognises two kinds of body, the linga sarira, or subtile frame, consisting of eighteen members, viz., the eleven organs of action and sense with manas, the five subtile elements, with intellect and consciousness. The other is the sthula sarira or gross body, and death signifies the divulsion of the one from the other, the subtile frame continuing till final liberation.

The subjects of this system are treated in sixty tantras which like the term adhyāya is used for division or chapter.

The first treats of the existence of Nature and the soul: the second describes Nature as one: the third shows the distinction between the soul and Nature: the fourth, that there is no effect without a cause: the fifth that Nature exists as the root-evolvent of all other forms: the sixth, that all evolved action must be associated with one of the three qualities; [88] the seventh, that the separation of the soul from Nature is attained through perfect knowledge: the eighth, the association of these two with Ignorance: the ninth, that in the light of perfect knowledge when Nature ceases from alterations of embodiment, if for a time the elemental form should continue to endure, it is solely through the residuum of ignorance otherwise it would also perish: the tenth, that causality lies in Nature and not in the soul, and it treats of the five states of the five afflictions (klesa), viz., ignorance, egotism, desire, aversion and ardent attachment to life, as briefly alluded to in the Pătanjala school. Twenty-eight topics treat of the defect of the twenty-eight faculties of the eleven indriya, and the seventeen injuries of Intellect. Nine topics treat of the nine distinctions of acquiescence (tushti):-(1) Prakriti-tushti, (relating to matter), concentration of thought on Nature and contemplation thereof, in the belief that Nature will increase knowledge and sever the soul from itself: (2) Upādāna-tushti (relating to means), the knowledge that Nature of itself will

solve no difficulty, and that until the heart is detached from all objects, the end is not attainable: (3) Kālatushti, (relating to time), the notion that all desires are fulfilled by the passing away of time, upon which therefore, the mind should be fixed while the heart is detached: (4) Bhagua-tushti (relating to fortune); in the knowledge that to the many the world passes away and effects nothing, to understand that the solution of difficulties rests with fortune and to turn thereunto freeing the mind from all other attachment; (5) Pāra-tushti, withdrawal from all worldly unsubstantial pleasures in the assurance that thousands have sought them with pain and profited nothing thereby, and hence to abandon their pursuit: (6) suparatushti. to detach the heart from personal possessions, in the view that they have no stability, since tyrants may take them by force, and thieves may by cunning, steal; (7) Pārāpāratushti, abstinence from pleasures of sense with the knowledge that even if followed by personal gratification, they must cease, and to such as these, attachment is vain: (2) Anuttamāmbhas-tushti, detachment from all enjoyments, from consciousness of pain in their loss: (9) Uttarnambhas-tushti, detachment from pleasure with the motive of avoiding injury to others.64

Eight tantras or topics treat of the eight perfections (siddhi): (1) uha-siddhi (reasoning), without the necessity of reading to understand a subject by the light of reason: (2) sabda siddhi (oral instruction), without need of teaching, to understand by the mere hearing of the words: [89] (3) adhyayana-siddhi (study), becoming wise by the perception of truths: (4) suhridprāpti-siddhi, attaining knowledge by intercourse of friends: (5) dāna-siddhi, (gift), serving one who accepts an invitation to a repast, or the bestowal of a gift

eight, have been for some reason omitted by Abul Fazl, and he has accounted for only fifty-five out of the sixty topics. The remainder are partly included in those mentioned, and may be seen in Colebooke, and in Dr. Garbe's translation of Aniruddha's Commentary.

on him, and manifesting a desire of knowledge and success in obtaining it.

PATANJALA.

The founder of this system was the sage Patanjali.65

With regard to the predicaments and the nature of proof and other points, he follows the Sānkhya, but he acknowledges a Supreme Being whom he holds to be absolute existence and intelligence. The creation of the five subtile elements (tanmātra), he believes to proceed directly from intellect (mahat) without the intermediate agency of ahankāra (conciousness). From vaikrita ahankāra (modified consciousness), when the mode of goodness prevails, the five external senses are produced, and from taijasa ahankāra, (ardent consciousness), when the mode of passion is predominant, the five organs of action (karmendriya) arise, and from the combined

vii. 565. The Yoga sutra has been translated into English with a commentary, by Dr. R. L. Mitra. The accounts of this philosopher and grammarian are like those of the founders of the preceding systems, meagre and legendary. The period in which he flourished is disputed. But though the antiquity of the system is undoubted, it is not the case with the text-books which are, of all the systems, of later date than Buddha. The Yoga Sutra takes for granted the twenty-five categories of the Sānkhya as the basis of its doctrine and copies some of its aphorisms verbatim. I have previously mentioned the common references to each other of the text-books of the other schools. The cardinal difference between the Sānkhya and the Yoga lies in their theistic and atheistic belief, and hence, it is that the Hindus call the Yoga the Sesvara Sānkhya or theistical, as opposed to the atheistical or Nirisvara Sānkhya.

must be altered in accordance with the translation. The physical substratum of consciousness is affected by the modes like every other emanation of Prakriti. From the influence of goodness, it produces the ten organs and the manas which are called 'good', because of their utility: but it is only when affected by the mode 'darkness' that inanimate matter is created. The passion-mode, (taijasa) ardent or glowing, being the exciting mode, must co-operate in the production of all. Davies, p. 60. The Supreme Being with this system is a soul untouched by affliction, action, fruit or stock of desert, who of his own will assumed a body to create. Sarva Dorsana Sangraha. He facilitates according to Dr. Mitra the attainment of liberation, but does not directly grant it and though the creator of the world is absolutely unconnected with it.

influence of goodness and passion springs manas or mind. They believe that the subtile frame (sukshma sarira) is subject to extinction, but receives new birth when another body is produced until final liberation is accomplished. But this is not attained without Yoga which is the cardinal doctrine of this attractive system. The thinking principle, Chitta,67 is the substrate of manas. Vritti (function), is the action of manas in the acquisition of good and evil qualities. Nirodha (suppression) is the restraint of those functions in action and the attainment of quiescence. Yoga or meditation is then secured when the root of desire is obstructed from advance. Certain means to this end are laid down, and I here make a brief abstract in the hope that it may prove of value to the heart-stricken in the path of search. It is said that through the union with Mahat (Intellect) of manas and the three qualities, five conditions or states of the thinking principle arise which are called the five stages (bhumi). These are, (1) kshipta, (restless activity), the heart from the predominance of passion being never at rest: (2) mudha (bewildered). from excess of darkness, being quiescent without attaining the object sought: (3) vikshipta (voluptuousness), from excess of the quality of goodness, the goal is reached and a certain repose is secured, but through excess of passion (rajas), this is not lasting, and the mind becomes dissipated: (4) Ekagra (concentration), through excess of goodness, power is obtained to keep the mind from wandering from the subject of meditation: (5) Niruddha (the suppressive state) is a condition in which by dissolution of the three qualities, the mental residua (anamneisis) of active volition are effaced and (those of) the quiescent or suppressive state arise. 68

state seems to apply to what is called "suppressive modification" (nirodhaparināma) thus defined by the Parichchheda Bhashya: "the

⁶⁷ This is the same as the Sankhya mahat and the Buddhist buddhi, or what Schopenhauer understands by Will, the absolute existence from which primordial root all organic and inorganic being proceed.

Under the first three conditions, Yoga or meditation, is rarely obtained. They assert that under the first condition manas is the recipient of unrighteousness: [90] under the second, of ignorance; under the third, of sensuousness (aviraga) and impotence (anaisvarya); under the fourth, of virtue, (dharma), absence of passion (viraga), and supernatural power (aisvarya); and under the fifth, the residua of good and evil are suppressed and functions (vritti), are dissolved. These latter are of two kinds, klishti (painful), tendency to evil works, and aklishti, tendency to good works and each according to its good or evil tendency is five-fold. (1) Pramanavritti (right notion); perception of things by proof is attained through prevalence of sattva (goodness); (2) viparyaya, (misconception) arises from prevalence of goodness and darkness. If this abides in the person forming a definite conclusion it is called vipariti, (perverted) but if he be in uncertainty whether a thing be itself or some thing else, it is called sansaya. doubt; (3) vikalpa (fancy),69 ambiguity regarding a thing, arising from goodness and darkness; (4) nidrā (sleep), the state of sleep arising from excess of darkness in which consciousness is lost.70 The opinion of other Hindu philosophers is

object." Dr. Mitra.

70 The aphorism is, "sleep is that function (of the thinking principle) which has for its object the conception of nothing"; that

residug of the waking state are the attributes of the thinking principle, but they are not intelligent. The residua of suppression produced by the intelligence of the suppressive state, are also the attributes of the thinking principle. On the overthrow and success (prevalence) of the two, the residua of the waking state are put down and those of the suppressive state rise up, and there is then a correlation of the thinking principle, and the changes thus constantly occurring in a thinking principle is suppressive modification." Dr. Mitra deserves. "The theory is, that every image, shape, or idea exists from eternity in a latent form, circumstances make it manifest, and when those circumstances are over it reverts to its former condi-This is in fact that Platanic notion of ideas, and their objective reality either ante rem as eternal archetypes in the divine intelligence or in re, as forms inherent in matter. This formed in the 12th century, the Kealist side of the controversy with Plato and Aristotle. against the Nominalists with Zeno.

"A notion without reference to the real character of the

that the mind is withdrawn from its peculiar association with the senses; (5) smriti (memory), is the recovery through the influence of goodness of what has passed from the mind. In the fourth state, the second, third and fourth functions cease and in the fifth, the first and fifth are dissolved and final liberation is attained.

Although this sublime contingency does not occur save by prosperous fortune and the divine favour, yet the sagacity of the experienced base its acquisition on twelve principles.

I. Meditation on the divinity (Isvara-upāsanā), that is, to illuminate the interior spirit by constant thought of God and to be conscious of its freedom from four things, afflictions, works, deserts, desires. Klesa (affliction) signifies the sum of grief and pain, and this is five-fold: (1) avidyā, ignorance of the reality of things: (2) asmitā (egotism), conceiving oneself to possess that which one has not: (3) rāga, desire for one's own gratification: (4) dvesha, aversion, or anger: (5) abhinivesa (ardent attachment to life), fear of death. Karma (works), signifies merit and demerit (from works). Vipāka, (deserts), the recompense of actions. Asaya, thought regarding merits and demerits which after effacement may recur.

[91] Those who have reached the goal in this path, assert that assiduous meditation on God after this manner, annihilates all evil propensities and exterminates nine depredators of the road. These are (1) vyādhi, sickness: (2) styāna (langour), indisposition (of the thinking principle) to efficacious work: (3) sansaya, doubt regarding the (practicable) means of meditation and its results: (4) pramāda (carelessness), forgetfulness of the duties of meditation: (5) ālasya, slothfulness in the performance of these duties; (6) avirati, (worldly mindedness), propensity (of the thinking principle) to enjoy the pleasures of the world: (7) bhrānti-darsana, error in per-

this is a function of the thinking principle and not a mere blank is said to be proved by our recollection on arising from sleep of having slept well which could not happen without a consciousness of it. Yoga Aph., 12.

ception, (such as mistaking mother of pearl for silver):
(8) alabdha-bhumikatva, (non-attainment of any stage), the non-attainment of the fourth out of the five states: (9) anavasthitatva (instability), not abiding in the fourth stage and receding from it.

II. Sraddhā, (inclination), zeal in following the Yoga and making it the sum of desire.

III. Virya (energy), seeking the fulfilment of the object sought with much eagerness.

IV. Smriti (memory), retaining in view the transcendent advantages and great results of this devotion, and never relaxing attention.

V. Maitri (friendliness), desiring the welfare of humanity.

VI. Karunā, (compassion), being distressed at the sorrows and affliction of mankind, and resolving to relieve them.

VII. Muditä, (gladness), being pleased in the happiness of others.

VIII. Upekshā, (indifference), avoiding the wrong-doer lest evil principles be acquired, and yet not entertaining male-volence nor rebuking him.⁷¹

[92] IX. Samādhi, (meditation), unity of intention and contemplation of one object.

X. Prajnā (discernment), allowing only understanding, rectitude, and the search after truth to enter the mind.

XI. Vairāgya, (dispassion), is of various kinds, its ultimate stage being detachment from all, and contentment with only the Supreme Being.

XII. Abhyāsa (exercise), being unintermittingly assi-

ri This indifference is to be acquired both as to pleasure and pain, by friendliness towards the happy, compassionating the sorrowful, being content with the virtuous and neither encouraging nor reproving the vicious. This condition of mind facilitates the meditation called Samādhi, in its external aspect by removing distractions, and producing concentration, through cheerfulness of mind,

duous in the control of knowledge and action till this (stead-fastness) becomes habitual.

In the works on this system, Isvara-upāsanā, vairāgya and abhyāsa are treated together: five separate expositions are allotted to virya, sraddhā, smriti, samādhi and prajna, and the four following maitri, karunā, muditā and upekshā are likewise separately discussed. They have all been concurrently reviewed in this work.

In this field of philosophy, Yoga is regarded as two-fold, (1) samprajnāta-samādhi (conscious meditation), directing the easily distracted mind to one object and gradual concentration on the ideal conception of the Divine Being; and (2) asamprajnāta (unconscious meditation), in which this ideal conception of the divinity ceases, and absorption in unitive communion with its essence is obtained. The first is of three kinds, (1) Grāhya-samāpatti (Tangible Forms), meditation on one of the five gross elements. With regard to the gross and subtile elements it is two-fold. The latter is termed vitarkänugati, (attendant argumentation) and the former vichäränugati, (attendant deliberation). Vitarkānugati is of two kinds; savitarka (argumentative meditation), when the cogitation is regarding the relation of words to their meanings, and nirvitarka (non-argumentative), when it is independent of this relation. Vichārānugati is cogitation on one of the eight principles, viz., nature, intellect, consciousness, and the five subtile elements. If the element be considered in its relation to time and space, it is called savichāra (deliberative), and if otherwise nirvichāra (non-deliberative).

II. Grahana-samāpatti (Acceptance Form), is cogitation on one of the organs of sense which with reference to time, space, and cause is termed savitarka, and if in regard to the inherent meaning only, vitarka, and [93] both kinds are called Sānanda (joyous).⁷²

⁷² The commentator explains that when the quality of goodness of the internal organ, tinctured with a little of the qualities of foul-

III. Grihitri-samāpatti (Form of the taker). In this stage the votary withdraws himself from all other pre-occupation, and is merged in the single contemplation of the Supreme Soul. This also in relation to time and space receives the two names above-mentioned, and both kinds are termed Asmitā (Egotism).

Asamprajnāta is two-fold:—(1) Bhavapratyaya (caused by the world), not distinguishing Nature from the soul, nor holding it to be separate from the elements or the organs of action and sense. If Nature is cognized as soul, this meditative state is called Prakritilaya (resolved into nature), and if the elements and organs be so cognized, it is termed videha, (unembodied). (2) Upāya-pratyaya (means of ascertainment); by good fortune and a happy destiny, under the guidance of the twelve principles above-mentioned, the cognition of the soul is attained and the fruition of bliss secured at the desired goal where final emancipation presents itself to view.

The devotees of the Yoga practice are of four classes. The first, called Prāthama kalpika, (entering upon the course) is he who with firm resolve and steadfast foot enters upon this waste of mortification. The second, Madhubhumika (in the honey-stage), is he who by mortification of the senses and right conduct, effaces rust from the mirror of the heart to such degree that he can divine the reflections in another's mind and see whatever from its minuteness is imperceptible to others. The third, Prajnājyotis (illuminated), by happy fortune and zealous endeavour subdues the organs of sense and the elements, and the far and the near, with reference to sight and hearing, &c., become relatively the same to him, and he acquires power to create and destroy. The fourth, Atikrānta bhāvaniya (attaining the highest dispassion), is one to whom the past becomes present.

ness and darkness, is pondered, then consciousness being under the influence of goodness, becomes Sananda or joyous. Yoga Apholisms, p. 18.

It is said that conscious meditation consists of eight particulars and these are, as it were, intrinsic parts thereof, in contradistinction to the twelve principles which are accounted extrinsic means. They are called Ashtānga-Yoga (meditation on eight particular parts of the body). [94] These are:—(1) Yama, (2) Niyama, (3) Asana, (4) Prānāyāma, (5) Pratyāhāra, (6) Dhārana, (7) Dhyāna, (8) Samādhi.

Yama, restraint, is five-fold:—(1) Ahinsā (non-slaughter), avoiding destruction of life and injury (to others). When this habit is formed, in a devotee, enemies are conciliated: (2) Satya (veracity) is the habitual practice of speaking the truth, and thus securing acceptance of his desires? (3) Asteya, (non-theft), the non-appropriation of goods beyond what is customarily permitted: the keys of the world's treasures are entrusted to the observer of this principle: (4) Brahmacharya (continence), to abtain from women, by which means the ignorant will be able to light the lamp of knowledge from the inspired efficacy of his will. (5) Aparigraha (non-avarice), retaining nothing of worldly goods which, being regarded as the capital source of pain, should be abandoned and by this the future will be revealed.

Niyama (obligation), is also five-fold:—(1) Saucha (purification), internal and external purity, avoiding association with men, and acquiring self-control; (by this means) the mind is rendered essentially stainless, commendable desires bear fruit, and the fourth state is reached: (2) Santosha (contentedness), desisting from improper desires and being satisfied with the fulfilment of this excellent devotion. Happiness is thus obtained and worldly pleasures have no relish: (3) Tapas, (penance), mortification of the spirit and body and enduring heat, cold, hunger, thirst, and silence, until all five afflictions are effaced from the tablet of the mind. Through this practice the votary gains the faculty of seeing

⁷³ Another reading runs and thus desires cease to be inclined to evil.'

things distant, concealed or minute and can assume any form at will. (4) Svādhyāya (sacred study), repetition of the names of the deity, and recounting his attributes and all that is condusive to liberation. If there is inability to read, then by the constant repetition of the word Omkāra,74 the deities and other celestial spirits associate with him and vouchsafe him their assistance. [95] (5) Isvara pranidhāna (devotion to God), is absolute resignation to the will of God; by this means various faculties of knowledge are acquired and illumination regarding all the degrees of perfection is attained.

Asana (posture), signifies sitting. The austere recluses of this temple of retirement, give the number of these as eighty-four, of which thirteen are esteemed the most efficacious, and each has a special mode and a separate name. Under their influence, cold, heat, hunger and thirst are little felt. Some learned Hindu authorities reckon the same number of sitting attitudes for those who are still attached to worldly concerns but of a different kind. The writer of these pages who has witnessed many of these postures, has gazed in astonishment, wondering how any human being could subject his muscles, tendons and bones in this manner to his will.

Prānāyāma, regulation of the breath at will, is three-fold:—(1) Puraka (inspiration), drawing in the breath by the nose in the following manner: with the thumb of the right hand let the left nostril be closed and the breath slowly inspired by the right nostril. (2) Kumbhaka⁷³ (suspension),

The abbrevivated form of this ejaculatory prayer, Om, is a combination of three letters a. a., m., invested with a peculiar sanctity. According to Wilson (Vish. Pur.) it is typical of the three spheres of the world, the three steps of Vishnu, &c., and in the Vedas is said to comprehend all the gods, and one text of the Vedas, "Om, the monosyllable Brahma," is cited in the Vagu Purāna, which devotes a whole chapter to this term, as signifying by the latter word, either the Supreme Being or the Vedas collectively, of which the monosyllable is the type.

This term is derived from kumbha, a jar, because the vital air at that time remains quiescent as water in a jar. Hastings, Ency.

ix. 490-492, long discussion of Om.

to retain the breath within and to make as long an inspiration as possible closing both nostrils with the thumb and little finger of the right hand. The ascetics of this country can so hold their breath that they will breathe but once in twelve years. (3) Rechaka (expiration), letting out the drawn breath, very gradually, with the thumb pressed below the right nostril and removing the little finger from the left nostril, suffering it to escape. In short, to inspire with the right and expire with the left nostril. These three functions constitute the Prānāyāma. It is said that the breath extends as far as sixteen fingers from the nose, and some say twelve. By this operation the mind is quiescent, and perfect knowledge is obtained; but this is secured only through the assistance of an experienced master of this knowledge.

At this time the devotee should abstain from meat, hot spices and acid and saline food, and be content with a little milk and rice. He must also avoid the society of women lest his brain be distracted and melancholy ensue.

Pratyāhāra (abstraction), is the withdrawal of the five senses from their respective objects of perception. When the mind is quiescent, these perforce cannot escape. Thus objects may present themselves before him without exciting desire.

Dhārana (steadiness), is the confinement of the thinking principle to one place, such as the navel, the crown of the head, between the eyebrows, the point of the nose, or the tip of the tongue.

Dhyāna (contemplation), is uninterrupted reflection on what is before the mind, and the absence of every thing but the object, the thought, and the thinking principle of the individual contemplating.

[96] Samādhi (meditation);⁷⁶ in this the thinker and the consciousness of thought are both effaced. At this stage the

⁷³ This is a more advanced stage of contemplation than Dhyāna in which the ideas of objects other than the one in view are suppressed, but not altogether effaced. In samādhi the effacement

degrees of conscious meditation are surmounted and unconscious meditation begins, till perfect knowledge is attained and Yoga is finally reached. This condition is called Samādhi.

The first and second of these eight processes are likened to the sowing of seed in a field: the third and fourth are as the commencement of growth: the fifth is the flower: the sixth, seventh and eighth are regarded as the stages of fructification.

The last-named three-fold acts are termed Sanyama." At this period, the most extraordinary powers are witnessed in the adept which astonish the beholder.

The occult powers are termed Aisvarya and are eight in number.

(1) Animā (molecularity), the power of minute disintegration so as to pass through the tissues of a diamond. (2) Mahimā (illimitability), capacity of prolongation so as to touch the moon. (3) Laghimā (tenuity), to possess such extreme levity as to ascend to the upper regions on a beam of light. (4) Garimā (gravity) to acquire illimitable ponderosity. In some works the word Prāpti (accessibility), is used for the fourth term, and signifies to reach to any point at will. (5) Prākamya (irresistible will), to sink into the earth and to rise up elsewhere as if in water. (6) Isitva (sovereignty), the power of creating or destroying. (7) Vasitva (subjugation), to command the elements and their products. (8) Kāmāvasāyitva (self-control), the fulfilment of every wish.

Although this language may seem incredible in the eyes of those affected by the taint of narrow custom, those who

is complete, and thinking merges into thought which is the sole residuum. The body is then in a state of catalepsy or trance, and is not influenced by external objects: Yoga Aph., p. 124.

The word is derived from the intensive particle sam prefixed to yama, restraint, and means vow, binding or confinement, and indicates three means of accomplishing the Yoga. Yoga Aph., p. 125.

acknowledge the wonderful power of God will find in it no cause of astonishment.

The doctrines of this great system are comprised in one Adhyāya or section, divided into four charana, (feet or) chapters. The first is an exposition of the nature of Yoga meditation. The second on the means of its acquirement. The third, on the wonders of the occult powers. The fourth on the liberation of the soul.

CHAPTER V

JAINA

[97] The founder of this wonderful system was Jina, called also Arhat¹ or Arhant. With regard to the Supreme Being, and the doctrines of voluntary actions, rewards, punishments, hell and heaven, they follow the Mimāmsā and the Sānkhya. In Svar-loka twenty-six degrees are assigned to the last mentioned abode (heaven) in three groups of twelve, nine and five, in the highest of which dwell the most perfect among the chosen of God. Bodies are believed to be compounded of indivisible atoms. The four elements are composed of homogeneous atoms, and the substrate of each element is different. The world regarded in its atoms is eternal, but non-eternal in its form. Existence takes place on the union of five principles:—(1) Niyata (crude matter) potentiality of cause. (2) Kāla, determinate time. (3) Svabhāva

Hermann Jacobi in his preface to the Jaina Sutras, with Colebrooke and Stevenson asserts the independent rise of the Jaina creed against the combined authority of Lassen, Wilson, Weber and Barth, who derive it from Buddhism. This point is discussed

in Hastings, Ency., ii. 495-496.

¹ For the Jaina philosophy, Hastings, vii. 465-574, x. 493-495 (purification), and xii. 799-80: (worship). The Jains take this name from the term Jina, a deified Saint, a being worthy of universal adoration and having subdued all passions, equivalent to Arhat, Jinesvara, Tirthankara and other synonyms of this incarnate being. Colebrooke (Essay, II, 171) mentions 24 Jinas or Arhats, who have appeared in the present Avasarpini age. The most celebrated of the Jinas, was Pārsvanatha of the race of Ikshwāku, and is thought by Colebrooke and Lassen to be the real founder of the sect. The last Jina, was Vardhamāua, named also Vira, Mahāvira &c. His life and institutions form the subject of the Kalpa Sutra translated both by Stevenson (very faultily according to Weber), and Jacobi. They deny with the Bauddhas or Saugatas, the divine authority, of the Vedas, and admit like the Sānkhya philosophy the eternity of matter and the perpetuity of the world. Their avoidance of injury to life is wellknown. Like the Buddhists they are divided into a clerical body, Yatis or ascetics, and laity, Sravakas, (hearers) and observe the rules of caste without attaching any religious significance to it.

inherent nature. (4) Atmā the rational soul. (5) Purvakrita, the result of good and evil in former births. Some Hindu philosophers ascribe the creation to God, some to Time, and others to the results of actions, and others again to inherent nature (svabhāba). Their belief is that the whole universe will not perish, but that some of every kind will survive from the whirlwind of non-existence whence creation will be renewed.

This sect allow only two predicaments:—Pramāna (proof) and Prameya (objects of thought). The first of these is two-fold:—(1) Pratyaksha, perception by the five external senses, and by the mind and the soul. The Nyāya, applies this term to the means by which perfect knowledge is obtained. (2) Paroksha (imperceptibility), knowledge obtained not mediately through the senses.

Pratyaksha (perception) is two-fold. (1) Vyāvahārika (conventional, or practical): this is acquired by the five senses and manas, is employed in external affairs, and called matijnāna (mind-knowledge). This is also two-fold, namely, that which (a) is apprehended through the five senses, and (3) apprehended through manas (mind), which this sect does not include among the five senses; and each of these two again is four-fold: (1) Avagraha, distinguishing from the type whether it be horse or man but not discerning the characteristics: (2) Iha inquiring, as to whence the man, and from what country the horse: (3) Avaya arriving at a correct identification of the above : [98] (4) Dhārana, recollecting the thing particularised and keeping it in mind. (II) Pāramārthika (transcendental), knowledge that comes from the illumination of the rational soul and is profitable to emancipation. It is two-fold: viz. Vikala (defective), knowing some thing and not knowing some other: and Sakala, (entire), knowing all, called also Kevala-jnāna (pure unalloyed knowledge). Vikala is again subdivided into Avadhi-jnana (limited knowledge), knowledge of special objects which near or remote,

are not differentiated;² and *Manas-paryāya-jnāna*, definite knowledge of another's thoughts and the laying bare of the secrets of the heart.³

Paroksha (imperceptibility) is five-fold. (1) Smarana, recollection of what is unseen. (2) Praty-abhijnāna, knowledge derived from witness of another. (3) Tarka, the knowledge of the mutual relation between subject and predicate. (4) Anumāna, knowledge from inference, which is established in a series of ten terms, given in detail. (5) Sabda, the knowledge obtained from the narration of a speaker without partiality or affection, of clear understanding and true in speech.

Prameya (objects of thought) are six-fold and each is regarded as an eternal substance, and not an aggregate of a determinate measure of atoms: they are likewise held to be imperceptible to the eye and pervade all space. The first is the soul which is a subtile substance in which intelligence abides. It is to the body as the light of a lamp to a house and is believed to be the active agent, or passive recipient of good and evil. It is, of two kinds, Parātmā and Jivātmā. The first is restricted to the Supreme Being and is distinguished by four attributes. Ananta-jnāna or analytic knowledge extending to the most minute atoms. Ananta-darsana or synthetic knowledge of things collectively. Ananta-virya, infinite power. Ananta-sukha, infinite happiness.

They do not accept the doctrine of divine incarnations but believe that a man by virtue becomes omniscient, and his utterances in regard to the things appertaining to the spiritual and temporal life are the word of God, and such a one is termed Sākāra-Paramesvara (Divinity in bodily form). [99] In the six aras. of which mention has been made in a previous

² That is, the abolition of hindrances causes their right intuition.
³ By the absence of all envy, by sympathy and the like.

⁴ These are the six periods into which each of the Utsarpini and Avasarpini ages are divided. Their names are given in Major Mackenzie's account of the Jains in Vol. IX. As. Research, p. 257,

section, twenty-four such beings come into existence, and in the third and fourth, their earthly existence terminates.⁵

The first being of this series was Adinātha, and the last, Mahāvira. Each of them is named a Jina, and wonderful legends are told of them which will be briefly noted later on. The Supreme Being is called Nirguna Paramesvara, or the Deity without qualities.

Jivātmā (soul) is variously distinguished. It may be twofold, viz., locomotive and immovable, as a man or tree: or three-fold, as man, woman, hermaphrodite; or four-fold, namely, forms of men, of vegetable life, of beings of heaven, and those of hell: or five-fold, possessing but one sense, [touch] as the four elements and trees. And these also are of two kinds: (1) such as can be seen. (2) such as are too minute to be perceptible. Each of these (last) five possesses life and has the sense of touch. There are those that possess (at least) two senses, touch and taste, such as shell-fish, leeches &c.; those with three, as the ant which has the additional sense of hearing: those of four, viz. flies and wasps which to the above three senses, add that of sight: those of five, mankind. There is a further division of soul into two kinds;6 those possessing an internal sense and such as are without it, as a leaf. The Nyāya school also hold this opinion. Since the first and the fifth are of two kinds, animal life collectively does not exceed seven, and each may be classed

2.9

⁵ The periodical creations and destructions of the world form part of the Pauranic legends and of the Jaina creed. The heavens and earth in general, are supposed to be eternal, but this portion of the earth, Arya or Bharata, is liable to destruction and renovation.

More correctly, the division of souls is into 'mundane' and 'released'. The "mundane" pass from birth to birth and are divided into two, those possessing an internal sense (samanaska) and those destitute of it (amanaska). The former possess saminā, the power of apprehension, talking, acting or receiving instruction, and the latter are without this power. These last are again divided into the locomotive and immovable. Those that possess only the one sense of touch are considered as 'released', as incapable of passing into any other state of existence. (Jacobi, Jaina Sutras, 5n.)

under two heads: (1) Prajā-pati possessor of six powers, namely, of bodily form, of reception of food, of organs of sense, of the powers of speech, of breathing, and the internal sense (manas): (2) Aprajāpati, life which is incapable of these functions. All that possess but one sense, have four faculties, viz., capability of nourishment, assuming form, command of the organs of sense, inspiration and expiration of breath. All that possess two, three, four or five senses, without the internal sense, have five faculties, viz., the four former and that of speech. Those that possess the internal sense have six faculties.

They consider the conjunction in the soul of ten qualities. entitles it to be called living, otherwise it is dead; they are severally called prana, viz., the five senses, the internal sense, faculty of speech, reception of form, inspiration of breath, duration of life. Those that possess five senses are of four classes. (1) Devatā (celestial spirit); (2) Manusha (man); (3) Nāraķi (inhabitant of the infernal regions); (4) Tiryagyoni (animal creation). The Devatā is formed of a subtile luminous substance by the volition of the Deity, without the process of birth. Their bodies are not of flesh and bone, nor defiled by impurities, and their breathings are redolent of fragrance. They suffer not from maladies, nor does age steal away the freshness of youth. [100] Whatever they desire is fulfilled; they can assume a thousand shapes, and they move at four fingers' breadth above the surface of the earth. They are of four classes :---

1. Bhavana-pati. The Jainas believe the earth to consist of seven tiers superimposed one above the other. The earth inhabited by mankind includes a space of 180,000 yojanas. The intervening region between one thousand yojanas and as many below, is the location of the Bhavana-

⁷ These ten are the progeny of Asuras, Serpents, Garuda, Dikpālas, Fire, Air, the Ocean, Thunder and Lightning, who are

- patis. They are of ten' orders, each governed by two rulers, one for the northern, the other for the southern region. The colour, appearance, raiment, food and modes of life of each are separate. Their duration of life extends between a minimum of ten thousand and a maximum of an ocean (sāgara) of years, and this is considered the lowest order of all.
- 2. Vyantara. These inhabit a region extending between a thousand yojanas above and a hundred below, and they pass likewise into the sphere allotted to men. They are of sixteen orders, each governed by two rulers. Their age extends from ten thousand years to one palyopāma.
- 3. Jyotishka. Their location is seven hundred and ninety yojanas above the level of the earth, and one hundred and ten yojanas is its eastern limit. They consist of five orders (of luminaries), the first are stars: the second, suns throned at a distance of ten yojanas above the stars: the third are moons, eighty yojanas higher than the suns: the fourth, constellations of twenty-eight mansions: the fifth, planets at an altitude of four yojanas above the mansions, eighty-eight in number. Of these the five most important are Mercury, Venus, Jupiter, Mars and Saturn with an interval of three yojanas in altitude between them severally. The duration of life of each of the five, ranges between the eighth part of a palya at the lowest, to one palya and a hundred thousand years as an extreme limit.

supposed to reside in the several hells or regions below the earth. The Vyantaras have eight orders. These are the Pisāchas, Bhutas, Kinnaras, Gandharvas and other monstrous divinities inhabiting woods, and the lower regions and air. The third has five orders, the Sun, Moon, Planets, Asterisms and other heavenly bodies. The fourth includes the gods of present and past Kalpas. Of the first kind are those born in the Heavens Saudharma Isāna, Mahendra, Brahmā Sanatkumāra, Sukra, &c., to the number of twelve. A great number of Indras are recognised, but Sukra and Isāna the tegents of the North and South are chief. Above all these rank in dignity as objects of worship the twenty-four Tirthankaras or with those of the past and future periods, seventy-two. Wilson (Essays, I, 320).

4. Vaimānika. Their abode is the highest of all, and they are of two orders. The first, kalpupapanna, (existing age), dwell in the twelve zones of heaven each with a special presiding deity, but four have (only) two regents. These ten principalities possess ten illustrious distinctions. (1) a just prince, (2) a capable minister. (3) a benevolent sage, (4) loyal counsellors, (5) sword bearers, (6) guards, (7) commanders of seven armies of elephants, horses, chariots, bulls, footmen, sword players and musicians, (8) administrators of state. (9) news reporters, and (10) sweepers. This sublime order is said to dwell at a little less than the distance of a rajus in altitude. The second order is kalpätita (past age). They do not occupy themselves with others, but keep aloof from friendship, enmity, governance and subjection, and are engaged only in contemplation of the Deity. Above these again are twelve abodes of rest in nine tiers, one above another, and five others like a face, two above, and one below and one between, making fourteen tiers in all.

[101] They consider the world to be composed of three spheres... (1) Manusha-loka, nine hundred yojanas from the

"A measure of space through which the gods are able to travel in six months at the rate of 2,05,7152 Yojanas of 2,000 Krosa each in the twinkling of an eye. Colebrooke. II, 198, but Abul Fazl gives another measure lower down.

The upper spindle is also seven rajus high and its greatest breadth is five rajus. Its summit which is 4,500,000 yojanas wide, is the abode of the deified saints: beneath this are five Vimanas or abodes of gods. The earth consists of numerous distinct continents in concentric circles separated by seas forming ways between them of which the first is Jambu-dwipa with the mountain Meru in the

centre.

The world, writes Colebrooke, (Essays, II, 198) which according to the Jains is eternal, is figured by them as a spindle resting on half of another, or as three cups of which the lowest is inverted and the uppermost meets at its circumference the middle one. The spindle above is the abode of the gods, and the inferior part of the figure comprehends the internal regions. The earth which they suppose to be a flat surface, is bounded by a circle of which the diameter is one rāju. The lower spindle comprises seven tiers of inferior earths or hells, at the disance of a rāju from each other and its base is measured by seven rājus.

lowest extremity of the earth to nine hundred above. This is the sphere of men. The earth is said to be one raju in length and the same in breadth, and within 4,500,000 yojanas of this space, mankind dwell. Below this is (2) Patäla-loka. Its extent is nine hundred upjanas less than seven rājus. The second is twice the size of the first, and to each tier is added a raju so that the seventh is something less than seven rajus. (3) Svarga-loka is the celestial region, and is a little less than seven rajus high. Its inhabitants possess five organs of sense. Among them the Vaimānikas dwell in twenty-six orders which represent paradise. They attain to these bodies and enjoy happiness through good works. Eight orders of Vaimanikas dwell within five rajus, and four in the sixth rāju. Fourteen orders of the inferior class occupy one rāju. A rāju is the distance traversed by an iron ball of three and a half Akbari ser's weight, thrown downwards and continuing to fall for a period of six months, six days and twelve gharis. It is said that for six karoh [krosa] above the twentysix orders aforesaid, there is a circular area like crystal. Its length is 4,500,000 yojanas and its breadth the same, with a height of eight yojanas. After traversing a distance of three and five-sixth of a Karoh upwards, the sacred haven of final liberation is reached where men are absorbed in the divinity as light in light.

The ages of the gods extend from something less than a palyopama to not more than a Sāgara. The four classes of deities including two orders of the Vaimānikas have a stature of seven cubits; the third and fourth are of six cubits; the fifth and sixth, of five; the seventh and eighth, of four; from the ninth to the twelfth, of three; from the thirteenth to the twenty-first of two, and from the twenty-second to the twenty-sixth of one cubit, but all of them possess the power of assuming various shapes. All the deities are said to have the desire of food, but it is not taken by the mouth, as they are satisfied by mere volition. Each of the deities who arrives at the age

of ten thousand years, requires food every other day, and breathes once during the time in which a healthy man would breath forty-nine times. Those whose age extends beyond this term to one Sagara, eat once between a minimum and maximum of three and nine days and breathe once between four and eighteen gharis. Those who live beyond the period of a Sagara, eat once after a thousand years, and breathe once in fifteen days. Such as live to a still greater term than this, for each Sagara, allow upwards of a thousand years to elapse before they touch food, and in the same proportion of time, increasing intervals of fifteen days pass before a breath is drawn. They also believe that all the deities including two orders of the fourth class. (the Vaimānika). have sexual intercourse after the manner of mankind, but pregnancy does not take place: the third and fourth orders by conjunction and the sense of touch: the fifth and sixth by sight, and the seventh and eighth, by hearing: four other orders, by mere effort of imagination, while fourteen orders of the second class are innocent of this intercourse. These are said to attain to this eminence by good works. Extraordinary legends are told of these beings, of which let this little from among much be a sufficiency.

The mundane (manushya), consists of (souls) of two kinds:—(1) Samjna, possessing the power of apprehension, and (2). Asamjna, without power of apprehension. The latter appear (as animalcula) in the flesh, blood and saliva of men and do not live more than the space of two gharis. The Samjna class is sub-divided into two. The Jainas apportion the earth into two parts, and assign one to each division. In the first, commands and prohibitions are in full force, and happiness and misery are the recompense of good and evil actions. Fifteen considerable portions of the earth are allotted to this division.

The Jainas believe that during the six aras, the extent of which has been mentioned in a former section, twelve

Chakravartis successively appear. Thirty-two thousand kingdoms are beneath his sway, and thirty-two thousand princes are subject to him. He possesses 8.400,000 elephants and as many horses and chariots. He has likewise fourteen thousand ministers of state, nine hundred and thirty millions of footmen, eighty thousand sages, three hundred thousand cuirassiers, five hundred thousand torch-bearers, thirty millions of musicians, sixty-four thousand wedded wives, one hundred and twenty-eight thousand female slaves, sixteen thousand mines of gems, nineteen thousand mines of gold and twentyeight thousand of other minerals, sixteen thousand provinces of barbarians (mlechchhas), that is, of races foreign to his institutions, thirty-two thousand capital cities, sixteen thousand royal residencies, three hundred and sixty millions of cooks for the royal table, and three hundred and sixty for his private service. Many other endowments are attributed to him. The first cycle of these began with Rājā Bharata (Chakravarti), son of Adinatha. Some of these on account of their good works, are translated to heaven while others go down to hell. They assert that nine other individuals are born, entitled Vāsudevas. which is a rank possessing half the powers of a Chakravarti, and they believe that these dignitaries descend into a hell, and that Krishna is among their number. Nine other persons. designated Baladevas, are said to exist who possess half the powers of a Vasudeva. Over all these, the Tirthankara, who will be presently described, is the supreme head. Much has been written regarding the denizens of this sphere.

There is another extensive region, where its people have garments of the leaves of its trees¹⁰ and their food is wild fruits or the sweet verdure produced by its soil. They are beautiful of countenance and pleasing in disposition. Their stature varies from one to three karoh, in height. One son or

Mackenzie mentions nine varieties. Their gradual disappearance pertends the destruction of the work.

daughter is born to them after which they die. They are called Juglyah¹¹ and when they grow to adolescence, they marry, and their duration of life extends from one to three palyopama.

It is said that those who have not been charitable in deed, nor practised good works, pass after death among this race, and obtain the recompense thereof and bear no burden of pain.

The Nāraķis, like the devatās, can assume various shapes and many of their conditions, but their aspect is terrible and always in dejection and gloom. In the six degrees in which hell is said to be divided, they are agitated in burning torment, and though in agony are ever maleficent and from innate wickedness torture each other.

The class called Bhavana-pati have ingress to three degrees of this sphere and are the ministers of chastisement to these fiends. The stature of the dwellers in the first degree is from three to thirty one cubits and six fingers, and their age between ten thousand years and one Sāgara. The stature of these in the second degree is double that of the first, and this proportion of increase runs through the remaining degrees: the duration of life in the second degree is from one to three Sāgaras. The age of the denizens of the third degree extends from a minimum of three Sāgaras and attains to a maximum of seven: of the fourth, from seven to ten; of the fifth, to seventeen; of the sixth, to twenty-two; and of the seventh, to thirty-three.

Tiryagyoni signifies the rest of the animal creation and is three-fold:—(1) aquatic; (2) terrestrial: (3) aerial. The first named order is five-fold, viz., (1) acquatic animals like the Susmār, 12 which resemble men, elephants and horses etc.:

¹¹ For Prākrit, Jugala, Sanskrit, Yugala, a pair, turned into adjectival form.

Derived from the Sanskrit Sisumëra (child-killing), the Gangetic porpoise: in Persian it commonly means a species of lizard. Karah, probably some kind of eel.

(2) fishes of various kinds; (3) the tortoise; (4) the Karāh, an animal in the shape of a tent-rope, four yards long and more, which twines itself round the legs of elephants and other animals and prevents their getting out of the water: (5) the crocodile.

The second order is of three kinds: quadrupeds like cattle: those that creep on their bellies, as snakes: and such as can move upon two feet like the weasel.

The third order is of four kinds: two domesticated with man, viz., whose pinions are of feathers, like the pigeon, or of skin, like the bat; and two others that fly in the blissful abodes of the gods, each of which is described with its peculiar characteristics, and many circumstances are related of them. The duration of life in the first class is from two gharis to one purva which is equal to seventy krors of lakhs and fifty-six thousand krors of years. (70,560,000,000,000). The second and third classes in their minimum are like the first, but the second does not extend beyond three palyopama, while the third has no determinate limit. They assert that the duration of age among such as have but one sense, if formed of the subtile elements, is two gharis, and the gross body of the earth does not endure above twenty-two thousand vears, nor that of water, above seven thousand; nor of fire, above three days, nor of wind, above three thousand years. Such as have two organs of sense live twelve years; such as possess three organs, forty-nine days, and four organs, six months. The animal creation possessing five organs of sense together with mankind have a life of three palyopania, while the Nărakis and devatās live thirty-three Săgaras but not beyond this term.

In the interchange of embodiment of these four classes, they allow twenty-four habitations to the soul which enters into air, fire, water, earth, the vegetable creation of two, three and four organs of sense, quadrupeds born of the womb, the ten classes of the infernal regions, the Bhavanapati,

Vyantara, Jyotishka, Vaimānika, men and devatās. After death, [104] it enters into one of the following five, viz., mankind, the animal creation with five ergans of sense, water, earth, and vegetable forms. The souls of men may come and go through twenty-two forms and when they pass into air or fire, no more assume human shape. Hell-bodies may assume two forms, those of men or of animals with five senses born of the womb, and their lives like those of the Juglyah class are not of any considerable length, nor do they ever enter paradise. Those of the seventh degree of hell, do not even enter human bodies, but each of the (other) three kinds of animals having five organs of sense, have entry and exit through all the twenty-four habitations.

The arithmeticians of this sect apply the term laksha to one hundred thousand, which the vulgar pronounce lakh. Ten lakhs make a prayuta, and ten prayutas are termed a koti, called generally a kror. One hundred krors make an arba (Sansk. arbuda), and ten arba or kharba, and ten kharbas a nikharba, ten nikharbas, a mahā-saroja, called also padma. Ten padmas make a S'ankha, ten S'ankha, a Samudra, called also Korākor.

They state that if of a seven day's child of the Juglyah age, the hair, being four thousand and ninety-six times as thick as the hair of the Delhi people, be taken and cut up till further sub-division be impracticable, and a well, four karoh in length, breadth and depth, be filled with such particles, and a single one of the aforesaid particles be taken out of the well at the expiry of each hundred years till the well be emptied, this period would constitute a palyopama. The lapse of ten Samudra of a palyopama constitutes a Sāgara.

Having now discussed the first of the (six) objects classed under Prameya, I briefly mention the other five. The second,

¹³ Lake-born; an epithet of the lotus which in Sanskrit is also called padma.

Akāsa, ether, is a subtile substance, eternal and all pervading, possessing neither intelligence nor soul. The third, kāla, time, is a substance like the preceding, but not all-pervading. It circumscribes the terrestrial abode of man. The fourth Pudgala¹⁴(matter or substance), is four-fold. If not divisible (atomic), nor compounded with another body, it is called pramana, and if in conjunction, pradesa. When, several pradesas unite, they are called desa, and the conjunction of several desas is termed skandha.15 The first is accounted eternal and has five qualities, colour, odour, phlegm, and two out of eight opposite states of gravity or tenuity, rigidity or softness, heat or coldness, greediness or its contrary, [105] The fifth in Dharmāstikāya, (the predicament virtue). It is a substance by the instrumentality of which, the rational soul and mind (manas), and matter (pudgala), are capable of movement, as a fish by means of water. The sixth is Adharmastikaya (the predicament vice). This is a substance, quiescent, and favourable to repose. In some works there is mention of nine first principles called tattvas, viz., (1), Jiva, 16 soul; (2). Ajiva, the contrary to this, as ether, time, &c.; (3), Punya; (4). Pāpa. By the conjunction of a multiplicity of matter and soul-forms, joy and sorrow, ease and pain are produced and this conjunction is termed karman (works), and is also distinguished as prakriti. All that is productive of virtue is

the perfect soul of the deified saints: the liberated soul: and the soul in bondage. Ajiva comprehends the four elements and all that is fixed, as mountains, or moveable, as rivers, and is synony-

mous with Pudgala.

¹⁴ Compounds sometimes arise from separation and conjunction combined and hence are called pudgalas, because they "fill" (pur) and "dissolve" (gal). Sarva Darsana Sangr., p. 52. Weber translates it Atom-Stoff. Fragment der. Bhag., p. 236.

¹⁵ This word signifies the elements of being or the forms of

¹⁵ This word signifies the elements of being or the forms of mundane consciousness of which there are five in the Buddhist philosophy. Pradesa, one of the forms of the soul's bondage, is the entrance into the different parts of the soul by the masses, made up of an endless number of parts, of the various bodies developed by the consequences of action. S. Darsana, p. 56.

16 Lebens-geist. Weber. There are three descriptions of this:

called punya, and papa is vice. Karman is eight-fold:-(1), Inānā-varaniya (shrouding of knowledge), forms of matter that by their conjunction veil each of the five kinds of knowledge that have been noticed. (2). Darsang-varaning (shrouding of study), shrouds apprehension by the five organs of sense. (3). Vedaniya (individual consciousness), conjunction of matter by means of which the soul is affected by joy or sorrow. (4). Mohaniya, (producing delusion), conjunction of atoms which causes good to be mistaken for evil and the reverse. (5). Ayus (age), conjunction of atoms on which depends the continuance of animal life. (6). Naman. (name). conjunction of things which is the creative complement of genus, species and individual existence. (7). Gotra (race), the conjunction of atoms by which the soul assumes the forms of eminent and ignoble persons. (8). Antarāya (interference), conjunction of atoms by which men abstain from works, are unable to take nourishment, have no inclination for sexual intercourse, take no profit in trade nor practise liberality or mortification.

V. Asrava¹⁷ (flow, movement), evil actions of five kinds, viz. bodily injury, falsehood, theft, incontinence, unbridled desire.

VI. Samuara (stopping), is abstention from the above five actions.

VII. Bandha (bondage), is the union of matter with soul.

VIII. Nirjarā is the gradual disruption of conjoined atoms by the mortification of the body.¹⁸

(jarayati), all sin previously incurred and the whole effect of works.

act, called Yoga. As a door opening into the water is called Asrava, because it causes the stream to descend, so by this impulse, the consequences of acts flow in upon the soul. It is the association of the body with right or wrong deeds and comprises all the karmans. All these eight classes of acts are mentioned in the Bhagavati. v. Weber's Fragment der Bhagavati, p. 166, II.

talla i varintali

IX. Moksha, called also mukti, is the total disseverance of atoms, which cannot be attained without knowledge and works. As when a fire takes place in the dwelling of a lame and a blind man, neither of them [106] alone can escape, but the blind man may take the lame on his back, and by the vision of the one and the movement of the other they both may reach a place of safety.

It is said that without concurrence of three conditions, this great end cannot be secured; (1), knowledge of the Supreme Being: (2). the acquisition of a guide who makes no distinction between praise and blame, wounding and healing: (3). constancy in good works. These three take rise in obedience and service, by which knowledge is gained. This latter is the chief source of a passionless state (virāga) which annihilates the impulse (āsvara) of the embodied spirit, whence proceeds the closing (samvara) of the passage to such impulses, and this again incites men to austerity whereby they are occupied in the mortification of the spirit and the body. This mortification is of twelve kinds:—(1), not to eat at particular times. Formerly abstinence from solid food for a whole year was practised, and by some for nine months, but in these days six months is the longest duration: (2), to eat sparingly, and to beg for food from not more than five houses, and to fast till the next day if none be forthcoming, and to abstain from five things: viz., milk, curds, butter, oil of sesame and sweets: (3). mortification of the body in enduring the sun's heat: (4). to take rest on hot sand: (5). to endure nakedness in cold: (6). to draw up the arms and legs and sit on the haunches. They say that it requires a long time before these six practices can be successfully accomplished, and many fail in their performance.

It consists chiefly in mortification. Bondage is that which binds the embodied spirit by association of the soul with deeds. *Moksha* is its deliverance from the fetters of works, v. Colebrooke I, p. 407.

Regarding the expiation of sins, strange penances are prescribed for each transgression, such as, obedience to the religious director; service of ascetics; reading of voluminous books; bowing the head in meditation. This latter must not be for less than two gharis, and some among former devotees continued it for twelve years: to stand with the arms hanging down, and to refrain from movement. These six exercises quickly lead to perfection.

There are forty-five great texts among this sect, of which twelve are termed Angas, considered to be sacred books. (1). Achārānga, rule of conduct for ascetics. (2) Sutrakritanga, containing three hundred and sixty precepts of devotees and demonstrations of each. (3). Sthānānga, in which from one to ten (acts) essential to purity are enumerated, beginning with one, applicable to the upper and lower worlds, and so throughout the series to ten. (4). Samavāyānga; herein from ten to ten millions are enumerated and divers other truth. (5). Bhagavatyānga; this contains thirty-six thousand questions put by Gautama to Mahādeva¹⁹ and the answers thereto. (6). Jnātādharmakathā, containing thirty-five million ancient legends. [P. 107] (7). Upāsakadasā, an account of ten devotees of Mahadeva. (8). Antakriddasa, on those who have attained the eternal beatitude of liberation. (9) Anuttaropapāti-kadasānga, on the blessed who for their good works have passed into the twenty-sixth degree of paradise. (10). Prasnavyākaranānga, mentions various works, the source of good and evil acts. (11). Vipākasrutānga, former consequences of actions, which having borne the recompense of good and evil are forever laid to rest. (12). Chaudah-purvanga (anga of fourteen Purvas), containing questions that concern mankind generally, with various reflections and classes of acts.

The twenty-four Tirthankaras having in these deliverances revealed the will of the Supreme Being, their successors

¹⁹ An error for Mahāvira.

collected them and reduced them to writing. Twelve of them are termed Upāngas, in which the purport of the former books has been concisely recorded with some additional matter. Four books are called Mula-Sutras, in which are given the usages of religious preceptors, the mode of begging, manner of life, mortification, worship of God and rules of composition. Six works are termed Chedda-grantha, on expiation of sin. Ten others are called Pāinna, explanation of the anatomy of the limbs, the manner of birth in animals, and all that takes place at the dissolution of elementary connection, and other subjects. Another work designated Nandi-Sutra, treats of the five kinds of knowledge, which have been already mentioned.

The devotees of this sect are called Yatis. Sishya (disciple), is an inquirer who enters on this path. Ganesa-sishya²¹ is an ascetic who for six months at a stretch restrains the inordinate spirit within the prison of freedom from desire.

²⁰ The Sanskrit for this Präkrit word is Prakirna, and signifies a collection of miscellaneous rules.

Weber in his Sacred literature of the Jains says that the third group of texts of the Siddhānta is formed by the ten pāinnas, a name which denoting "scattered, hastily sketched" pieces, well suits their real nature as a group of texts corresponding to the Vedic parisishtas. It is as yet undetermined how old is their position as the third part of the Siddhānta and what caused their location there. They are with few exceptions in metre and a considerable portion of them refers to the proper sort of euthanasy, the confession required for this end and the abjuration of everything evil. Physiology, mythology and astrology and hymns are also treated. (I. A. Part CCLIX, April 1892). Weber is unable to make out the significance of the title Mula-Sutra, of which there are four. The text is composed in metre and principally slokas. The entire Siddhanta according to Weber, at present embraces 45 texts divided into six groups. (1) eleven or twelve Angas. (2) twelve Upāngas. (3) ten Painnas. (4) six Cheddasutras. (5) two Sutras without a common name, Nandi and Anuyogadvāram. (6) four Mula-Sutras.

The names of all these will be found in I. A. Part CCXIII, October, 1888.

²¹ From Gana-isa lord of troops; Gana with the Jains signifies a school or a school derived from one teacher, and Ganadhara, the head thereof.

If he eats one day, he fasts two, and defiles not his hand with milk, curds, butter, oil, nor sweets. He eats only of a little parched wheat thrown into hot water, and begs for alms only from one house; his nights are spent till morn in prayers, and five hundred times during each night he prostrates himself in worship, and in the day reads the book of Bhagavati.²² [P. 108]

The Pravartaka (founder), has much the same character, but on account of his zeal and experience is nominated by the chief religious authority of the time over the pilgrims in this desolate wilderness, to superintend their daily actions and appoint suitable penance for such as are idolent and inclined to ease. The Sthāvira (elder), is an assistant to the preceding who controls the refractory and aids the languishing. The Ratnādhika, or Paniyāsa as he is also called, is zealous in the service of God wherever duty calls and thither speeds to remedy disorder: he also prepares the place for the Acharya or spiritual teacher, and has the care of his garments and the settlement of disputes among the ascetics is committed to him. The Upādhyāya (sub-teacher), has nearly the same rank as an Acharya, and the disciples verify under his direction the words of the sacred texts and the questions thereto appertaining. These teachers possess nothing of their own but the garments which will be particularised later. The Acharya is a personage of a genial disposition, reverent of aspect, pleasant of speech, grave, learned and benevolent. He must be acquainted with the proofs of the doctrines of his sect, and learned in the precepts of the other eight schools and skilled to refute them, and no treatise

This work is mentioned by Wilson (I. 281. Essays 1862, Rost) as one of the eleven primary works of the Jainas, an instruction in the various sources of wordly pain, or in the paths of virtue, and consists of lessons given to Gautama by Mahavira and is in Präkrit, in 36,000 stanzas. It consists of a series of questions by Imdabhuti, Roha, and other disciples of Mahāvira to that sage, and his answers, relating to a variety of topics.

should be unknown to him. The burden of the care of his flock lies upon his shoulders, and to promote the welfare of his institute must be his chief aim. Garments and books that are in excess of ordinary requirements are in his keeping for supply at need to inquirers of this road. The Ganadhara by fullness of knowledge and good works arrives at an exalted degree of wisdom, and possesses the eight miraculous endowments mentioned in the Pataniala system. He is the representative of the ling. The ling who is also called Tirthankara (creating a passage through the circuit of life), surpasses this dignity and attains omniscience, is beautiful of countenance. and perfect in the moral order. His breath is redolent with fragrance and his words full of wisdom. His flesh and blood are white, and none has ever seen him eat or defecate. Neither sickness nor sweat nor dirt contaminate his holy person. His nails and hair grow not long. His words fall so harmoniously that every listener might deem that his speech was music. In whatsoever land he resides, snakes, scorpions and other venomous reptiles disappear, neither excess nor deficiency in rainfall occurs, and war, pestilence and drought cease. When he moves abroad, the trees are voiceful in praise, and many ministering spirits attend to guard him. It is said that his beautiful soul is imprisoned in the ventricular cavity of his form by a special connection, and in contradistinction to men in general, he is illumined by three kinds of apprehension, obtains cognition through the organs of sense and mind (manas) and the purport of all books is laid open to him. He discerns all that has form whether far or near, and after being born, and through the discipline of austerities, he becomes cognisant of the secret thoughts of men and arrives at the sublime degree of omniscience. These qualities belong to the whole twenty-four Tirthankaras of whom mention has been made. IP. 1091

The ascetics of this body have no intercourse with women, and avoid the spot where the sound of her voice is

heard. They abstain from meat, fruit and sweetmeats. They cook no food in their own dwellings, and at the meal-time of others, they approach a house and there stand and announce themselves by the words, "dharma lābha" that is, 'he who doeth good, receiveth a reward', and without importunity, take whatever of daily cooked food is brought. They may not take away milk, oil and rice together for food, and without being covetous of the taste thereof must speedily swallow their meal. And they must not knowingly accept food cooked especially for them or for the sake of mendicants in general, nor which has been brought from out of a dark room, nor fetched by mounting from a low to an elevated place, nor for which the lock of a door has been opened nor brought out having been previously purchased.3 They drink nothing but warm water and do not eat or drink?4 during the night. They never light a lamp nor have a fire in the house in which they dwell. They may not pick up any thing fallen nor wash any member of the body but that which is actually soiled. They must avoid avarice and anger, and abstain from falsehood, from injury to life and from theft, and may have no worldly goods, but only necessary raiment. This, in other than winter time, consists of three robes. One of these is used as a loin cloth, a second thrown over the shoulder like a belt and the third worn over the uncovered head.25 In winter a special woollen garment is added. They have also a cloth a little more than a span and a half in length and breadth which they keep folded in four. This is placed over the mouth when reading and the two ends are stuffed into the ears so that no

²³ I translate with diffidence this crabbed and ungrammatical sentence. The Akaranga Sutra lays down rules for these cases.

The text has pushidan by mistake for nushidan.

²⁵ Two of the three robes and linen under Kshaumikakalpa, and one woollen upper garment (aurnikakalpa). Besides these (kalpatrya), the monk possesses an aims-bowl (patra), with six things belonging to it, a broom (rajoharana), and a veil for the mouth (mukhavastrika). Jacobi, p. 67, n. 3.

insect may enter and be injured, nor the person nor the book be defiled by saliva. They also carry a Dharmadhvaja26 made of woollen hairs like a tassel, bound with scarlet cloth and fixed in a wooden handle. As they constantly sit on the ground, they first gently sweep it with both hands that nothing may remain beneath. The elders of this sect, who have been briefly mentioned, spread an old woollen cloth by way of carpet, and spend their days profitably in fasting and good works. Every six months they pull out the hairs of their head with their hands and nails, and go barefoot among thorns and stony places, but in the rainy season they do not stir abroad. 27

The laity of this sect are called Srāvaka. They observe. firstly, the following twelve rules. I. Never to injure the innocent. II. To avoid (the following) five kinds of untruths which are accounted great falsehoods; (1) false testimony, (2) breach of trust, (3) regarding land, (4) in praise and blame of others, (5) concerning a cow. III. Not to stain their hands with dishonesty. IV. Not to look upon the wife of another. V. To be content with a moderate share of worldly goods. VI. To give the surplus in charity. VII. On journeys, to move stated distances. VIII. To determine the daily need of food and other necessaries, and to live accordingly. IX. Not to approach a spot where a sati has taken place or a robber executed. X. To set apart two or three gharis of the twenty-four hours, and with complete detachment of heart to employ these in devotion to the bountiful Creator. XI. At the hour of sleep to resolve on abstention from further food. and effacing the suggestions of desire, to lay down to rest .. XII. On the 8th, 14th, 15th, and 1st day of the 1st quarter of the moon, [P. 110] to abstain from food and drink through-

The emblem or ensign of religion".
The reason of this is, that many living beings are produced and many seeds spring up, the footpaths are not recognisable. (Jacobi), p. 136.

out the day, and to feed the first beggar (met with) on the morn of the break of fast. The points aforesaid should be gone over every day and at the time of rest, and the conscience be therein examined.

The claim of rectitude of life in this austere sect is applicable to a man who fulfils the following conditions:-He should constantly listen to the reading of the sacred texts, perform work of charity, make a practice of praising the virtuous, defile not his tongue in disparagement of another, especially of temporal rulers. He should take in wedlock one who is his equal, and be ever in fear of committing sin. He should conform to the laws of the land wherever he abides, and should so choose his dwelling that it be not , public to every passer-by, nor yet so secluded that none can discover it, and it should not have more than two or three doors. He should choose good neighbours and associate only with the virtuous. He should be dutiful to his father and mother, and avoid a city or a province invaded by foreign troops. He must regulate his expenses in accordance with his income, and make his dress conform to the same standard. He must be assiduous in reading the divine books, and avoid an unrestrained spirit in the regulation of his life. He must take his meals at stated times, and observe due measure in his regard for wordly wealth, and the getting thereof and attachment thereunto, and should be zealous in hospitality to a guest, an ascetic, and in the care of the sick. He should not be self-opinionated, nor a lover of his own speech. He must prize learning. He must not journey out of season, nor into a country where he cannot practise his religion, nor enter into a quarrel without discerning his ally from his enemy. He must sympathize with his kindred, and be provident and far-sighted, and recognize the claims of gratitude, and so hear himself in his outward conduct that men may hold him in regard. He must be modest, gentle and courteous in demeanour, and exert himself in the interests of others, and

subduing his internal enemies, hold his five senses under the control of reason.

The prohibitions to be observed by both the ascetics and the laity are, to abstain from flesh-meat, wine, honey, butter, opium, snow, ice, hail, everything that grows beneath the earth, fruits whose names are unknown, or that contain small seeds, and from eating at night.

The Jaina institutes recognize two orders, the Svetambaras (clad in white) and Digambaras (sky-clad). The latter wear no clothes and go naked. According to the Digambaras. a woman cannot attain final liberation. They say that when any one arrives at the sublime degree of mukti, he needs no food till he dies. They are at one with the Svetambaras on many points. The writer has met with no one who had personal knowledge of both orders and his account of the Digambaras has been written as it were in the dark, but having some acquainance with the learned of the Svetambara order, who are also known as Sewra he has been able to supply a tolerably full notice. From ancient times, throughout the extent of Hindustan, the Brahmans and Jains have been the repositories of knowledge and ceremonial observance, but from short-sightedness have held each other in reproach. The Brahmans worship Krishna as a deity, while the Jainas relegate him to service in hell. The Brahmans deem it better to face a raging elephant or a ravening lion than to meet with. one of this sect. His Majesty, however, in his earnest search after truth, has partially dispelled the darkness of the age by the light of universal toleration, and the numerous sectaries, relinquishing their mutual aversion, live in the happy accomplishment of a common harmony.

There is a division between the Digambaras and Svetambaras on this point, the latter conceding the doubtful privilege of final annihilation to women also. The other points of difference may be read in Wil on's Feerus I p 340

BAUDDHA.29

The founder of this rational system of faith is known as Buddha, and is called by many names. One of these is Sākyamuni, vulgarly pronounced Shākmuni. It is their belief that by the efficacy of a life of charity, he attained to the highest summit of wisdom, and becoming omniscient, secured the treasure of final liberation. His father was Raia Suddhodana, prince of Behar, and his mother's name was Māuā. He was born by way of the navel and was surrounded by a brilliant light, and the earth trembled, and a stream of the water of the Ganges showered down upon him. At the same time he took seven steps, uttered some sublime words. and said. "This will be my last birth." The astrologers foretold that on his attaining the age of twenty-nine years and seven days, he would become a mighty ruler, institute a new religion, and accomplish his final liberation. At the very time foretold, he renounced the world and retired into the desert. For a short period he lived at Benares, Rajgir, and other sacred places, and after many wanderings reached Kashmir.

Many of the Hindu race, and from the coasts, and from Kashmir, Tibet and Scythia were converted by him. From the date of his death to the present time, which is the fortieth year of the Divine Era, two thousand nine hundred and sixty-two years have elapsed. He possessed the gift of an efficacious will and the power of performing miracles. He lived one hundred and twenty years. The learned among the Persians and Arabs, name the religious of this order

Manual of Indian Buddhism (Grundriss, series), and the works of the two Rhys Davids. The legends about Buddha are to be found in Asvaghosha's Buddha-charita (Cowell), the Lalita Vistara, Rockhill's Life of Buddha, Beal's Romantic Legends of Salva Buddha, Bigandet's Gaudama (Burmese legends), all in English. 11. S.]

Bhikshus; in Tibet they are styled Lāmās. For a long time past scarce any trace of them has existed in Hindusthan, but they are found in Pegu, Tenasserim and Tibet. The third time that the writer accompanied His Majesty to the delightful valley of Kashmir, he met with a few old men of this persuasion, but saw none among the learned, nor observed anything like what is described by Hāfiz Abru and Banākati. The Brāhmans regard him as the ninth avatāra, but do not accept the doctrines commonly ascribed to him, and deny that he is their author.

They hold the Deity to be undefiled by incarnation, and with the Sānkhya, Mimāmsā, and Jaina systems, do not consider him the author of creation. The world, they deem to be without beginning or end, and the whole universe to be at one moment resolved into nothingness, and at another created again as before. They accept the doctrine of the recompense of good and evil deeds, and of hell and heaven, and knowledge, according to them, is a quality of the rational soul. The ascetics of this religion shave their heads, and wear garments of leather and red cloth. [P. 112]

They are frequent in their ablutions, and refuse nothing that is given them as food, and hold all that dies of itself as

In the text Bakhshi. This word occurs in Marco Polo (Yule 1, 293) as Bacsi and in a note (p. 305) it is explained to be a corruption of Bhikshu, the proper Sanskrit term for a religious mendicant and in particular for a Buddhist devotee. The word was probably applied, adds the note, to a class only of the Lamas, but among the Turks and Persians became a generic name for them all, and this passage from the Ain is quoted in support. It continues, that according to Pallas the word among the modern Mongols is used in the sense of teacher, and is applied to the oldest and most learned priest of a community, who is the local ecclesiastical chief. Among the Kirghiz Kazzāks the word survives in Marco Polo's sense of a "medicine-man" or conjurer. In Western Turkistān it has come to mean a bard. From its association with persons who could read and write, it seems to have gradually passed into the sense of a clerk. Under the Mahomedan rule, it was applied to an officer who performed duties analogous to those of Quartermaster General and thence came to mean a paymaster. Ency. Isl i, 600. [J. S.]

killed by the act of God, and therefore lawful. They hold no commerce with women, and kill nothing that has life, and looking on plants as possessing it, they refrain from digging them up or cutting them.

Their spiritual energies are directed to six objects: the repression of anger, the pursuit of wisdom, soliciting alms, true understanding of the worship of the Supreme Being, fortitude in austerities, perpetual commune with God. Three things are affirmed by them to be the source of goodness: knowledge, disinterestedness, freedom from envy; and twelve seats the source of good and evil, viz., the five senses, their faculties, if the common sensory, and intellect. These twelve, they term Ayatana (seats).

There are four objects of thought which in place of padārtha (categories), they call (chaturvidha) Arya-satya, four sublime truths. The first is Duhkha-satya reality of misery, which is of five kinds. (1). Vijnāna, (sensation). (2) Vedanā. consciousness, the recompense of good or evil. (3). Sanjnā, name or denomination of things. (4). Sanskāra, (impression), aggregate of merit and demerit. Some assert that since all things are in a state of momentary flux and reflux of existence, the intellectual consciousness thereof is designated by this term. (5) Rupa (form) comprehends the five elements, and their evolutes, and because all these five produce bodily sufferance, they are distinguished under this head.

The second, Samudaya-Satya (progressive accumulation of evil), is all that arises from desire and anger, and which under its influence says, 'I am,' or, 'that is mine.'

The third is Mārga-satya (reality of means), the habit of thought that the world is in momentary annihilation and

In abundance, the twelve inner seats are to be thoroughly reverenced: what use of reverencing aught else below. The five organs of knowledge, the five organs of action, the common sensory, and the intellect have been described by the wise as the twelve inner seats.

reproduction. The fourth is Nirodha-satua (reality of annihilation) which they call Mukti or final liberation. Ten conditions are necessary to attain this degree: (1). Charity. (II). Abstention from evil and practising virtue, that is, to refrain from the following ten actions, viz., taking life, molesting, taking that which is not given, incontinence, falsehood, speaking ill of the good, irascibility, idle speech, evil intention, intercourse prohibited by religious precept. Seven duties are to be fulfilled. Respect for religious guide and spiritual director; veneration of idols; observing the service of others; praise of the good; influencing to good works by gentle speech; perseverance through success or failure in sustaining others in virtue; learning the duties of worship. (III). To be neither elated nor depressed by praise or blame. (IV). To sit in a particular posture. (V). To introduce an idol into a temple which they call chaitya. (VI). To regard the things of the world [P. 113] as they really are. (VII). To be zealous in the seven practices of Yoga prescribed in the Pātanjala system. (VIII). To acquire the habit of five duties, viz., a true and firm acceptance of the commands of the religious director; to be mindful of them and to carry them out; to reduce the body and spirit by rigid austerities; to efface from the heart all external impression; to keep the mind fixed only on the Supreme Being. (IX). To strengthen the bonds of knowledge so that they cannot be broken. (X). To enter upon the knowledge by which final liberation is accomplished. Pramana, proof, with this sect, consists of pratyaksha (perception), and ātman32 (self), and there are two causes of knowledge, evidence of the senses, and demonstration. The first is four-fold, viz., apprehension by the five

³² The Bauddhas do not recognize soul (*Jiva* or ātman) distinct from intelligence (chitta). This latter dwelling within the body and possessing individual consciousness, apprehends objects and subsists as self. In that view only is ātman, self or soul. Colebrooke, I. 47. For the Buddhist conception of the Soul, Hastings. Encyclop. xi. 731-733 and xii, 429; also ātman in ii. 195-197. [J. S.]

senses, or perception by the common sensory or apprehension of the knowledge of the things themselves, or when by reason of the mortification of the senses, the non-apparent and the visible become identical.

In regard to inference and the exposition of the external percipibile their argumentation is lengthy and extremely subtile.

The Bauddhas are divided into four sects.

- 1. The Vaibhāshikas, like the Nyāya school, believe in separate indivisible atoms for each of the four elements but perceptible by the eye; and with them existence is predicable of two entities, cognition and its objects, the latter being apprehended by the senses.
- 2. The Sautrāntikas affirm that objects are cognised by inference.
- 3. Yogāchāras admit only intellect which produces the forms of objects.

The Mādhyamikas hold both cognition and objects to be void (sunya, Hindi sun) and confounded existence and non-existence.

Many treatises have been written on each of these divisions and there is considerable variance of opinion on questions of objective and subjective existence. Three sciences are regarded by them as important; the science of proof: the science of administration: the science of the interior life.

NASTIKA.33

Chārvāka, after whom this school is named, was an unenlightened Brāhman. Its followers are called by the Brāhmans, Nāstikas or Nihilists. They recognise no existence apart from the four elements, nor any source of perception save through the five organs of sense. They do not believe

The term Nāstika signifies one who disowns the existence of a future life. Chārvāka in Hastings, viii 138 and 493: i. 47 (nihilism).

in a God nor in immaterial substances, and affirm faculty of thought to result from the equilibrium of the aggregate elements. Paradise, they regard as a state in which man lives as he chooses, free from the control of another, and hell the state in which he lives subject to another's rule. The whole end of man, they say, is comprised in four things: the amassing of wealth, [P. 114] women, fame and good deeds. They admit only of such sciences as tend to the promotion of external order, that is, a knowledge of just administration and benevolent government. They are somewhat analogous to the sophists in their views and have written many works in reproach of others, which rather serve as lasting memorials of their own ignorance.

CHAPTER VI

THE EIGHTEEN SCIENCES..

(Athāra Vidyā).

Having taken a brief survey of the nine schools of philosophy existing in this country, I proceed to state some of the points on which the Brāhmans of the first six systems are agreed and thus brighten the interest of this exposition.

They say that he has attained the summit of knowledge who has garnered his stores of wisdom from this number of sciences and by fathoming their depths, satisfied the desire of his heart.

The first division consists of the Rig Veda!: the second is the Yajur Veda: the third is the Sāma Veda: and the fourth, the Atharvan.

These four are considered to be divine books, as already mentioned. Each of them treats of four matters:—(1). Vidhi, precept and its cogency; (2). Arthavāda, praise and its recompense; (3). Mantra, invocation and prayer which are profitable in particular cases; (4). Nāmadheya, appellation of important acts. Each of them also treats of three things:—(1). Karma, exterior works; (2). Upāsanā, religious meditation; (3). Ināna, perfected knowledge.

The fifth, the Purānas. Eighteen distinct works are styled by this name. They explain in a clear manner the difficulties occurring in the four Vedas above mentioned, and each of them treats of the following five subjects:—(1). The creation of the world. (2). The dissolution thereof. (3) Genea-

For the Puranas, Hastings, viii. 110 (as literature) and x. 447-455 (full description and discussion by Pargiter). [J. S.]

^{&#}x27;On the Vedas, Hastings, Encyclopædia of Religion, viii. 106-109. (Vedic Literature, by Bloomfield), xii. 601-618 (Vedic Religion by Macdonell). Winternitz's History of Indian Literature (now available in an English translation) i, and also the Grundriss.

logies of various families. (4). Account of the fourteen Manvantaras. These are fourteen Manus or holy spirits who, during the whole life of Brahmā, will appear successively for the guidance of mankind, and sustain by their power the burden of the world. The life of each is seventy-one times the four ages, a revolution of the four ages being four million three hundred and twenty thousand years. They likewise mention the fourteen Indras associated with them, (for they say that [P. 115] during Brahmā's life, fourteen deities will successively rule the celestial regions), and the actions by means of which they attain to this dignity. There are further the legendary narratives of celebrated monarchs.

The names of the Purānas are:—(1). Matsya. (2) Mār-kanda. (3). Bhavishya. (4). Bhāgavuta. (5). Brahmavaivarta. (6). Brahmānda. (7). Brahma. (8). Vāyu. (9). Vāmana. (10). Vishnu. (11). Vārāha. (12). Agni. (13). Nārada. (14). Padma. (15). Linga. (16). Kurma. (17). Skanda. (18). Garuda.

There are eighteen other books called Upa-purānas, explanatory of the foregoing, which are said by some to be of recent origin. Their names are:—(1). Sanatkumāra, originally Saura, so called from the name of its compiler. (2). Nāradiya. This was also the name of a Purāna and the same may be said of some others. The Upa-purānas in fact, contain accounts not given in the Purānas, and they are styled by the designations of their originals. (2). Nārasinha. (3). Sivadharma. (4). Durvāsana. (5). Kāpila. (6). Mānava. (7). Sāukara. (8). Ausanasa. (9). Vāruna. (10). Brahmānda. (11). Kāli and also Kālikā. (12). Māhesvara. (13). Nānda. (14). Sāmba. (15). Aditya. (16). Pārāsara. (17). Bhāgavata. (18). Kurma.

The sixth of the sciences is called *Dharma-Sastra*, (institutes of the law) or doctine relating to good works. This is

² Some of these names do not occur in Wilson's lists and their right to be called *Purānas* is disputed.

also taken from the Vedas, and accompanied by a multiplicity of detail. It is also called *Smriti*,³ and has a similar number of divisions. The principal subjects of these books are three. The duties of the four castes regarding religious worship, the duties of administration, and the expiation of sins.

The names of the eighteen codes of memorial law (smriti) are as follows:—

(1). Manu. (2). Yājnavalkya. (3). Atri. (4). Angiras. (5). Usanas. (6). Gautama. (7). Parāsara. (8). Sankha Likhita. (9). Vishnu. (10). Hārita. (11). Vasishtha. (12). Yama. (13). Sātātapa. (14). Apastamba. (15). Kātyāyana. (16). Vrihaspati. To these some have added the following two. (17). Vyāsa. (18). Daksha. [117]

The names of the eighteen Upa-smriti or minor law codes are—

(1). Angiras. (2). Jābāli. (3). Nāchiketa. (4). Skanda. (5). Laugākshi. (6). Kāsyapa. (7). Vyāsa. (8). Sanatkumāra. (9). Shatrzu.⁴ (10). Janaka. (i1). Vyāghra. (12). Kātyāyana. (13). Jatukarnya. (14). Kapinjala. (15). Baudhāyana. (16). Kanāda. (17). Visvāmitra. (18). Sumantu. The seventh is Sikshā (Phonetics), the science of letters.

4 Or Shatarzu. Doubtless the Shattrinsa a well-known work on law. The Shattrinsanmata was a collection of the opinions of 36 Munis of whom the names of all 18 mentioned in the above list, occur; and several of the second.

For these following six doctrines of Phonetics, Prosody, Grammar, Etymology, Astronomy and Ceremonial, commonly called the Vedangas, see Max Müller's History of Sanskrit Litera-

For the Dharma-Sastras, Hastings, Encyclop. viii. 109 (as literature); x. 897 and scattered ref. (Smriti); vii. 352-353 (Sruti); iv. 283-284 (on crimes), vii. 850-853 (Hindu Law). Besides the evidence of precept from an extant revelation (sruti), another source of evidence is founded on the recollections (smriti) of the ancient sages. These recollections have come down by unbroken tradition, and are known under the title of Dharma-Sastra, the institutes of law, civil and religious. This sacred code of law comprises a system of duties, religious and civil. The latter includes law, private and criminal, the forms of judicial procedure, rules of pleading. law of evidence, adverse titles, oaths, ordeal, &c.

The eighth is Kalpa, ceremonial, a science which treats of ten kinds of duties from the beginning of marriage to the time when the son is invested with the Brahmanical thread; viz., the marriage; cohabitation: the third month from pregnancy to the fifth: the sixth to the eighth: the birth: the naming of the child: carrying him out to see the sun: feeding him: cutting his hair: investing him with the sacred thread. At each of these times special prayers and important ceremonies are required.

The ninth is Vyākarana,6 the science of grammar and inguistic analysis, upon which are based the rules for the composition of letters. Firstly, they reckon fifty-two letters under three kinds. Fourteen are vowels (Svara) which are ooth letters and diacritical accents, and can be pronounced without extraneous adjunct: These are, a (4): ā (41): [118] (g): i (f): u (g): u (g): ri (m): li (g): li (g): diphthongs) e (प): ai (प): o (भो): au (भौ). Thirty-three etters are called Vyanjana, consonants which cannot be sounded without a vowel. These are k (5): kh (4): g (7): h (3): n (5) which is a letter having a nasal sound produced oy the throat and nose, ch (%): chh (8): j (%): jh (%): (अ): t (a): th (a): d (a): dh (a): n (a): t (a): th (a): (a): dh (a): n (a): p (a): ph (as): b (as): ph (as): bh (as): m (as): \mathbf{v} (4): \mathbf{r} (7): \mathbf{l} (8): \mathbf{v} (4): \mathbf{s} (5): \mathbf{s} (7): \mathbf{s} (7): \mathbf{h} (8): here are five other letters, one of which is called

The third Vedanga is Vyākarana or Grammar, represented by the grammarians ending with Pānini, whose work however, superseded those of his predecessors to such an extent that little but their names and a few rules under their authority have come

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down to us, V. Hist. Sansk. Lit.

THE WAS TO SHE WAS A STATE OF THE SAME OF

ure, p. 113, ff. The first are considered requisite for reading the /eda, the two next for understanding it, and the last two for employing it at sacrifies. Sikshā is derived from sak to be able and means a desire to know. The doctrine of the Sikshā was embodied in the Aranyakas, and perhaps the Brāhmanas. Kalpa or Ceremonial is the fifth and most complete Vedānga. The ceremonies mentioned by Abul Fazl, are described in the Grihya-Sutras and tre briefly alluded to by Müller, p. 264.

Anusvāra, sounded like kan with a quiescent nasal. Another is visarga (a surd breathing), like the final h in kah. A third is called jihvāmuliya, a letter between an h and a kh, and occurs as a medial and is sounded from the root of the tongue. The fourth is called gaja-kumbha kriti, a quiescent medial letter approximating in sound to a bhā. The fifth is ardhabindu, a quiescent nasal, like a suppressed nun (\checkmark).

Such is the exposition of the Sanskrit alphabet as far as I have been able to transcribe it. Some points which it has been beyond my power adequately to explain I have but alluded to. The last five letters are employed with vowels and consonants alike, and each consonant is capable of being vocalized with the fourteen vowels. At the present day the fourteen vowels (svara) are called mātra' and two being commonly omitted, twelve only are employed. Each written letter is separate and unconnected with the next. Letters are of four kinds. If without a [P. 119] moveable vowel a letter is called (vyānjana). If it be a simple short vowel or if it add one mātra to a quiescent long vowel, it is called hrasva. Twice the prosodial time of a short vowel is called dirgha, and if longer than two (i.e. three mātras) it is called pluta or prolated.

Eight modes of utterance are reckoned, viz., from the middle of the chest: the throat: the root of the tongue: between the teeth: the nose: the palate: the lip: and the crown of the head. There is considerable diversity of opinion in all that they discuss but I have chosen the most generally accepted view. Before the writer had gained any acquaintance with this language, he considered the grammatical structure of Arabic to be without a rival, but he is now more fully

⁷ Properly the prosodial time of a short vowel.

⁸ These are the long i and the long I: the latter does not occur in a single genuine word in the language, and is added, says Whitney, for the sake of an artificial symmetry.

aware of the immense labours of Hindu philologists, and the powerful regulative influence of their system.

The tenth science is Nirukta, (etymology), a detailed commentary of Vedic texts.9

The eleventh Jyotisha¹⁰ is on astronomy and its wonders.

The twelfth Chandas is on metre and the classes of verse.

The last six are called Angas, that is to say that a know-ledge of these six is necessary to the comprehension of the Vedas.

The thirteenth is the *Mimāmsā* of which the three kinds have been already mentioned.

The fourteenth is the Nyāya which has been summarily treated among the sciences.

The fifteenth is the Ayur-veda, the science of anatomy, hygiene, nosology and therapeutics. It is taken from the first Veda.¹¹

This is the fourth Vedanga as represented by the Nirukta of Yaska and applies to Vedic etymologies exclusively. It is important to distinguish his Nirukta, the text of which is usually called Nighantu, from his commentary of the Nirukta to which the term Nirukta alone is often applied. The Nirukta consists of three parts; the Naighantuka, the Naigama, and the Daivata, in five chapters, containing lists of synonyms, words and Divinities. Max Müller points out that the Greeks and Hindus alone of all nations have had independent conceptions of the sciences of Logic and Grammar, but they started from opposite points. The Greeks began with philosophy and endeavoured to adjust its terminology to the facts of language. The Hindus began with etymology and their generalisations never went beyond arrangements of grammatical forms, partly due to the sacred character of the Vedic hymns, wherein a mispronunciation might mar their religions effect. Thus the grammar of the latter has ended in a colossal pedantry, while that of the Greeks still influences modern culture throughout the civilised world. Hist. Sansk. Lit. p. 160, ff.

¹⁰ Jyotisha is the last of the Vedangas. Its literature is scanty and is mainly represented by a small treatise representing the earliest stage of Hindu astronomy.

¹¹ Medicine,—Hastings Encyclo. iv. 762-772 (under Disease and Medicine, Vedic, by Bolling), viii 292 (Magic and Religion, by H. A. Rose); ix. 43-48 (Indian Medicine) 53-57 (Muhammadan Medicine). Ayur-veda contains eight departments: 1. Salya, surgery: 2. Sālākya, inquiry into diseases of the head and its organs: 3. Kāya-chikitsā, treatment of diseases affecting the whole body:

The sixteenth is *Dhanur-veda*, the science of archery and of the use of various other weapons, taken from the second Veda.¹²

The seventeenth is Gāndharva-veda, the science of music, vocal, instrumental and practical, taken from the third or Sāma-veda.

The eighteenth is Artha-shāstra, 13 treating of the acquisition of wealth and its profitable employment. These four are termed subordinate or Upa-vedas. [P. 120]

The arts and sciences cultivated throughout the extent of Hindustan are too numerous to mention, but somewhat of them shall be briefly reviewed as an acceptable offering to the curious, in the hope that it may prove interesting as well as an incentive to inquiry.

KARMA-VIPAKA.

Or the ripening of actions.¹⁴ This is a system of know-ledge of an amazing and extraordinary character, in which the learned of Hindustan concur without dissentient opinion. It reveals the particular class of actions performed in a former birth which have occasioned the events that befall men in

Regarded as an *Upa-veda* connected with the Yajur-veda, and ascribed to Visvā-mitra; or, according to others, to Bhrigu. *Ibid*.

According to Monier Williams, it is the science of polity, or moral and political government.

^{4.} Bhuta-vidya, treatment of diseases of the mind supposed to be produced by demonical influence: 5. Kaumāra-bhritya treatment of children: 6. Agada-tantra, doctrine of antidotes: 7. Rāsāyana-tantra, doctrine of elixirs. 8. Vājikarana-tantra, rules for increasing generative powers. Monier Williams. Sansk. Dict.

That is, the good and evil consequences in this life of human acts performed in previous births. This work of Visvesvara-bhatta explains expiatory rites to be performed in cases of disease, supposed to be the punishment of offences committeed in a previous state of existence, written in Slokas in the form of a dialogue between Sakuntala Bharata and Satatapa-Bhrigu. Monier Williams. For Karma see Hastings Encyclo. vii. 673-677, and for the caste system, ii. 230-239.

this present life, and prescribes the special expiation of each sin, one by one. It is of four kinds.

THE FIRST KIND discloses the particular action which has brought a man into existence in one of the five classes into which mankind is divided, and the action which occasions the assumption of a male or female form. A Kshatriya who lives continently, will, in his next birth, be born a Brāhman. A Vaisya who hazards his transient life to protect a Brāhman, will become a Kshatriya. A Sudra who lends money without interest and does not defile his tongue by demanding repayment, will be born a Vaisua. A Mlechchha who serves a Brāhman and eats food from his house till his death, will become a Sudra. A Brāhman who undertakes the profession of a Kshatriya will become a Kshatriya, and thus a Kshatriya will become a Vaisya, and a Vaisya a Sudra, and a Sudra a Mlechchha. Whosoever accepts in alms a Krishnajing or skin of the black antelope, or the bed on which a man has died, or a buffalo, or receives an alms in the shrine of Kurukshetra, will, in the next birth, from a man become a woman. Any woman or Mlechchha, who in the temple of Badari-Nārāyana¹⁵ sees the form of Nārāyana, and worships him with certain incantations, will in the next birth, if a woman, become a man, and if a Mlechchha, a Brāhman. This shrine is in the hills north of Hardwar. They say that for any one who has not an accurately defined caste, the horoscope of the result of any particular action is taken, and the place of Mars is observed. Whatever may be its position, the dominus domus shows the caste of the inquirer, and the dominant of the seventh house of Mars shows the caste of the inquirer in his former birth. If Venus and Jupiter, his caste is Brahman: if the sun and Mars, a Kshatriya: if the

Commonly Badrināth, a peak of the Himalayan range in Carhwal Dist. N. W. P. reaching to a height of 23,210 feet above the sea. Its glaciers are the source of the Alaknanda river. Immense numbers of pilgrims visit Badrināth annually, 50,000 persons having in some years attended the great festival. I. G.

moon, a Vaisya: if Saturn, a Sudra: if the head and tail of the Dragon, a Mlechchha. 16

THE SECOND KIND shows the strange effects of actions on health of body and in the production of manifold diseases. Physicians attribute these to constitution, but this science to the results of former conduct. Hindu philosophers class diseases under three heads:-(1). Those that can be cured by medicinal treatment; (2). Those that are removable by observing the following courses of procedure: (3). Those that require the application of both. To diagnose each of these, certain symptoms are recognised which are classed under three states, viz., (1). actions deliberately committed in a state of wakefulness; (2), such as are unconsciously done [121] in that condition;17 (3), and those that are effected during sleep. In the first, the sickness is incapable of remedy; in the second a remedy can be applied; in the third case, medicinal treatment to some extent restores health, but there is liability to relapse. Disorders of the heart, they consider, as originating in intention, and those of the body from inadvertency and error. Volumes have been written on this subject and the advice of physicians disregarded as unprofitable. Some of these causes of sickness are here set down for purposes of illustration.

HEADACHE is caused by former violent language used to father or mother. The remedy is to make the images of

¹⁶ The last chapter of Albiruni's Indica is occupied with the complicated explanation of the astrological calculations of the Hindus. I refer the curious reader to the tabular representations of the different planets, their aspects, influences, houses and indications, together with the tables of the Zodiacal signs and their dominants which are there given.

[&]quot;By what is a man impelled, O Vārshneya!" says Arjuna in the Bhagavad Gitā, "when he commits sin even against his will, as if compelled by force?" "It is lust:" replies Krishna "it is wrath born from the 'passion' mode: know, that this all-devouring, all-defiling is here our foe. Knowledge is enveloped by this which is the eternal foe of the wise man . . . and is an insatiable flame." Davies' Translation.

Kasyapa¹⁸ and Aditi of two tolahs of gold and give them to the poor. The first of these two is regarded as the father of the Devatās, and the latter as the mother.

MADNESS is the punishment of disobedience to father and mother. The cure is to perform the Chāndrāyana, which is to eat one mouthful on the first day, and to increase the food daily by the same quantity for one month, and then to decrease in the same measure till one mouthful is again reached, and to make two images as above of two tolahs of gold and bestow them in alms with one cow.

EPILEPSY results from having administered poison to another at the command of a superior. The cure consists of these two images, a cow, a piece of land and thirty-two sers of sesame-seed, with a repetition of some incantations in the name of Mahādeva.

PAIN IN THE EYES arises from having looked upon another's wife. The cure is Chāndrāyana.

BLINDNESS is the punishment of a matricide which is followed by many years of suffering in hell. The cure is Prājāpatya, 19 which is of five kinds:—(1). Bestowing a cow in charity; (2). Or one tolah of gold; (3). Or feeding twelve Brāhmans; (4). Or throwing into the fire ten thousand times a mixture of sesame-seed, butter, honey and sugar; (5). Or walking a yojana, bare foot to a shrine. Let one or several of these be done in charity thirty times. Or let him make a boat of four tolahs of gold, the mast of silver, and six paddles of copper. Or, if it be a punishment of disobedience to father and mother, the cure is, as already described, the images of

¹⁸ One of the Prajāpatis or mind-born sons of Brahmā. He married thirteen of the daughters of Daksha, of whom the first was Aditi by whom he had the twelve A'dityas. See the Vishnu Pur. Wilson, v. also Vol. II, 38.

Wilson, v. also Vol. II, 38.

1º Sacred to Prajāpati. It signifies the giving away of the whole of one's property before entering on the life of an ascetic. It is also a kind of fast lasting twelve days and likewise a form of marriage. Monier Williams.

Kasyapa and Aditi. These should not be of less than two tolahs.

DUMBNESS is the consequence of killing a sister. The cure is to bestow in charity a cow made of four tolas of gold, its horns be of two tolahs of silver, its hump of two or three māshas of copper with a brass vessel for milk, and for seven days he should eat a mixture of curds, butter, urine and cowdung.

COLIC results from having eaten with an impious person or a liar. The cure is to fast for three days, and to give twelve tolahs of silver in charity.

STONE IN THE BLADDER is the punishment of incest with a step-mother. [P. 122] The cure is Madhu-dhenu (honeymilch cow). Let it be supposed that milch-cow of honey is formed thus: -Fourteen vessels full of honey, each of which shall contain a man and a quarter, must be placed with one tolah of gold in front to represent the mouth; four sers of sugar-candy must represent her tongue; thirty-two sers of fruit, her teeth; pearls for the two eyes; and two sticks of lignum aloes for her horns; two plantains stand for her two ears; and barley-flour for her teats, with three sticks of sugarcane for each leg. A white woollen cloth is thrown over the vessels to represent her hide, and Daba, m which is a particular kind of grass, is strewn above it. The hoofs are to be of silver, the hump of a ser and a quarter of copper: the tail of silk, thirty fingers in length, with skeins of silk eleven fingers long hanging therefrom. Two pieces of red cloth must be thrown over her neck, and seven heaps of grain, each of two sers weight, must be made, and a brass vessel placed in front, and another vessel full of honey set near to represent her calf, and a copper vessel filled with sesame-

The Kusa, Poa Cynosaroides; a sacrificial grass. A Brihman when he reads the Vedas, must, according to Manu (Institutes, II. 75), sit on kusa grass with the points to the east.

seed. Next, certain incantations are made, and prayers are said, and alms given.

LAMENESS is the result of having kicked a 'Brahman. The cure is to bestow in charity a horse made of a tolah of gold, and to feed one hundred and eight Brāhmans.

FEVER arises from killing an innocent Kshatriya. The cure: thirteen Brāhmans should read incantations in the name of Mahādeva one hundred times, and sprinkle water over his image.

Consumption is the punishment of killing a Brāhman. A lotus flower of four tolahs weight of gold should be made, and the ceremony of the Homa²¹ performed and alms given to righteous Brāhmans.

TUMOUR is caused by killing a wife without fault on her part. The cure is to spread a black antelope-skin (Krishnā-jina) and place thereon a heap of sesame-seed and a hundred tolahs or more of gold, and read incantations and perform the Homa oblation. But the acceptance of such an offering is considered blameable.

ASTHMA results from having accepted of this oblation, or of one of the sixteen great offerings, or of an alms at Kurukshetra. The cure is to take a buffalo of iron, with hoofs and horns of lead, and to make a sectarial mark of stone on its forehead, garland it with flowers of the Kaner (Nerium odorum), and place upon it a black blanket and four tolahs of gold, and three man and a half of pulse (Māsh, Phaseolus mungo). The performer must have a sectarial mark drawn upon his forehead with the finger. The accepter of this charity is not well regarded. [P. 123]

DYSENTERY is the punishment for robbing a house. The cure is to give in alms a house and its necessary furniture, and seven kinds of grain, thirty-two sers of each kind, a handmill, a pestle and mortar, a repository for drinking

²¹ This is an oblation to the gods made by casting clarified butter into the fire, accompanied by prayers and invocations.

water, a kitchen-hearth, a broom, a cow, and money according to means.

THE THIRD KIND indicates the class of actions which have caused sterility and names suitable remedies.

A WOMAN whose husband dies before her, was in a former birth of a great family and followed a stranger and on his death consigned herself to the flames. The cure is self-martyrdom by austerities, or suicide by throwing herself into snow.

A WOMAN who does not menstruate, in a former existence while in her courses, roughly drove away the children of her neighbours who had come as usual to play at her house. The cure is to fill an earthen vessel with water from a hundred wells, and to throw therein a betel-nut and one māsha of gold, anoint it with perfumes and give it to a Brāhman. She should also give five, seven, nine or eleven kinds of fruit to children to eat.

STERILITY is occasioned by a man or woman in a former birth having sold the children of other people, or the young of an oviparous animal, or reproached others for barrenness. Cure: the man and woman should enter the water at the meeting of two streams, wrapped in a single sheet, and bathe, and reciting certain incantations, pray to Mahadeva and give one mohar each to eleven Brahmans, and a cow in alms on certain conditions, and make two images of Kasyapa and Aditi of two tolahs of gold each, and making an image of Vishnu in his dwarf incarnation (Vāmana), bestow it in charity. And they should also fill eight winnowing-baskets with seven kinds of grain, and lay upon it a cloth and cocoanuts and various kinds of fruit, with flowers of saffron, and sandal-wood, and give each of these to a virtuous woman, and hear the recital of the Harivansa, which is the conclusion of the Mahabharata.

A WOMAN whose son dies shortly after his birth is thus punished for having in a former birth followed a common

practice in Hindustan of exposing any child to die that is born when the moon is in the lunar station called Mula (v. Scorpionis) or Aslesha (a 1 and 2 Cancri) or near the end of Jyeshthā (a Scorpionis, Antares), and a birth is especially a matter of reproach in Mula. The cure is to make a cow of four tolahs of gold, its hoofs of a tolah of silver, jewels for her tail, brass bells on her neck, a calf of a tolah of gold, its hoofs being of half a tolah of silver.

A WOMAN who gives birth to only daughters is thus punished for having contemptuously regarded her husband from pride. The cure is to plate the horns of a white cow with four tolahs of gold and burnish its hoofs with four tolahs of silver, and make a hump of one ser and a quarter of copper and a vessel of two sers and a half of brass, and bestow this in charity. One hundred Brāhmans should also be fed and she should fashion a figure of the deity of ten māshas and two surkhs of gold, and reciting incantations, give alms and feed fifty Brāhmans.

A WOMAN who has had but one son, is punished for having taken away a calf from its dam. Cure: let her give away a fine milch-cow with ten tolahs of gold.

A WOMAN who has given birth to a son that dies and a daughter that lives, has in her former existence, taken animal life. Some say that she had killed goats. The cure is the fast of the Chāndrāyana, a cow given in charity and the feeding of twelve Brāhmans.

[124] A WOMAN who has continued in a state of pregnancy for sixteen years, has in a former birth been burnt when pregnant; the cure is an alms of *Hiranya-garbha*.²²

BEING A MAID-SERVANT is the punishment for having in a former existence, from ignorance, had criminal intimacy with the husband of another and been burnt for his sake. The cure is, if she be in the house of a Sudra, to convey her to the

²² That is, the figure of Brahmā.

house of a Vaisya, and thus by graduation of caste to a Brāhman's, where she should remain in service till her death.

In order to discover whether these punishments are for the deeds of the man or the woman, they should both take the horoscopes of the results of particular actions. If in the horoscope, either the fifth or eleventh (mansion), shows the ascendens to be the Sun, Mars, or Saturn or the head or tail of the Dragon (ascending or descending node), and these affect the character of the woman (as based on the three modes of goodness, passion and darkness) which is considered under the influence of Saturn, the punishment is reckoned to be that of the woman, otherwise it appertains to the man. If in both mansions, the results apply to both.²³

THE FOURTH KIND treats of riches and poverty, and the like. Whoever distributes alms at auspicious times, as during eclipses of the moon and sun, will become rich and bountiful (in his next existence). Whoso at these times, visits any place of pilgrimage, especially *llahabā*s (Allahabad), and there dies, will possess great wealth, but will be avaricious and of a surly disposition. Whosoever when hungry and

²⁸ Each of the Zodiacal signs has peculiar qualities, and these have been tabulated by Albiruni, from the Lughujitakam. The cardinal points of Hindu astrology, as he observes, are the planets. zodiacal signs and the houses. The nature of the aspect of every sign depends upon the nature of the ascendens which at a given moment rises above the horizon. The aspect between one sign and the fourth or eleventh following is a fourth part of an aspect: that between one sign and the fifth or ninth following, is half an aspect : between the sixth and tenth, three quarters, and between a sign and the seventh following, a whole aspect. If a planet stand in signs which in relation to its rising, are the 10th, 11th, 12th, 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th signs, its nature changes for the better: if in other signs for the worse. The Houses indicate severally, various parts of the body, future events as to life, property. disposition, the influences of particular planets and Zodiacal signs, etc. Some of the signs are male and others female alternately from Aries to Pisces. The first half of each male sign is unlucky, as under the influence of the sun which produces males, while the second half is lucky under the influence of the moon which produces females. Women are indicated by the seventh House which is under the influence of Saturn, as Abul Fazl rightly observes.

with food before him, hears the supplication of a poor man and bestows it all upon him, will be rich and liberal. But whosoever has been deprived of these three opportunities will be empty-handed and poor in his present life. The care is to fulfil scrupulously the duties of his state to whichsoever of the five classes he belongs, and also at Kurukshetra, in times of eclipse of the moon and sun, to bury in the ground a piece of gold, if it be but one masha, as an oblation.

Works have been written on each of these four kinds. detailing the causes, symptoms, and remedies of these actions. I have but adduced a little as an exemplar of much by way of illustration.

SVARA

Is the extraordinary science of predicting events by observing the manner in which breath issues from the nostrils. The expiration of breath from the nostrils is in three ways. The first is when it comes principally from the left nostril, and this they ascribe to the influence of the moon. It is then called Ida (vital spirit), or Chandra-nadi.24 The second is chiefly from the right nostril, and is called Pingala (sun, or fire) and Surya-nādi. The third is when the breath issues from the nostrils equally, which is styled Sushumnā and also Sambhu-nādi. This is attributed to the influence of Mahādeva. IP. 1251

Experts in this science distinguish the excess or even breathings by placing the thumb beneath the nostril. Two and a half gharis is the time usually allotted to the two former kinds. The third occupies the time taken to pronounce a long vowel (guru), that is, a prolated vowel, as in mg, thirty-six times. From the first tithi called pariwa25 to the third tithi.

of which is called pariwa.

²⁴ Nāri, or properly, Nādi, signifies in Sanskrit any tubular organ of the body, vein, etc.

25 A lunar day, or the thirtieth part of a whole lunation, the first

the order of breathing is the Chandra-nadi, followed by the Surya-nādi for the same period, and, so on, alternately, to the end of the month. Some authorities regulate the order by weeks, allotting Sunday, Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday to the Surya-nādi, and Monday. Wednesday and Friday to the Chandra-nādi: others, according to the sun's course through the Zodiacal signs, beginning with Aries for the Surya-nādi breathings. Taurus for Chandra-nādi, and so alternately through the signs to the close of the year. Others again take the relardation of the moon in the Zodiacal signs in the same manner. All are however agreed that irregularity in the prescribed order is productive of temporal misfortune. If the intermission continue for two or three days, quarrels will ensue; if for ten days, a misfortune will befall the wife; if for fifteen days, a severe illness will disturb the happiness of the house. Should it last for a month, the brother will die. If the Surya-nādi breathings are in excess for one day and night, the man will die after the expiration of a year. If this anomaly continues for two and three days at a time, he will live a year for every day after the close of the year, according to the number of days. But if it continue for one month, he will die in a month. If the excess of the Chandra-nādi be a day and night, the man will fall ill after expiration of the year, and in the same way, according to the number of days, after the close of the year, his sickness will continue. If the irregularity last for one month continuously, he will be ruined in estate. If the excess of Sushumnā continues for ten days, the man will die at the entry of the sun into Aries. If Chandra-nadi last this period. perturbation of mind and sickness will ensue. If Chandranādi continues in operation throughout sixteen days after the entry of the Sun into Aries, symptoms of sickness will supervene. When the Sun is in Scorpio, if Chandra-nadi continues in operation for two or five days, the man will die in eighteen years, but if the Sun be in Virgo, in fifteen years. All are agreed that if at sun-rise, either Surya-nādi or Chandra-nādi will be operative, and the reverse of either at its setting, good fortune will result, otherwise a calamity will ensue, and if the Chandra-nādi breathing be reversed in four gharis, it is a sign of the occurrence of fortunate events. [P. 126]

According to the varied conditions of hours, days, Zodiacal signs, planetary movements, and manner of breathing in the three ways, divers events attended with joy or sorrow and other circumstances may be predicted. The Surya-nādi and Chandra-nādi are each five-fold, and each division is named after one of the five elements. In two gharis and a half, twenty pals are allotted to air; thirty pals to fire; forty pals to water; fifty pals to earth; and ten to ether.26 Some however give five pals to ether, ten to air, fifteen to fire, twenty to water, and twenty-five to earth, which are altogether equal to a ghari and a quarter. When this revolution is completed, the recurring series begins with earth, followed by water, fire, air and ether. Some suppose one ghari to be allotted severally to the elements of earth, water, fire, air and ether, and each element is distinguished by the manner of the breathing. If it rise upwards, it appertains to the element of fire; if laterally and not beyond the measure of four fingers' breath, to that of air; if it descend, to that of water, its motion being sensible at a distance of twelve fingers. If the impulse be on a level with the nostril, neither upwards nor downwards, nor high nor low, and extending to a distance of eight fingers, it belongs to ether.

In what relates to the particular conditions affecting human actions, this science also furnishes information. Repose betokens the elemental influence of earth; love of sensual pleasures and interior coldness signifies that of water; anger and the conditions that dispose the good inclinations of men to evil are the result of the fiery influence; and that

²⁶ Two and a half gharis=60 minutes, and a pal is equal to 24 seconds.

of ether produces states of divine contemplation, and the emptying of the interior soul of extraneous affections.

They also erect a gnomon on a level surface of ground, and take the extent of its shadow according to determinate finger-measures, counting the length of one finger for Sunday, two for Monday, and so on, up to seven fingers for Saturday. To this they add twelve more and divide the whole into five parts. If no digit-index is left, it is ascribed to ether; if one, to air; if two, to fire; if three, to water; and if four, to earth.

Another practice is to insert the two thumbs in the orifices of the ears, and to close the mouth with the little and fourth fingers of each hand, while the middle fingers press each nostril, and the corners of the eyes are drawn down by the fore-fingers, and the glance is directed between the brows. A spherule then becomes visible. If it have a quadrangular shape, and as if liquescent, it appertains to the element of earth; if it be the shape of a half-moon, and incline to white and appear hard and cold, it is of water; if it be round, bright, hard and black, and variously spotted, it is thought to belong to the element of air; if triangular and luminous, to that of fire, and if no spherule be visible, it is the effect of ether.

Imparting instruction, donations, visiting religious teachers and guides. repairing to the presence of idols, entering a city or house, and other particulars of movement and change of place, and (according to one opinion), undertaking a journey into a foreign country (and in accordance with general custom), buying and selling, the antidotes to various poisons, the repelling of ominous stellar influences, conditions of friendship, culling medicinal plants and herbs in the woods, operations in alchemy, works relating to [127] Yoga and other duties of the same gracious character, are believed to be most salutary during the Chandra-nādi period; while entering the presence of kings, and undertaking war are best during the Surya-nādi. In the Chandra-nādi times, in battle, the enemy should be engaged from the left; during

the Surya-nādi, from the right. Bodily safety is generally ascribed as dependent on the particular side of the breathing. The conquest of a province and (according to one opinion) travelling in one's own country, eating, sexual intercourse, bathing, imprisonment, withdrawing from any work, obstructing another's affections, and the like inauspicious actions, are suitable to the Surya-nādi. In the Sushumnā period, no work is undertaken.

All works of an auspicious nature are undertaken under the influence of the elements of water and earth, while those that are to be durable are chosen with reference to the elements of fire and air. No good work is ascribable to ether. When proceeding to any place, that foot is first lifted on whichever side the breathing is greatest, and if a person meets a superior to whom reverence is due, or from whom he expects to receive a favour, he takes care in his movements to keep that personage on the side on which he himself breathes; but an evil-disposed person, or a creditor, and the like, should be kept on the non-respiratory side. They also say that upper and forward situations are dominated by Chandra-nädi, and those inferior and behind, by Surya-nādi, and in both cases the parties must continue in their several positions till the action is concluded.

ANSWERS TO INQUIRERS.

Should any one inquire whether a child about to be born, will be a boy or a girl, the person questioned must ascertain from which of his own nostrils the breathing is greater. If the questioner be on that side, he will gladden him with the news of a son; if not, he will reply that it will be a girl. If he breathes equally through both nostrils, there will be twins. If it should so happen that during the inquiry, he should breathe through one nostril more than another, he will predict the extinction of that life. Another opinion is that if the

questioner stand on the Chandra-nadi side, it will be a girl; if on the Surya-nādi, a boy, and if the breathing be of the kind Sushumna, an hermaphrodite. Some say that the times referrible to the elements of earth and water, indicate a boy, and those of fire and air, a girl, and ether implies death. the inquiries relate to matters concerning study, tuition. marriage, menial service or its employment, attendance on the great, and buving and selling, the element of water prognosticates speedy success; that of earth, more tardy; of air, the success will be small; of fire, gain followed by loss. Ether shows no benefit. If the inquiry be regarding rain, the elements of earth and water indicate that rain will fall, but in the latter there is great evidence of a plentiful supply to the crops. The element of air predicts clouds without rain: and fire, gentle showers. Regarding questions as to crops, water and earth show that they will yield the revenue, and in the latter case a full harvest: air indicates a moderate crop. and fire that it will be burnt up. No evidence of result is shown by ether. Should the inquiry be relative to sickness, and if the period be Chandra-nādi, and the questioner be on the Surya-nādi side, or vice versa, the sick person will die. but if he stand on the Chandra-nadi side, the patient will quickly recover. Should the question be made on the Suryanādi side, the illness will be protracted, but recovery will follow. Others look to the manner of the breathing. If the question be put during an inspiration which is called living breath, it is a sign of life; but if during an expiration, which is styled lifeless breath, the patient will die; in all inquiries this rule is regarded. A man bitten by a snake or under demoniacal possession, or mauled by a hyæna" is accounted among sick persons. [P. 128]

Should the question be regarding invasion by a foreign

²⁷ That is, a mad hyæna, which only in that state is supposed to attack a man.

force: if the period be Chandra-nādi, and the questioner stand on that side, it indicates an affirmative; if he stand on the Surya-nādi side, a negative. Others say that if the times appertain to the elements of earth and water, no invasion will occur, but those of fire and air denote an advance. Ether gives no response. If the inquiries be concerning war and peace, Chandra-nādi implies the latter, and Surya-nādi the former. Some maintain that the earth-periods predict a severe engagement and that many will be wounded, while fire, air and ether point to losses on both sides. Water signifies a peace. If the question relate to the issue between the querist and his enemy, earth implies war, and that many will fall; fire predicts victory to the questioner; air defeat, and ether his death in the engagement; water indicates a coming peace. If information be sought regarding the result of hostilities between defenders of a country and foreign troops, Chandranādi denotes victory to the former, and Surya-nādi to the latter. Some are of opinion that if the questioner stand on the left, and the period be Chandra-nādi, if the letters of the name of the questioner be even, he will be successful: if he stand on the right, and it be Surya-nādi, and the number of the letters be odd, victory will rest with the latter. If both names have an equal number of letters, and the questioner be on the side of the breathing nostril, the former will have the advantage; if on the side of the non-breathing nostril, the latter.

If information is asked, regarding a person absent, the water-periods indicate his speedy arrival; earth, that he is settled where he is; air, that he has emigrated to another country, and fire implies his death. Ether reveals nothing. If the thoughts of the questioner refer to any subject of the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdoms, earth-periods imply the vegetable; water and air, the animal, and fire, the inorganic and mineral; the ether-periods point to the absence of these thoughts from the mind of the questioner.

Such is this strange account, of which let the foregoing suffice:—

AGAMA

is a doctrinal treatise on incantations relative to things that will produce advantage or repel hurt, increase knowledge and remedy diseases, augment wealth, destroy enemies, cement friendship, secure conquest and advance good government, and the like.

SAKUNA

or augury.28 is the extraordinary art of predicting events from the motions of birds. Their song, their silence, their movements and repose, and indications of pleasure and sadness, and similar signs, discover the present and the future. There are many in this country who are skilled in this important science. One day, in a royal preserve, two mainas 19 sat perched side by side chirping low together. His Majesty deigned to inquire the subject of their converse from an expert in this divination, who replied [129] that were he to reveal their confidence to his Majesty, he would not be believed. The male desired to pair while the female excused herself. It was not improbable that if the nest were searched stains of blood would be found. On examination being made, his words were found to be true. The sooth-sayers of Hindustan foretell future events chiefly by means of five methods, the stars, breathing from the nostrils, augury, incantations, and kevala,30 which is divination by the throwing of dice, and it comprises various other kinds of prognostication.

[&]quot; Augury in Hastings, iv. 800.

starling. The Sturnus vulgaris, or common starling, is the teliya maina.

³⁰ Abul Fazl spells this word carefully as kyul. But the Sanskrit word kevala has nothing to do with dice-casting. The word nearest to that sense is the Arabic Ka'b, meaning a cube or die, also Ka'bt. In Sanskrit the word kevala means spiritual liberation or pure unalloyed knowledge. []. S.]

SAMUDRIKA

or Palmistry, predicts events from observation of the character of the members of the body and their movements, and from lines and marks, and the results are generally accurate.

GARUDA²¹

is a science treating of snakes, scorpions, and other venomous reptiles, the effects of whose injuries it averts. By reciting incantations and repeating the genealogical descent (of the person affected) and praising his ancestry, the animal is made to appear. An extraordinary circumstance is the following: They take an old snake of a particular kind, and after certain incantations they make it bite a Brāhman. When the poison works, the man becomes senseless, in which state he answers any questions put to him, and these prove correct. The Hindu sages believe that during the Kali cycle, nothing can be more true than these revelations of the unknown, and several works containing these answers are still extant.

INDRA-JALA

is the art of sorcery, of magical spells, and sleight of hand. The wonders performed by these means are beyond the power of expression.

This is the name of the 17th Purāna relating to the birth of Garuda, the mythical bird of vulture, half-man, half-bird, on which Vishnu rides. He is the king of birds, descended from Kasyapa and Vinata, a daughter of Daksha, and a great enemy of serpents; a hatred inherited from his mother who had quarrelled with her co-wife Kadru, the mother of serpents. He is represented as having the head, wings, and talons of an eagle, and the body and limbs of a man, and has many names and epithets. According to the Mahābhārata, his parents gave him liberty to devour wicked men, but was recommended not to touch a Brāhman. Curiosity, or hunger, however, once prevailed, and he is said to have swallowed a Brāhman and his wife together; but his throat was so burnt in the act that he was glad to disgorge them. It is probably this circumstance which gave rise to the practice menioned by Abul Fazl.

RASA-VIDYA

or Alchemy, is the science of the fusing of mercury (rasa), gold, silver, copper, and the like. It is by this art that the elixir, or philosopher's stone, is produced.

RATNA-PARIKSHA

is the art of testing jewels and precious stones of various kinds, and treats of their production, properties, value, and kindred subjects.

KAMA-SASTRA

treats of the generation of the human race. [P. 130]

CHAPTER VII.

SAHITYA

or rhetorical composition, is a science comprising various kinds of knowledge. It sets forth the shades of signification in words, appropriateness of expression, and solecisms of language. They hold the Supreme Being to be its author. The meaning underlying a word is said to be four-fold:—(1). Sakti (power of a word), is denotation and its conventional relation to the thing designated. (2). Lakshanā (indication)! communicates the applied meaning desired. (3). Gauna, (qualitative), illustrates figuratively the thing compared. (4). Vyanjanā (suggestion), is to say one thing and mean another which has no apparent application. As, for example, a woman sent her maid-servant with a message to call her husband who, when she entered his private apartment, used criminal familiarity with her and sent an excuse by her for his not returning. When she took back the message, from the pallor of her face

¹ This term is thus explained in the Sāhitya Darpana, by Visvanātha Kavirāja, to which work Abul Fazl is apparently indebted for his information. The power by which in such an expression as the impetuous Kalinga. A word such as "Kalinga," incompatible with the epithet 'impetuous,' if taken in its own sense of a particular country on the Coromandel coast, causes one to think not of the country, but the men connected therewith this power communicated to it, other than that which belongs to it naturally. is called Indication. Of this element in the drama there are 6 kinds. The treatise classes a word according to the three-fold accident of its function, as Expressive, Indicative and Suggestive. The expressed meaning is termed Vāchya, conveyed to the understanding by the word's denotation (abhidha, literally, power or sense of a word) as a 'cow', or 'horse'; the meaning indicated is held to be conveyed by the word's indication, lakshanā, as above explained: the meaning suggested (vyangya), is conveyed by the word's Suggestion (vyanjanā). 'Indication' has a further eight-fold subdivision, into pure (suddha), and qualitative (gauna), which latter Abul Fazi classes separately, though acknowledging, later on, its inclusion by some authors under the second head. c. p. 16 and ff. of Pramada Dasa Mitra's translation of the above treatise.

and the obliteration of her marks of sandal-wood and collyrium, and of the colour (from her lips), the wife understood what had really occurred. Though much pained, she showed no signs of it in her speech, but said,—'You are speaking on untruth; you never went to fetch him, but you went to the banks of the stream and bathed, for the collyrium is no longer round your eyes nor the sandal-wood unguent on your person.' By this delicate irony she discovered her knowledge of what had taken place, and her own distress of mind.²

Some consider the figurative sense (gauna), to belong to the second head, and they describe with pecular force and elaborate detail all that makes for literary ornament and grace of expression. It is held to be the highest form of dramatic poetry, of rhetorical art. and metrical composition.3 This science also comprises the Navarasa, or the nine sentiments, which inspire universal interest. The first is Sringāra-rasa (the erotic passion), that is, the mutual affection of men and women, and all that relates to their union and separation. Secondly, Hāsya-rasa, mirth of various kinds. This is produced, they say, by variations in person, speech, action and dress. It is three-fold:-1. Smita. (smile), a slight alteration in cheek, eye and lip. (2). Vihasita (gentle laugh), in which the mouth is a little open. (3). Apahasita, laughter accompanied by sound of the voice. [P. 131] Thirdly, Karunarasa, pity or regret, as at the loss of a friend or property. Fourthly, Raudra, anger. Fifthly, Vira (heroism), the admiration produced by acts of munificence, clemency and valour.

² This identical example occurs in the Sāhitya Darpana.

convulsion of laughter where the limbs lose all control.

This refers to Chapters IV and V on what is called "Suggestive poetry," which is regarded as its chief beauty. The Sanskrit term for this figurative style is *Dhvani*, and it is said by the author of the work of this name. "Like a beautiful woman with a single member ornamented, the sentence of a good poet shines with 'Suggestion' displayed by a single word."—Sahitya Darpana, p. 150.

A fourth division is mentioned in the S. D., viz., Atihasita.

Sixthly Bhayānaka, terror. Seventhly, Bibhatsa, aversion. Eighthly, Adbhuta, wonder, as at the sight of any (extraordinary object. Ninthly, Sānta (quietism), the tranquillity that comes of knowledge and the indifference which regards friend and foe as alike. Of these they make various subdivisions and illustrate them by delightful examples.

The relations between the sexes are also considered in this branch of knowledge, and the passion of love amply discussed. In Iran and Turan, this affection chiefly subsists between men; in Hindustan and Hijaz, between men and women. Devotion to the female sex is the characteristic of the Arab, while the native of India includes both sexes alike in his regard.

The Hindus term a heroine (in dramatic poetry), nāyika, and three kinds are named. (1). Sviyā, (own wife), a virtuous woman devoted to her husband: from modesty she looks neither to the right hand nor to the left, but only from the corner of her eyes so that her glance is rarely seen: her laugh does not pass beyond her lips and her teeth are not disclosed: she speaks seldom and never loudly: she rarely loses her temper, and if she be provoked to anger, it is restrained within her heart and does not appear in her eyes or manner. (2). Parakiyā, (belonging to another), is one who clandestinely carries on an intrigue with other than her husband. If a married woman she is called Praudha; a maiden, Kanyakā. Other classifications of this kind are carried to an indefinite extent. Sāmānyā (courtesan), is the property of none, and is concerned only in making money.

³ A tenth is sometimes added, vātsalya, paternal fondness; but according to others there are only eight rosas, the last two being omitted. These affections are supposed to lend to dramatic composition its relish and interest, and examples are culled from works that illustrate their force and beauty, as for instance, Bhava bhuti's drama of the Vira-charita exemplifies the rasa of heroism, the Mahābhārata that of quietism or tranquillity, etc. These various sentiments are discussed and evidenced by instances from dramatic poetry, in the Sāhitya-darpana.

Sviyā is classed under three heads:-(1). Mugdhā, (artless), one who from her childish age and inexperience goes6 out-of-doors, and in whom youth begins to grow headstrong, and who may be to some extent conscious of her beauty or otherwise, and shrinks from the embraces of her husband. When she retires to sleep, she regards him furtively and pretends to slumber lest he should enter into conversation but from fear of him sleeps not. The age of such a one ranges from eight to twelve and at times to thirteen. (2). Madhyā (middling or adolescent) is one in whom modesty and love for her husband are combined in an equal degree. She may speak in anger [132] but never thus to her husband. Her age does not exceed thirty-two. (3). Pragalbhā (bold or mature) makes her love and address pleasing to her husband and captivates him by her experienced arts. The age of this kind extends to fifty-two years.

The last two are further subdivided into three classes.

(1). Dhirā (constant). If her husband pay attention to another woman, though fired by jealousy, she becomes more assiduous in her devotion and service and by this means makes him ashamed of his conduct. (2). Adhirā (capricious). Such a one takes no notice of his infidelity and holds her peace, but she will address him cheerfully so as to cover him with confusion and say:—"It is strange that while you are wakeful. my eyes glance love and while you are drunk with wine, my heart is in agitation." (3). Dhirā Adhirā, is one who unites both these dispositions and sighs to show that she understands. Some add a conversation after the manner above indicated.

Sviyà is also of two kinds. (1). Jyeshiha (pre-emment, eldest), is one who is preferred by her nusband above all

[&]quot;This appears to be an error. The Sahitya Darpana says that she 'never goes out of the inner apartments, no longer laughs unconstrainedly, but practises every moment some bashful restraint. Little she speaks," etc. Verses, taken from the marriage of Prabhāvati by the author.

women. (2). Kanistha (inferior woungest) is one for whom her husband's affection is less strong nor and.

Parakiuā is of five kinds and 11: Gupta (guarded) covers her conduct, and skilfully conceals her past indiscretions and her future designs, feigning plausible excuses. instance she has been scratched by her lover's nail, she will say 'I cannot sleep in this room a -- a cat chases a mouse. and in the scramble gives me this scratch. (2). Vidagdhā (adroit or artful). By her persuasive speech she acquires influence and her winning manners secure it. (3) Lakshitā (notorious), shows her affection openly and without fear. (4). Kulatā (unchaste), has many lovers and retains the affections of each without pecuniary considerations. (5) Anusayana (regretting), is one who from timidity does not keep her assignation and is fearful lest her lover come and not find her.

They also class women under eight heads :- (1): Proshitabhartrika is one whose husband is abroad, and she is distressed at his absence from her; or he is on the point of setting out and she is disquieted by her fears. Other opinions subdivide this, making nine classes. (2). Khandila is one who is dist consolate at being betrayed by her husband or lover. [P.:133] (3). Kalahāntaritā is one who has quarrelled with her lover and is penitent and wishes to appease him. (4). Vrpra-labdha goes to an assignation but is disappointed at not finding her lover. (5). Utka is disconsolate at her lover's not coming, and seeks the cause thereof. 16). Vasakasanja is joyful at the coming of her lover, and is dressed in her ornaments to receive him. (7). Svādhina-patikā, (independent having her own way), is a woman whose lover is obedient to her wishes. (8). Abhisarika is one who invites her lover or berself goes and and of the extension of a sum of it saws to him.

Another classification of women is of three kinds:--

^{(1).} Uttama (best), is one who is in love with her husband Uthunthite is the more correct term in the keroic drama for a woman who longs after her absent lover or husband.

though he show her no affection. (2). Adhama (worst), opposite of the above. (3). Madhyama (intermediate), is sometimes united in harmony and affection with her husband and at times is unfriendly and estranged.

A further division is four-fold:—(1). Padmini, is incomparable for her beauty and good disposition, and is tall of statute. Her limbs are perfectly proportioned, her voice soft, her speech gracious though reserved, and her breath fragrant as the rose. She is chaste and obedient to her husband. (2). Chitrini, is somewhat inferior to the former; is neither stout nor thin, has a slender waist and a full bust. (3). Sankhini, is fat and short, constantly quarrelling with her husband and has a violent temper. (4). Hastini, is repulsive in appearance and manners.

All these are treated at length, with the particular classes of men that are suited to each. Mana signifies indignation in a woman at misconduct on the part of her husband. It is of four kinds:—(1). Laghu, (trifling), when she gives herself airs at the least caress of endearment of her husband or lover. (2). Madhya (middling), is when she is estranged by some

The lover or hero (in a drama) is called Nayaka. These also are named suitably to the heroines, but are restricted to three:—(†). Pati (lord or husband), chooses in wedlock only a Hindu woman. (2). Upapati (paramour). (3). Vaishauika, a sensualist.

slight provocation. (3). Guru (weighty), when after much exertion [entreaty] on his part, [P. 134] she lays aside her wayward humour: (4). Rasābhasa (simulated sentiment), is

Each of these is subdivided into four kinds —(1). Anukula, (faithful), is attached to one woman only (2). Dakshina (impartial), pays his addresses to many and adroitly secures the favours of all. (3). Dhrishta, (cool or impudent), is one whom the heroine in her indignation repels while he caresses and flatters her the more. (4). Satha,

(perfidious), by cunning and simulating affection wins her heart (though attached to another).^s

In the treatment of love-episodes, the greatest art is shown in the situations of the hero and heroine and the dramas abound with the most felicitous passages.

Sakhi is the term for the usual female confidante on whose faithful service the heroine relies. Her advice and devotion are of the greatest comfort. She jests and amuses her mistress and never fails her in the time of need. She arranges her ornaments and assists in tiring her. By her persuasive representations she removes the misunderstandings between husband and wife and effects a reconciliation. She is ever ready with her counsel and good offices, and is entrusted with messages. Such a female is called duti; if a man, duta. She is conversant with all the mysteries of union and separation and is an expert in matters connected with love and rivalry.

In this art the manners and bearing of the hero and the heroine are set forth with much variety of exposition, and illustrated by delightful examples. The works on this subject should be consulted by those who are interested in its study.

SANGITA

is the art of singing, accompanied by music and dancing. The subject is treated in seven chapters (adhyāyas).

THE FIRST is Svarādhyāya, on musical tone which is of two kinds. [135] (1). Anāhata, sound produced without cause (i.e., otherwise than by percussion). This is considered to be one and eternal. If a man close both orifices of his

[&]quot;These four divisions are subdivided into sixteen. The cool or impudent lover is thus amusingly exemplified in the Sāhitya Darpana 'Perceiving her countenance crimson with passion, I went near intending to kiss her. She spurned me with her foot; but having humbly caught hold of it, I burst out laughing. O my friend, the anger of the fair-browed one, shedding tears, from her then being unable to do anything, prolongs, whenever thought of, the amusement of my mind," p. 59.

ears with his fingers, he will be conscious of a resonance, and this is signified by the above term. They believe this to proceed from Brahmā, and when the consciousness of it becomes habitual and it is heard without mediate aid, final liberation (mukti) is then attained. (2). Ahata, sound produced by a cause, which, like speech, is accounted a quality of air and is produced by percussion and protrusion. They say that in each of the three locations of the abdomen, the throat, and the head, twenty-two fibres or chords have been divinely created. The primary movement of air is from the navel, and the volume of sound produced depends upon the strength or softness of the initial force exerted.

It is strange that though the srutis form the basis of Hindu Music, Abul Fazi does not mention the term nor allude to them

except by implication as vocal chords in the human frame.

The Statis are personified as Nymphs, and have each their name, though varying in different writers. The 21 murchhanās, which also play an important part in Hindu Music, are omitted by Abul Fazl.

Sangila Ratnakāra, (Ed. Vedantavāgisa and Sāradā Prasāda Ghosha, p. 61). These Murchhanās and not the rāgas may be said to correspond to the Greek—modes of the Atolian, Lydian, Ionic, Doric or Phrygian, so named according to the character of the sentiments they inspired. The effect of the different murchhanās when played on the sitēra, is very striking.

[&]quot;The doctrine of the vital airs has already preceded in the account of the schools of Hindu philosophy. The abdomen is supposed to be the seat of the fire which keeps up the heat of the body, and this fire is surrounded and retained in place by the airs called Samana. In the Patanjala system, by the subdual of this air, the perfected Yogin appears illumined by the radiance of the flame which then escapes from the body. The same internal heat plays an important part in the production of the voice. According to Rajah Sir Sourindro Mohun Tagore, in his pamphlet, The Twentytwo Musical Stutis of the Hindus, when the animal soul wishes to speak, the mind acts on the abdominal fire which mixes with the vital air pervading the ligament known as Brahma Granthi, below the navel. This vital air thus expands, causing in the navel the ati sukshma nada, or the very minute sound: in the chest, the sukshma or the minute, in the throat, the pushta, or the developed; in the head, the apushta, or suppressed : and in the mouth, the kritrima, or artificial. Connected with or based upon these choids. are the twenty-two srulis, or particles of sound sensible to the ear, which are essential to the formation of the Hindu Saptaka, or hepta-

teenth chords are mute and the remaining eighteen are classed under the seven primary notes in the following order:—

land (1) Shadja, in is taken from the note of the reacock (and extends to the fourth chord). (2), Rishabha, is taken from the note of the Papiha (Coccystes Melanoleucos), and beginning after the fourth chord (omitting the fifth and sixth). extends from the seventh to the tenth, (3). Gandhara, is from the bleating of a he-goat; and its compass extends from the ninth to the thirteenth. (4). Madhyama, resembles the crv of the Coolen Crane! (Ardea Sibirica), and its compass is from the thirteenth to the sixteenth. (5). Panchama, is taken from the note of the Ka'il (Cuculus Indicus), and is attuned on the seventeenth. (6). Dhaivata, is like the croak of the frog. and its compass extends from the twentieth12 to the twentysecond. (7). Nishāda is taken from the sound of the elephant and its compass is from the twenty-second to the third of the next series (of twenty-two). Each heptachord occurs successively in each series, and in the third, Nishada, cannot, of course, go beyond the twenty-second chord.

A system of intervals in which the whole seven notes of the gamut are employed, is termed Sampurna. If there be only six, the fundamental must be one of them, and it is styled Shādava; if five, Audava, the fundamental being of necessity one of them. None has fewer than these, but the tāna which is a separate intonation may consist of two. 13

fundamental from which the other six notes arise.

[&]quot;According to the Sangita Darpana the note is that of the Krauncha, or heron (Arden Jaculator).

The text has eight, which must be an error for twenty. The seven notes of the scale are represented by the seven initial syllables of their names, after the manner of Guido's notation, thus: Sa, ri, ga, ma, pa, dha, ni, corresponding to our,—

D. E. F. G. A. B. C. and the S'rutis are allotted to the several notes, as follows: to Sa, rig and pa, four: to ri and dha, three; to ga and ni, two.

By the term naghma which I have rendered system of intervals. a murchhana must be meant. Each murchhana is said to

THE SECOND is Raga-vivekadhyaya, on divers musical compositions and their variations.14

Their origin is ascribed to Mahadeon and (his wife) Pārvati. The first-mentioned had five mouths, from each of which issued a melody in the following order:--

(1). Sri-rāga. (2). Vasanta. (3). Bhairava. (4). Panchama.

(5). Megah. (6). Nata-Narāyana was produced by Pārvati.

be sampurna, or complete, when all seven notes are employed, and asampurna when defective. When wanting one it is called Shadava and wanting two Audava. In the murchhanas of Sharia. sa, ri, pa, ni, and in those of Madhyama, sa, ri, ga, used to be omitted one at a time, to make Shadavi Murchhanās which were 49 in number, viz., 28 of Sharja and 21 of Madhyama. The Audavi murchhanas of Sharja were formed by omitting sa, pa, or ri, pa, or ga, ni, and were therefore 21. The omission of ri, and dna, at one time, and at another of ga and ni, formed the twelve Audavi murchhanās of Madhyama. The total number of these latter is therefore 35 in the two gramas which with the 49 shadavis make 84. asampurna murchhanās which were called tānas by some authors. The various combinations of the different notes in a murchhana, are called tanas, each, from seven notes to one, having a separate name. The aggregate combinations of all these by a process of simple

arithmetic show a total of 13,699.

14 So I render "magam" and "shubah" by which Abul Fazl signifies rāgas and rāginis. Willard and Carey dispute the usual translation of rāga by mode, and Sir S M. Tagore confirms their dissent by his own; he says there is no corresponding term in English for raga. From an able article in the Cal. Rev., CXXXVII. of 1879, by Sarada Prasada Ghosha, the learned co-editor of the Sangita Ratnakāra to which I am already indebted for the substance of this information on the murchhanas and tanas, I borrow the following explanation of the raga. It is defined as a musical composition consisting of not less than five notes of a Murchhana (mark this term) in accordance with certain rules with a view to a particular æsthetic effect. The chief rules are that a note is assumed with which the Raga begins. This is called graha; another with which it must invariably end. called nyūsa; a third, which is the tonic or predominant, rej sted oftener than the others, and perhaps more noticeable also in the time, and called ansa or bodi: a fourth, which is 9 or 13 strutis above or below the badi, used almost as frequently and termed sambadi. A raga differs from another consisting of notes of a different murchhana, when a badi, sambadi or graha, etc., in the one is not the same in the other. Other distinctions and subtleties of interchange and mutilations of the scale produce countless varieties of the raga. It will be thus seen that the raga depends chiefly on its murchhana which can produce only ragas in a certain setting, the change of the murchhana, badi and samoādi altering the class of the raga.

Each of these six modes is called in Sanskrit Räga, and they are reckoned the primary orders of sound. Each of them has numerous variations.

The Sri-rāga has the whole seven notes (sampurna) of the gamut. In this, Rishabha has a compass to the eighth chord, Gāndhāra to the tenth, Madhyama to the thirteenth, and Dhaivata to the twenty-first: Nishāda is allotted but one. And in like manner other changes occur throughout all the modifications.

- 1. VARIATIONS OF SRI-RAGA:—(1). Mālavi. (2). Tirovani. (3). Gauri. (4). Kedāri. (5). Madhu-mādhavi. (6). Vihāri.
 - 2. VARIATIONS OF VASANTA:—(1). Desi. (2). Devagiri.
- (3). Vairāti. (4). Todi. (5). Lālitā. (6). Hindoli.
 - 3. VARIATIONS OF BHAIRAVA:—(i). Madhya-mādi.
- (2). Bhairavi. [137] (3). Bāngah. (4). Varātaka. (5). Sindavi. (6). Punarjneyā. 16
- 4. VARIATIONS OF PANCHAMA:—(1). Vibhàsa. (2). Bhupāli. (3). Kānarā. (4). Badhansikā. (5). Maldsri. (6). Padhamanjari.
 - 5. VARIATIONS OF MEGHA: -- (1). Malar. (2). Sorathi.
- (3). Asavari. (4). Kaisuki. (5). Gandhari. (6). Harsingari.
 - 6. VARIATIONS OF NATA NARAYANA:—(1). Kāmodi.
- (2). Kalyān. (3). Ahiri. (4). Suddhanāta. (5). Sālaķ. (6). Nat-Hamira.

Some allow only five variations to each mode and numerous other differences occur. Others in place of Vasanta,

Trivana, Kedārā, and Pahāri. Many of the terms given by Abul Fazi below, also differ from the names in the Sāhitya Darpana.

This is a blunder through ignorance of Sanskrit from which Abul Fazl's pandits should have saved him. This list is taken from Hanuman who gives but five Rāginis in the exact order of the names in Abul Fazl and concludes the fifth in the S. D., with the sloka yet are attentioned as the beautiful wives of Bhairava". The words in italics have been mistaken by Abul Fazl for the name of a Rāgini.

Panchama and Megha, substitute Mālakausika, Hindola and Dipaka, and make five instead of six variations to each, with a few other discrepancies of less importance. [138] Others again, in place of the second, third, fourth and fifth modes, have Suddha-bhairava, Hindola, Desakāra and Suddha-nāta.

Songs are of two kinds. The first is called Mārga or the lofty style as chanted by the gods and great Rishis, which is in every country the same, and held in great veneration. The masters of this style are numerous in the Dekhan, and the six modes abovementioned with numerous variations of which the following are examples, are held by them to appertain to it.

(1). Surya-prakāsa. (2). Pancha-tālesvara. (3). Sarvato-bhadra. (4). Chandra-prakāsa. (5). Rāga-kadamba. (6). Jhumara. (7). Svaravartani.

The second kind is called *Desi* or applicable to the special locality, like the singing of the *Dhrupad* in Agra, Gwalior, Bāri and the adjacent country. When Mān Singh¹⁵ (Tonwar) ruled as Rājā of Gwalior, with the assistance of *Nāyak Bakshu*, *Macchu*, and *Bhanu*, who were the most distinguished musicians of their day, he introduced a popular style of melody which was approved even by the most refined

17 According to Capt. Day (The Music and Musical Instruments of Southern India, Chap VIII), from early times Tanjore has been the chief seat of Music in Southern India, and most of the chief Karnātik musicians have either lived there or were educated in the Tanjore School.

Music dates from the reign of this prince. Bakshu continued at the court of Bikramājit, the son of Mān Singh, and after his death entered the service of Rāiā Kirat of Kālinjar, whence he was invited to the court of Gujarāt. Bayley in his History of Gujurāt, speaks of a minstrel called Bacchu attached to Sultān Bahādur's court, who was taken before Humāyun on the capture of Mandu in 1535. The Emperor had given orders for a general massacre, but being told that this musician had not his equal in Hindustan, he was directed to sing and so charmed the royal ear, that he was given a dress of honour and attached to the court. He subsequently fled to Sultān Bahādur who was so rejoiced at, his return that he declared his every wish fulfilled and sorrow banished from his heart.

taste. On his death, Bakshu and Machhu passed into the service of Sultan Mahmud of Gujarat where his new style came into universal favour.

The Dhurpad¹⁹ (Dhruva-pada) consists of four rhythmical lines without any definite prosodial length of words or syllables. It treats of the fascinations of love and its wondrous effects upon the heart. In the Dekhan these songs are expressed in their language by the term Chind, and consist of three or four lines, and are chiefly laudatory. In the Tilanga and Carnatic [P. 139] dialects they are called Dhruva, and their subject is erotic. Those of Bengal are called Bangala, and those of Jounpur, Chutkala, while the songs of Delhi are called kaul and tarana. These last were introduced by Amir Khusaru, of Delhi, in concert with Samit and Tatar, and by combining the several styles of Persia and India, form a delightful variety. The songs of Mathura are called Bishn-pad, (Vishnu-pada) consisting of four, six and eight lines, sung in honour of Vishnu. Those of Sind are styled Kāmi and are amatory. Those in the dialect of Tirhut are called Lahchari, and are the composition of Biddya-pat, and in character highly erotic. In Lahor and the adjacent parts, they are called Chhand; those of Gujarāt, Jakri. 20

on the subject of morality. This class of religious song was introduced into Hingustan by Qazi Mahmud. V. Willard's treatise on

The Music of Hindustan,

Willard calls the Dhurpod the heroic song of Hindustan, the subject being frequently the recital of the memorable actions of their heroes, and also treating of love and even of triffing and frivolous topics. Its origin he ascribes to Rājā Mān Singh whom he calls the father of Dhurpad singers. Chind in the text I suspect to be an error for Chhand, (Sansk. Chhandae) a sacred hymn and also a musical measures; Dhruva signifies the introductory stanza or recurring verse of a poem or song repeated as a refrain. Chutkala is a jest or pleasantry and these songs resemble probably the ancient Fescennine verses designed to catch the coarse and indelicate humour of the mob. The Birhan-pad according to Willard, was introduced by the blind (sur) poet and musician Sur Das. His name occurs in Blochmann's list, p. 617, I. Of Samit and Tatār I find no mention. Some of these singers came from Mashhad, Tabriz, Kashmir, and from beyond the Oxus.

The war songs and heroic chants called Karkha, they term Sādara, and these consist also of four, six, and eight lines, and are sung in various dialects.

Besides these that have been named, there are numerous other modes, amongst which are the following:-

Sārang; Purbi; Dhanāsri; Rāmkali; Kurāi, (which His Majesty has styled Sughrāi);21 Suha; Desakāla and Desākha.

THE THIRD is called Prakirnadhyaya or a chapter of miscellaneous rules and treats of Alapa, 22 which is of two kinds. (1). Rāgālapa, the development of the rāga, commonly termed (in Persian) adā and tasarruf, and (2). Rupālāpa: which comprises the metrical setting of the words to the air and their vocal expression. [P. 140]

THE FOURTH, or Prabandhadhyaya, is on the art of composing a rhythmic measure (gita)25 to vocal music. It consists of six members, viz. (1). Svara, (notes as sa, ri, &c., taken at their proper pitch). (2). Viruda, panegyric. (3). Pada, name of its object. (4). Tenā, a cadence of notes on a symbolic standard, as tena, tenā, and the modulation of the lines. (5). Pāta, the continuous imitation of sounds (proceeding from percussion instruments) as tena, tenā, mānā, &c., from three letters to twenty, in a specific order as a supplementary guiding measure. (6). Tāla, rhythm expressed by beat. If the

may be thus briefly exemplified: -

²¹ Probably to change the ominous name, Kurāi, signifying stocks for the feet, and Sughrāi, beauty or grace.
²² Sir S. M. Tagore explains in his "Six Principal Rāgas," that it is

a practice with singers, before commencing a song to develop the character of the raga by means of gamakas, and tunas. This is called alapa in which the notes peculiar to the raga are sung as a prelude to show its character.

²¹ Pada technically is a sentence formed of words having a meaning. Tena, meaningless words used by singers to exhibit the air alone, unaccompanied by words. The six members of the Gita

¹st (Svara), sa, ga, ri, sa.
2nd (Viruda), Thou art my God
3rd (Pada), I look to thee.
4th (Tena), Tena, na, te, na.

⁵th (Pāta), Dha, Dhin, Kath, Thege.
6th (Tāla), heats by hand at equal intervals.

whole six members be present, the composition (prabandha) is called medini;²⁴ if one less, it is termed ānandini; if two less, dipani; if three less, bhāvani, and if four less, tārāvali; but with only two it does not (commonly) occur.

These four adhyāyas treat of the various refinements of

melody.

THE FIFTH is Tālādhyāya, on the nature and quantity of the musical beats.

THE SIXTH is $V\bar{a}dy\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}ya$, on the various musical instruments. These are of four kinds.

(1). Tata, stringed instruments. (2). Vitata, instruments over which skin is stretched. (3). Ghana, all that gives resonance by the concussion of two solid bodies. (4). Sushira, wind instruments.

THE FIRST KIND, OR STRINGED INSTRUMENTS.

The Yantra²⁵ is formed of a hollow neck of wood a yard in length, at each end of which are attached the halves of two gourds. Above the neck are sixteen frees over which are strung five steel wires fastened securely at both ends. The low and high notes and their variations are produced by the disposition of the frees.

The Vinā (Hindi Bin) resembles the Yantra, but has three strings.

The Kinnar resembles the Vina, but with a longer finger-board and has three gourds and two wires.46

²⁵ Yantra (Hindi Jantra) signifies an instrument of any kind. I do not anywhere find mention of a particular musical instrument

under this name.

²¹ Sir S. M. Tagore makes tāla synonymous with chhandas, or metre, and guiding its movement. The beat conforms to the variety of the metre, upon the rhythmic feet of which is based, as with the Greeks, their musical measure.

²⁶ A coloured drawing of this instrument, as well as of the Vina and most of those mentioned in the text, will be found in Capt. Day s superb volume. Music of Southern India. The plates, besides their utility as illustrations, are artistically beautiful and a description of the instrument accompanies each.

The Sar-vinā is also like the Vinā but without frets.

[141] The Amriti has the finger-board shorter than the Sar-vinā, and a small gourd below the upper side, and one steel wire upon which all the scales may be played.

The Rabāb²⁷ has six strings of gut, but some have twelve and others eighteen.

The sarmandal²⁸ is like the Kānun. It has twenty-one strings, some of steel, some of brass, and some of gut.

The Sārangi is smaller than the Rabāb and is played like the Ghichak.20

The Pināk, called also Sur-bitāna, is of wood about the length of a bow and slightly bent. A string of gut is fastened to it and a hollow cup inverted, is attached at either end. It is played like the Ghichak, but in the left hand a small gourd is held which is used in playing.

The Adhati has one gourd and two wires.

The Kingara resembles the Vinā, but has two strings of gut and smaller gourds.

The Second Kind of Instruments.

The Pakhāwaj³¹¹ is made of a thick shell of wood shaped like a myrobolan and hollow. It is over a yard in length and if clasped round the middle, the fingers of the two hands will meet. The ends are a little larger in circumference than the

²⁷ This name, if not the instrument, is of Arabian origin. Specimens of the Rabab, as well as of the kānun, the lute and other instruments are given in Lane's Modern Egyptians, Chap. XVIII.

²⁸ Capt. Day writes the name Svara-Māndala, and calls it the Kānun or Indian Dulcimer, the strings of brass and steel, and occasionally gut, and played with two plectra worn on the finger-tips.

²⁹ This is a kind of Persian lute. A specimen of the Sārangi,

²⁹ This is a kind of Persian lute. A specimen of the Sarangi, or fiddle, will be found in Day.

³⁶ One of Capt. Day's plates represents this drum under the name of the Mridang by which it is best known in Southern India. The two heads are tuned to the tonic, and fourth or fifth. The centre of the smaller head is coated with a composition of resin, oil, and wax and an embroidered cloth is commonly stretched over the upper side of the shell as an ornament. It is beaten by the hands, finger-tips and wrists, and is well enough known throughout India.

mouth of a pitcher and are covered with skin. It is furnished with leather braces which are strained, as in the nakāra or kettle-drum, and four pieces of wood, under a span in length, are inserted (between the shell and the braces) on the left side and serve to tune the instrument.

The Awaj is made of a hollow piece of wood, and might be described as two kettle-drums joined at the reverse ends and their heads covered with skin and braced with thongs.

The Duhul³¹ (drum) is well-known.

The Dhadda is like the Duhul but very small.

The Ardhowaj is half the size of the Awaj.

The Daf, or tambourine, is well-known.32.

The Khanjuri is a tambourine smaller than the Daf, but with cymbals, and its surface is about the size of a pitcher, 33.

The Third Kind of Instruments.

The Tāla is a pair of brass cymbals like cups with broad nouths.

The Kath Tāla, or castanets, are small and fish-shaped. The set consists of four pieces, of wood or stone.

The Fourth Kind of Instruments.

[142] The Shahnā, 4 called in Persian Surnā, 1 14001

This is the Persian equivalent of the ordinary Dhol of Hindustan.

⁶ inches deep and 3 feet in diameter, covered on one side with skin and strained by means of a network of thin leather though. It is struck with the fingers of the right hand, and a thin switch held perpendicularly over it by the fingers of the left is made to strike the instrument at intervals, according to the time. It has no cymbals:

"It is a wooden hoop of or 9 inches in diameter and 3 or

⁴ inches deep, bored out of the solid. In the hoop are three or four slits containing pieces of metal strung together which clash a the tambourine is shaken.

They are both Persian words, the Shahna, or Shahnai, being literally the king-pipe, a kind of clarion or oboc. The word Swita is also written as Surnai.

The Mashk, or bagpipe. is composed of two reeds perforated according to rule and attached (to the bag). It is called in Persian Nai-ambān.

The Murli is a kind of flute.

The Upang is a hollow reed a yard long, the upper part of which has a hole in the centre in which a reed is inserted.

THE SEVENTH is Nrityādhyāya, or the art of dancing.

On the Classes of Singers.

Having cursorily reviewed the subject of vocal and instrumental music, I turn to a brief mention of their musicians.

The chanters of the ancient hymns which were everywhere the same, were called Vaikāras, and their teachers were styled Sahakāras. The Kalāants, or more commonly Kalavants or bards, are well known, and sing the Dhurpad.

The Dhādhis are the Punjabi singers who play upon the Dhadda and the Kingara. They chiefly chant the praises of heroes on the field of battle and lend fresh spirit to the fight. The Kawwālis³⁶ are of this class, but sing mostly after the Delhi and Jounpur style, and Persian verses in the same manner.

The Hurliyah men play upon the Huruk, which is also called Awri, and the women the Tāla, and they also sing. Formerly they chanted the Karkha, but nowadays only the Dhurpad, and the like. Many of the women add great beauty to their musical accomplishments.

The Dafzan, or tambourine player. The Dhādhi women chiefly play on the Daf and the Duhul, and sing the Dhurpad

The smaller of the two pipes is used to inflate the bag which is made of the skin of a kid. It is used merely as a drone; the holes in the pipe are wholly or partially stopped with wax to tune the instrument to pitch. The drone is of cane, mounted in a stock of the same material which contains the reed. The whole reed is in one piece. Black wax is used to make the instrument wind-tight. It is also called sruti-upanga. Day's Music of Southern India, Plate XVI.

The professional chanters and story-tellers.

and the Sohlā on occasions of nuptial and birthday festivities in a very accomplished manner. Formerly they appeared only before assemblies of women but now before audiences of men.

The Sezdah-tāli. The men of this class have large drums, and the women, while they sing, play upon thirteen pairs of tālas at once, two being on each wrist, two on the joint of each elbow, two on the junction of the shoulder blades, and two on each shoulder, one on the breast and two on the fingers of each hand. They are mostly from Gujarät and Mālwah. [P. 143]

The Natwas exhibit some graceful dancing, and introduce various styles to which they sing. They play upon the Pakhāwaj, the Rabāb and the Tāla.

The Kirtaniya are Brāhmans, whose instruments are such as were in use among the ancients. They dress up smooth-faced boys as women and make them perform, singing the praises of Krishna and reciting his acts.

The Bhagatiya have songs similar to the above, but they dress up in various disguises and exhibit extraordinary mimicry. They perform at night.

The Bhanvayya resemble the last-named, but they exhibit both by night and day. Sitting and standing in the compass of a copper dish called in Hindi, thali, they sing in various modes and go through wonderful performances.

The Bhand play the Duhul and Tala and sing and mimic men and animals.

The Kanjari: The men of this class play the Pakhāwaj, the Rabāb and the Tāla, while the women sing and dance. His Majesty calls them Kanchanis.

The Nats are rope-dancers, and perform wonderful acrobatic feats. They play on the Tāla and Duhul.

The Bahu-rupi exhibit their mimicry by day: youths disguise themselves as old men so successfully that they impose upon the most acute observers.

The Bāzigar performs wonderful feats of legerdemain and by his dexterous conjuring deceives the eye. For instance, one will carry an enormous stone on his back, or they will appear to cut a man into pieces and then restore him to his natural state.

Their extraordinary performances are beyond description and each of them affects a special style of vocal accompaniment.

[144] The Akhārā

is an entertainment held at night by the nobles of this country, some of whose (female) domestic servants are taught to sing and play. Four pretty women lead off a dance, and some graceful movements are executed. Four others are employed to sing, while four more accompany them with cymbals: two others play the pakhāwaj, two the upang, while the Dekhan rabāb, the vinā and the yantra, are each taken by one player. Besides the usual lamps of the entertainment, two women holding lamps stand near the circle of performers. Some employ more. It is more common for a band of these natwās to be retained in service who teach the young slave-girls to perform, Occasionally they instruct their own girls and take them to the nobles and profit largely by the commerce.

His Majesty has a considerable knowledge of the principles explained in the Sangita and other works, and what serves as an occasion to induce a lethargic sleep in other mortals, becomes to him a source of exceeding vigilance.

Gaja Sāstra

is the knowledge of elephants and all that concerns their various peculiarities, their care and health and the causes and symptoms of sickness and its remedies.

Salihotra,

or veterinary surgery, is the knowledge of all that appertains to the horse and its treatment.

Vāstuka

is the science of architecture and its characteristics.

Supa

treats of the arts of cookery and the properties of food.

Rājaniti

is the science of state-craft. As it behoves a monarch in the governance [P. 145] of the interior spirit, to avoid the evil results of desire and anger (Sanskrit, Kāma and Krodha), similarly the administration of temporal affairs is guided by observance of the like conduct. The principal occasions of unruliness of desires which cause the downfall of princes, are said to be ten:—(1) The pursuit of game. (2) Dicing.

(3) Sleep. (4) Censoriousness. (5) Intercourse with women.

(6) Singing songs. (7) Dancing. (8) The society of musicians.

(9) Wine. (10) Solitude.

The chief sources of the calamities [i.e., vices born] of anger are:—(1) Confiscation of property. (2) Ungraciousness in acknowledgment of benefits. (3) Betraying a secret. (4) Unmindfulness of the service of dependants. (5) Abusive language. (6) Unjust suspicion. (7) Taking life without due deliberation, and the like. (8) Publishing the faults of others.

It is incumbent on monarchs to live free from the baneful consequences of desire and anger and not to sully their dignity

ar I am not sure of this interpretation of nagsh guitan. From the context, the meaning I have given is the most appropriate, and

Vuller admits this signification of nagsh in his lexicon.

This section has been taken from Manu's Institutes, 7th canto verses 47 et seq, where we have as the 8th and 10th of the vices born of desire,—'playing on musical instruments' and "sauntering or aimless wandering" in the places of the two mentioned above by Jarrett. The sixth in the Sanskrit original is really "singing".

[J. Sarkar.]

with these eighteen sources of crime. If they are unable to avoid them altogether, they should never transgress due measure in their regard. They say that a prince should be God-fearing, circumspect and just, compassionate and bountiful, recognising virtue and the distinctions of rank and merit. He should be courteous in speech, kindly in aspect and condescending in his manner. He should be ever ambitious of extending his dominions, and should protect his subjects from the exactions of revenue-officers, from thieves, robbers and other evil-doers. He should proportion the punishment to the offence and be firm of purpose and yet clement. His intelligencers should be appointed from among men of trust and sagacity. He should never despise his enemy nor be remiss in vigilance nor be proud of his wealth and power. He should not admit to his court venal and corrupt designers. A king resembles a gardener and should carry out, in regard to his subjects, the course pursued in the care of his garden by the other, who puts away thorns and weeds and keeps his flower-beds in good order, allowing no depredations from without. In the same way a prince should transfer to the frontier of his dominions the turbulence of the seditious, and free the courts of his palace from their machinations, and allow no other evil designers to enter them. The gardener, likewise, from time to time, prunes the redundancy of leaf and branch on his trees, so the king should isolate from each other the more powerful nobles whose friends and dependants are dangerously numerous. The gardener also invigorates his weak saplings with water, and the king should similarly sustain with beneficence his impoverished soldiery.

The king should choose a circumspect person of exemplary piety, courteous in disposition, vigilant, zealous, and masterful, reading the signs of the times and divining the intentions of his lord, and ready of speech, and in consultation with him, provide for the spiritual and temporal affairs of his kingdom. But if he finds himself physically unable to carry

on these duties, he should entrust their complicated direction to him. In important affairs he should not consult with many advisers, because the qualifications necessary in such cases are fidelity, breadth of view, fortitude of spirit, and perspicacity, and the union of these four priceless virtues in any one man is uncommonly rare. Although some statesmen of former times consulted with men of a different stamp with the intention of acting directly contrary to their advice, in the majority of cases this course did not answer and many disasters were the consequence, for this special reason, that it is difficult to efface from the mind the suspicions aroused by the insinuations of cowardly, unprincipled, short-sighted and base men. [146] Former princes adopted the practice of selecting from four to eight intelligent counsellors with the qualifications above-mentioned, under the presidency of one of their number. The opinion of each of these was separately taken on matters concerning the welfare of the State and the revenues, after which they were assembled in consultation and their several opinions carefully weighed without disclosing the author.

Further, a prince is in need of a faithful attendant, a profound astrologer, and a skilful physician. His wide experience will enable him to surround himself with friends, to maintain a well-appointed force, and to fill his treasury. He will portion out his dominions and entrust them to just and circumspect governors, and unite them in a befitting co-operation of government. He is jealous in the construction and provision of his fortresses and careful in their maintenance.

With his equals in power he is on terms of amity and concord and exacts tribute from the weak. He sows dissensions in the armies of one more powerful than himself by skilful intrigue, or failing this, he conciliates him with presents. As long as possible he avoids hostilities with all, but when war is inevitable, he enters upon it with fearlessness and vigour and upholds his honour. He should consider a prince whose territories are conterminous with his own, as his

enemy though he be profuse in demonstrations of friendship. With one whose country is situated next beyond, he should form an alliance. With a third more remote, he should avoid all intercourse whether hostile or friendly.

After the above manner have statesmen laid down rules of government, suggesting approved modes of conduct and enforcing them with numerous happy illustrations, all of which are referrible to the qualities of wisdom, recognition of merit, bravery, good temper, reserve in speech, zeal, and benevolence.

VYAVAHARA

or

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.34

The learned among the Hindus say that litigation in its various kinds falls under eighteen titles, for each of which there is a separate course of procedure, viz.—(1). Non-payment of debt. (2). Deposits. (3). Sale without ownership. (4). Disputes in partnership. (5). Reclaiming a gift. (6). Disputes between master and servant regarding wages, under which head are included labourers and such as work for hire. (7). Default of revenue by the cultivator. (8). Recision of purchase between buyer and seller. (9). Mulcts on herdsmen. (10). Boundary disputes. (11). Slander. (12). Assault. (13). Theft. (14). Violence with bloodshed. (15). Adultery. (16). Altercation between man and wife. (17). Inheritance. (18). Gambling disputes.

³⁸ For Hindu Law, Hastings Ency. vii. 850-853, iv. 283 (crimes). Abul Fazl's authority seems to be the Ordinances of Manu of which the 8th chapter deals with Civil and Criminal law. The eighteen titles are somewhat differently worded in Manu, and I give them for comparison. Non-payment of debt; pledges; sale without ownership; partnership and non delivery of what has been given; non-payment of wages; breach of contract; revocation of sale (and) purchase; disputes between master and servant; disputes about boundaries; assault (and) slander; theft; violence; adultery; the law between man and woman; partition; dicing; games with animals.''

The king in his judicial character must erect his tribunal facing the east. He must conduct the duties of his office in person, and if he cannot always himself attend to them, he must delegate his authority to a wise, fearless and painstaking deputy. [P. 147]

The plaintiff is termed Vādin and the defendant Prativādin. A child under twelve years of age may not be summoned to court, nor one who is drunk; nor one crazy, nor one who is sick or engaged in the service of the State, nor a woman without relations, or of high family, or who has recently given birth to a child. A discreet person should be commissioned to interrogate in such cases, or they should be brought into the royal presence.

The plaintiff's statement is taken down in writing, with the date of the year, month, and day, and the names of the two parties and their ancestors for three descents, and many other particulars. The reply of the defendant is then recorded and both their statements are carefully investigated. The plaintiff is then asked for any documentary evidence and for his witnesses. These should not be fewer than four, though some allow only three, and even one is considered sufficient if he be a person of known veracity.

A child under five may not serve as a witness, nor a man broken down with age. The evidence of a Sudra is only available for a Sudra, and that of a handicraftsman for one of his own trade. The evidence of a blind man may not be taken, nor of one who is deaf, or diseased, or drunk, or crazy, nor a gambler, nor of a notorious evil-liver, nor of one oppressed by hunger and thirst, nor of an angry, man, nor of a thief, nor of one who is being taken to execution. For women, women should serve as witnesses. A friend may not witness for a friend, nor an enemy against an enemy, nor partners for each other. In all oral litigation, dryness of the lips, and biting them, and licking the sides of the mouth,

alteration of voice and change of colour, should be taken into consideration as collateral proof.

In all suits these conditions of evidence are imperative except under titles eleven to fourteen.

If there be no documentary evidence or witnesses, the judge must decide to the best of his ability, with caution and prudence; but if he cannot discover the facts of the case, he must cause the plaintiff or, as some say, either of the two parties, as he thinks best, to undergo the ordeal.³⁹ This is of eight kinds.

The first kind. The man is weighed and taken out of the scales, and after some prayers and incantations, he is again weighed. If his scale rises, his claim is allowed, but an even balance or his scale preponderating, are proofs of its falsehood. Some authorities say that the balance is never even. This ordeal is only for Brāhmans.

The second kind. Seven or nine circles are drawn with a distance of sixteen fingers' breadth between each periphery. The person is then bathed and religious ceremonies and incantations, as above described, are gone through. His two hands are then rubbed over with rice-bran, and seven green leaves of the pipal-tree (Ficus religiosa) are placed upon them and bound round seven times with raw silk. A piece of iron, weighing 3½ sers and heated red-hot, is then placed upon the leaves which, thus heated, he carries and advances taking one step between each circle, till, on arriving at the last, he throws the iron down. If there is no sign of a burn, his word is accepted. If the iron fall from his hands mid-way, he must begin again.

The third kind. The person is made to stand in water up to his naval and dips under with his face to the east. Then,

The word used in the text is oath, a translation of the Sanskrit sapatha, which means also ordeal. It is an asseveration by imprecating curses on the head of the taker of the oath. In this case, ordeal is evidently the true signification.

from a bow measuring 106 fingers breadth, a reed arrow without an iron point, is shot off so that it shall fly with the wind and a fast runner is sent to fetch it. If he can keep under water from the time the shaft is loosed till the runner returns with it, his cause is declared just. This ordeal is especially for the Vaisya caste. [P. 148]

The fourth kind. Seven barley corns of a deadly poison are administered in the spring season (Vasanta), or five in the heats (Grishma), or four in the rains (Varshā), six in the autumn (Sarad), and seven in the winter (Haimanta). These are to be mixed with thirty-three times the quantity of clarified butter and given to the man after certain incantations. The face of the patient must be towards the south, and the person who administers must face the east or north. If during a period in which the hands may be clapped 500 times, the poison does not take effect, his truth is proved. Antidotes are then given to him to prevent any fatal effects. This ordeal is peculiar to the Sudra caste.

The fifth kind. An idol is first washed, and after worship is paid to it, incantations are pronounced over the water it was washed with, and three mouthfuls of it are given to the person under ordeal. If no misfortune happens to him within a fortnight, the justness of his cause is acknowledged.

The sixth kind. Rice of the class called Sāthi⁴⁰ is placed in an earthen vessel and kept all night. Incantations are next morning pronounced over it, and the person is made to eat it while facing the east. He is then required to spit upon a leaf of the pipal (Ficus religiosa), or the bhojpatra (Betula bhojpatra). If there should be any marks of blood, or the corners of the mouth swell, or symptoms of ague supervene, the untruth of his case is inferred.

The seventh kind. An earthen or stone vessel is taken, measuring sixteen fingers in length and breadth, and four

^{**} Produced in the rains, and so called because it ripens in 60 days from the time of sowing.

fingers deep. Into this forty dams weight of clarified butter or sesame-oil is poured and brought to boiling point, and one masha of gold, which is equal to four surkhs, is thrown into the boiling-oil. If the person can take out the gold with two fingers without being scalded, his cause is just.

The eighth kind. A symbol of Dharma, or Innocence, is fashioned of silver, and one of Adharma, or Guilt, of lead or iron; or the former word is written on a piece of a white cloth, or a leaf of the bhoj tree, and the latter on a piece of black cloth, and these are put into a jar which has never held water. The person under ordeal is then told to draw out one of these. If the symbol of innocence is drawn out, his cause is just. This ordeal is applicable in determining the righteousness of all four castes.

If a suit cannot be decided in one day, bail is taken; and a second suit may not be brought against the same person till the first is disposed of. When a claim is proved, the plaintiff is put in possession, and a fine of an amount equal to the value of the suit is exacted of the defendant. If the plaintiff loses his cause, he pays double the value of the suit.

Having cursorily explained the procedure regarding suits, evidence and ordeal, I now as briefly record the mode of adjudication under the eighteen titles of law-suits.

1. Non-payment of debt. If the debt be without deposit and the dispute be regarding the amount of interest, a Brāhman shall pay two per cent. (per mensem), a Kshatriya three, a Vaisya four, and a Sudra five per cent. If there be security, only one-fourth of the above amounts are recoverable though a higher rate may have been agreed to. For risks by land-travel, up to ten per cent. is allowed, and not exceeding twenty-five per cent. for risks at sea. If interest has been agreed upon, and ten times the length of the stipulated period has elapsed, a claim shall not be allowed for [149] more

than double the principal.⁴¹ When the interest is paid on corn, the sum of the interest and principal should not be more than five times the principal. If the debtor is unable to pay, he must renew the obligation bringing the instrument⁴² and witnesses for its verification.

- 2. Deposits. If the receiver of a deposit make use of it without the owner's permission and delay its restoration when claimed, he shall forego half the interest due (in compensation). If he deny the deposit and there be no documentary evidence or witnesses, the judge may privately direct a third person to make a deposit with the same man and after some time to demand it back. If he acts as before, he shall be compelled to satisfy the first claim, or submit to trial by ordeal; but if the pledge be stolen by a thief, or if it be burnt, or washed away by water, or plundered by an enemy, restitution shall not be made. If he has dealt fraudulently with it, he shall make restitution and pay a similar amount as a fine.
- 3. Sale without ownership. If a man claim possession of property, it shall be restored to him free on proof of ownership, and the money taken back from the seller. And if it be sold privately or under its value, or by a person not entitled to do so, the judge shall fine the offender as he thinks proper. And if he brings forward the thief, it shall not be imputed

⁴¹ That is, the sum of interest plus principal must not exceed twice the original debt. According to Manu, five times the principal is payable on corn, fruit, wool and draught animals.

hard the sanskrit for this term karanam is translated by Hopkins 'proof', while stating in a note that the meaning 'document' given by commentators is not necessary and seems improbable. Yet this is exactly the translation of Abul Fazl, the word 'Sanad' employed by him signifying document or instrument.

⁴³ Or "if he appear a thief." The elliptical language of the text can be understood only by comparison with the text of Manu: verses 197-198 run as follows:—(197.) "If a man not being himself the owner, sells the property of another without the owner's permission, one should not allow him to be a witness, (since he is) a thief (although) he may not think he is a thief.

as the crime of a thief, but a fine shall be exacted from him as a thief.

- 4. Partnership. If there be a dispute between partners and any formal deed of partnership exist and be proved, it shall be carried out in accordance with its terms; otherwise the profit and loss shall be divided according to the proportions of capital invested. If one of the partners dissipate the joint property or, without the consent of the other, remove it or otherwise fraudulently deal with it, he shall make it good to the other by a fine. Or if on the other hand, he make a profit, he shall not be required to give more than one-tenth to his partner. If one of them is guilty of fraud, he shall be ejected from partnership and the interest due to him shall be exacted by the judge. If one of the partners be left in charge of the joint property and any deficiency or injury occurs through his neglect, he shall make it good.
- 5. Reclaiming a gift. If a gift is made under the influence of anger, sickness, grief, fear, or as a bribe, or in jest, it may be recalled: also what has been given by a child, or a drunken or crazy man. In other cases it may not be reclaimed. And if the gift be made for a future benefit or in exchange, it may not, under any pretence, be resumed.
- 6. Wages, Hire, Rent. If wages, hire, or rent be received in advance, the agreement may not be violated. If it be broken, the offender shall be fined to the amount of double the sum; but if the money has not been actually paid, the fine shall extend only to the amount originally fixed. If a servant loses his master's property, he must make good the equivalent, but if it be taken from him by violence, he is not liable to restitution.
 - 7. Revenue. If any one fail to pay the usual revenue,

^(198.) He should be held to a fine of 600 panas if he is a near relation: if he is not a near relation and has no excuse, he would incur the fine of a thief."

the whole of his effects shall be confiscated, and he shall be expelled the country.

8. Purchase and sale. A purchaser may on the day of purchase return the goods bought; on the second day he may return them on a forfeit of a twentieth of their cost: on the third day, of a tenth, after which they cannot be sent back. But a maid-servant may be sent back within one month; a slave, within fifteen days; corn, within ten days; jewels, within seven days; cattle in general, within five days; a milch-cow, within three days; iron, within one day; unless there be any stipulation to the contrary. The same conditions hold good with the seller, but he must sustain the loss in the same proportion as the excess payments of the purchaser in the opposite case.

man a beast is lost or dies or is injured, he must make good the loss. If cattle eat a grain-crop near a village or city, the herdsman is not amenable to fine. Sown-fields should be distant from a small village four hundred cubits; from one of moderate size, eight hundred, and from a large settlement, sixteen hundred cubits. If the trespass should occur through the neglect of the keeper, he must pay the value of the crop destroyed, otherwise the owner of the cattle is responsible. For a buffalo, a camel or donkey the fine is seven māshas of silver: for an ox, half the above: for a sheep or goat, half the fine for an ox. If the beast lies down to eat, the fine is doubled. An elephant, a horse, as well as cattle set at liberty as an act of piety, (it being the custom, eleven days after the death of a Brāhman, thirteen days after the death

⁴⁴ "Round about every village there should be a strip of land one hundred bows or even three casts of a staff in width: around a city, it should be three times as wide." Manu. VIII, 237. This land is intended for a common and not to be tilled. The staff is picked up after the first cast, and again as it falls, and so on three times. The strength of the cast might fitly be that of Polypætes. Iliad, XXIII, 845.

of a Kshatriya, sixteen after that of a Vaisya, and thirty after the death of a Sudra, to let loose eight or four bulls, or one bull with a number of cows after branding them in a special manner) or a cow that has lately calved, or animals that have strayed, or not amenable to fine if they damage the crops. The same rule applies to royal preserves as to crops.

10. Boundaries. Disputes regarding boundaries may be adjudicated at any season save during the rains. The owners of land define their boundaries by burying charcoal, stones, potsherds, hair, bones, and the like that do not perish even after a long time; and sometimes a tree is made the boundary. The judge determines the dispute on the production of such evidence, and the witness of four, eight, or ten husbandmen, keepers. or hunters.

The witnesses shall wear red garments, place earth upon their heads and wear a string of red flowers round their necks, and shall swear that their good deeds may lose all merit if they lie. If there be no witnesses nor boundary mark, the judgment of the king shall determine the line.

11. Slander. This is of three kinds, viz.—(1). Reviling another to his face. (2). By insinuation and suggestion. (3). Reviling his mother, sister, or such other improper language. For the first two, if the abuse be from one of inferior towards one of a superior caste the fine is twelve-and-a-half dāms; to an equal, half that sum; towards an inferior, one-fourth. For the third kind, the fine is twenty-five dāms, if between equals, or if a Brāhman reviles a Kshatriya; but fifty,

⁴⁵ If a dispute has arisen between two villages in regard to a boundary, the king should determine the boundary in the month of Juaistha (middle of May to middle of June) as the boundary marks are then very plain. Manu, viii. 245.

The men named by Manu are hunters, bird-catchers, cowherds, fishermen, root-diggers, snake-catchers, gleaners, and other men who wander about the woods. The text has sipāhān (which larrett trans. as keepers), a misprint for pāsbānān or watchmen. [I. S.]

if the abuse is from a Kshatriya to a Brāhman. If a Vaisya reviles a Brāhman he is fined seventy-five dāms, but in the opposite case the fine is twelve-and-a-half. If a Sudra thus offends against a Brāhman, he is fined one hundred dāms, a Brāhman reviling a Sudra pays six-and-a-quarter. A Vaisya reviling a Kshatriya pays fifty, and the fine in the opposite case is twelve-and-a-half; and the same proportion between a Vaisya and a Sudra. If one of the gods be reviled, or the king, or a Brāhman who has read the four Vedas, the fine is 540 dāms. If the abuse be directed against the people of a quarter, half of the above; and one-fourth if against the inhabitants of the city.

12. Assault. This is of four kinds: (1) Throwing earth, clay or filth upon any one. (2) Putting him in bodily fear by threatening him with the fist, a stick, or other weapon. (3) Striking with the hands or feet and the like. (4) Wounding with any weapon.

The first kind. In the first case, the fine is five dams, but if filth is thrown, ten, provided the parties are equals; but twice as much if it be an inferior against a superior, and only half in the opposite cases.

The second kind. Threatening with the hand, etc., five dāms, and (with stick or other weapon) between equals, eleven; between superiors and inferiors, as above.

[151] The third kind. If the blow cause a swelling or pain in the limb, 270 dāms. If by an inferior against a superior, the hand or foot, or other offending member be cut off, or a suitable fine inflicted. In the instance of a Kshatriya against a Brāhman, the fine is 540 dāms; a Vaisya against a Brāhman, 1,080; a Sudra against a Brāhman, 2,160, a Vaisya against a Kshatriya or a Sudra against a Vaisya 540; a Sudra against a Kshatriya, 1,080; a Brāhman against a Kshatriya, 135; or against a Vaisya, 67½; or against a Sudra, 33¾; a Kshatriya against a Vaisya, 135; against a Sudra 67½.

The fourth kind. Between those of like caste if the skin be abraded, fifty dāms, and if the flesh is cut, twenty tolahs of gold, and if a bone be broken, the offender is banished. If an inferior against a higher caste, the fine is doubled, and in the opposite case, it shall be a-half. If treatment is necessary, the offender shall pay the expenses of medicine and daily 'keep' till the injured man be restored to health.

In the case of a sheep, antelope⁴⁷ and the like, if there be hurt, the fine is eight dāms; if it be rendered useless, the value must be paid to the owner, with a fine of 125 dāms; and twice as much, if it be killed. For a horse, camel, or ox, the fine is also double. When damage is done to valuable plants, the value must be paid to the owner and a fine of ten dāms, but eight dāms if they be of small value.

of gold or silver or any valuables up to this amount, or more than 662/3 mans of corn, or the child or the wife of any person of distinction, he shall be liable to the punishment of death. If the amount be less than one hundred and more than fifty tolahs, he shall suffer the loss of his hand. If fifty or less, he shall pay eleven times the amount as a fine. The same applies to corn. In all cases the equivalent of the amount stolen shall be made good to the owner, and if the thief is unable to pay, he shall work out the amount in menial service. In other cases of theft, corporal punishment, imprisonment or fine, is at the discretion of the judge.

14. Violence with bloodshed. If a man of inferior caste kill a man of a higher caste, the penalty is death. If a Brähman slay a Brähman, his entire estate shall be confiscated, his head shaved, his forehead branded and he shall be banished from the kingdom. If a Brähman slay a Kahatriya, he shall pay a fine of 1,000 cows and a bull; if he slay a Vaisya, 100 cows

Different sorts of antelopes and deer, flamingoes and parrots, are "propitious" forest animals, and a fine imposed for killing them: also the small animals, such as crows, cats, etc.

and a bull, or if a Sudra, 10 cows and a bull. The same rule applies to Kshatriyas and Vaisyas. If a Sudra slay a Sudra, he shall be fined 500 cows and a bull. If the murderer be not found, the people of the city, village, or quarter in which the murder was committed shall produce some of his family or pay in default any fine that the king may inflict.

15. Adultery. Commerce between a woman and a man other than her husband, is of three kinds: (1) When they converse and jest together in private. (2) When a present is sent to the house of the other. (3) When they meet and criminal intercourse ensues. In the second case, a fine may be inflicted at the discretion of the king. The third is of two kinds, viz., with a maiden and one who is not a maiden. The former may be dishonoured . . . The latter may be women who are guarded, or such as gad abroad.46 In each of these four cases it may occur with the woman's consent or otherwise. and of these eight, the criminality may take place between two of a like caste. In the latter instance if it be a girl and she consent in all these offences, and no force is offered on one side or resistance on the other, the man shall be compelled to marry her whether he will or no. In the case of pollution and the like, he must pay a fine of 200 dams. If he violate her without her consent, he shall be put to death, but the woman is not liable to punishment. If he forcibly pollute her, he must suffer the loss of his fingers, and pay a fine of 600 dams. If the offender be a Brähman, he shall be banished, but no other penalty is exacted. If the man be of higher caste, he shall be made to take her in marriage, even if he be unwilling. in which case an additional fine is imposed. If she be not a maiden, and both be of like caste, and she be guarded, and give her consent, the man is fined 270 dams, but if without

4º Under the protection of her husband or other male relative.

⁴⁶ Hopkins translates 'wandering women' (Manu. VIII. 363). and supposes them to be possibly Buddhistic nuns. Sir W. Iones interprets 'female anchorets of an heretical religion'. Abul Fazl's rendering is kucha gard, gadding, about the streets'.

her consent, the fine shall be 540 dāms. If she be one used to gad abroad and consents, the fine is 250 dāms; if forced, 500. If the man be of higher caste, the fine in all cases shall be 250 dāms; if of inferior caste, death is the penalty in every instance, and the ears and nose of the woman shall be cut off.

16. Altercation between man and wife. If after marriage a man discovers any natural defect in his wife, he may put her away without remedy on her part, but the woman's father shall be fined. If a man offer one daughter in marriage and substitute another in her place, he shall be compelled to give both. When a man has journeyed on a pilgrimage to holy shrines and is absent beyond the term agreed upon, the wife shall wait at home for eight years whatever her position in life may be,56 If he has gone abroad for the sake of knowledge or fame or wealth, she shall wait six years: if he journeys to seek another wife, three years. At the expiration of these periods, she is at liberty to leave her husband's house to obtain a livelihood. The husband on his return from abroad, if he wishes to put her away on account of her departure, is not permitted to do so. If the wife does not observe the condition of these periods, the husband is at liberty to put her away. If the husband fall sick and the wife does not minister to him, he may not, on his recovery, for this cause divorce her, but he may refuse intercourse with her for three months and deprive her of all that she possesses, after which period he shall be reconciled to her. With Brahmans, divorce does not take place but a husband may avoid the sight and presence of his wife: her maintenance must nevertheless be continued. The wife may not take another husband. If he be guilty of great crimes or have any contagious disease, the wife is at liberty to separate from him. If a Brahman have a wife of

One commentator's opinion is that, after the eight years she must follow him. Another states that she may marry another husband. The former opinion, says Hopkins, rests on a later view of second marriages.

each of the four castes, he shall assign them their respective social functions. In religious ceremonies, and personal attendance such as anointing with oil and adorning⁵¹ him and similar duties, he must employ only his own caste.

17. Inheritance. While a son lives, no other relation or kinsman shares the estate except the wife who is equal to the son. If there be neither son nor wife, the unmarried daughter inherits. If there be also no daughter, the mother is the heir. [P. 153]

If there be no mother, the father takes possession.

If there be no father alive, his brother shall be heir.

In default of a brother, the brother's son inherits.

In default of a brother's son, the estate is divided amongst the surviving kindred.

If he leave no relations, the teacher inherits, or in default of the teacher, his fellow pupils.

In the absence of all these the estate lapses to the Crown.

18. Gambling. Whosoever plays with false dice shall be banished. If he refuse to pay his stake, it shall be taken from him, and of his winnings, the king shall receive one-tenth, and one-twentieth shall be taken for dues.⁵²

To each of these eighteen titles there are many illustrations, and conflicting opinions are recorded. I content myself with this short exposition.

⁵² I presume the reading is questionable. It probably refers to a licence for the tables, or permission to play. For I lindu gambling

rules, Hastings, Ency. iv. 284.

The duties of a Brāhman's wife are to give food to beggar guests, and attend to her part of the sacrificial preparations. She bathes and adorns her husband, cleans his teeth and anoints him: and since she holds the highest rank she gives him his food, drink, wreaths, clothes and ornaments.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE FOUR PERIODS OF RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Having reviewed the various branches of learning in their scientific aspects, I proceed to some account of their practical modes of life.

Among the Brāhmans, the period of individual life, after the intelligence is to some degree matured, is divided into four portions, to each of which is assigned its special important duties. These periods severally receive the name of Asrama.

THE FIRST PERIOD is the Brahma-charya, or religious studentship. Investiture with the sacred thread is regarded by the Brahmans as the first principle of their creed, and the three superior castes do not acknowledge the right of due membership without it. With a Brahman it must be made in the eighth year, or if this auspicious time is suffered to elapse, it may be performed up to sixteen years of age. A Kshatriya may be invested between eleven and twenty-two years of age, and a Vaisya from twelve to twenty-four, but a Sudra is not considered a fitting recipient. It is imperative that the investiture should take place for each caste within the prescribed periods from which date the initiation is reckoned, otherwise there is exclusion from caste. The Brahman receives the sacred string from his father or teacher. and the two other castes from a Brahman. None but a Brāhman may twist the string, and that which he wears for the first time must be twisted by his father or teacher or by himself. The teacher's son has also the same privilege. Three strands, in length ninety-six times the circumference of the fist, are united and twisted, making a twist of nine strands. This is again folded into three without twisting and secured

For Asramas, Hastings Encyclo. ii. 128-131 (by Deussen) and details about the duties in each stage of life. Wilson's Vishnu Purana, Ch. ix—xii and Manu Samhita.

by a knot at each end. This is the sacred thread. It is placed on the left shoulder and carried across the body to the right side, and thus the length is from the shoulder to the thumb of the right side, and thus the length is from the shoulder to the thumb of the right hand. It is worn diagonally like a belt. A Brāhman wears five together, the other two castes, but three. Some authorities say that a cotton thread is for the special use of the Brāhman, woollen for the Kshatriya and hempen thread for the Vaisya. Similarly, a thong of deerskin, three fingers in breadth, is worn with it but not of the same length. A Brāhman [154] uses the skin of the black antelope; a Kshatriya the skin of any other kind of deer, and a Vaisya of a goat. At this period they also wear round the waist a girdle of a particular kind of grass called in Sanskrit Munja (Saccharum Munja).

He next learns the gāyatri,² which are certain words in praise of the sun, resembling the kalimah or profession of faith in Islām. He also receives a staff of palāsa wood (Butea frondosa), but for the other two castes it is made of some other wood.

He leaves his father's house and chooses a lodging near his teacher, learns his letters and begins reading the Vedas. He first reads that Veda which it is his special duty to learn, and then the remaining three. They relate that when the sage Vyāsa divided the Vedas into four parts, he instructed one of his pupils in each, from which time the descendants and the pupils of these respectively read their own Veda first. The Vedas are never read during the first degree of the moon's

The Gāyatri verse is taken from the Rig Veda III. 62, and is repeated by every Brāhman at his morning and evening devotions. From being addressed to the sun (Savita) as generator, it is also called Sāvitri. The verse runs:

तस्सि<u>वितुर्वरेष्णुं</u> भगौ देवस्य धीमहि घियो यो नः प्रचीवयात् ॥१०॥

[&]quot;Of the god-like sun this surpassing radiance we contemplate which excites to action our intelligence."

course (pariwā), nor during the eighth, fourteenth, fifteenth, or thirtieth, nor on the night of the fourth, eighth, or fourteenth, nor during an eclipse of the sun, but any of the other acts may be performed at those times.

When a Brahman goes to relieve the necessities of nature, he hangs the sacred thread upon his right ear, and on such an occasion by day, turns his face to the north and by night to the south. He washes himself five times, each time first mixing the water with earth, and then washes the left hand ten times in the same manner, and next both hands seven times, and lastly both his feet in the same way. After he urines, he washes the part as above described and the left hand three times and each hand and foot once. From the day of his investiture till sixteen years of age, this number of purifications must be observed and doubled after he exceeds that age. Next, in a chosen spot, he should sit down on his haunches facing the east or north, keeping his knees erect and with his hand between them should drink three fills of his palm. A Brahman should swallow as much water as will reach his chest: a Kshatriya as much as will suffice to reach his throat; a Vaisya, as far as the root of his tongue. A Sudra may drink but once. He then uses a tooth stick (miswāk) twelve fingers breadth in length, taking a fresh one every day.

He may not wear more than four coverings for his person. These are: (1) *l.angoti*, or waist-cloth, which is worn to cover only two parts of his body. (2) A small lung' worn above the other. (3) A sheet without suture, over his shoulders. (4) A small cap for his head. He should bathe before sunrise, wearing only the sacred thread, the girdle of munja, and the langoti. He first takes up a little water in his right hand, saying: "I pray that any fault I have committed may be put

³ This is a cloth worn round the loins and passed between the legs and tucked in behind. It differs from the *langoti* in reaching to the knees.

away from me." After which he throws the water away. With this intention his ablutions are entered upon. Then he rubs himself all over with earth, and if he be in a river, he dips three times, otherwise, he pours water over himself thrice and rubs his body all over with his hands. He then pronounces the name of God, and taking water three times in [P. 155] the hollow of his hand sips a little and begins to repeat certain prayers, at the conclusion of which he continues sprinkling water upon his head. He next closes his nostrils with two fingers and dashing water over his face, repeats other prayers and dips or throws water over himself thrice. Then wetting both his hands, he sprinkles his forehead, chest and both shoulders seven times, and taking up water with joined hands, casts it towards the sun eight times, repeating special prayers, and sips some water thrice. He next performs the pranayama as described in the section on the Pātanjala system. The ablutions are meritorious in degree according to their performance in the following order-in a river, a tank, a well, or a house. He then clothes himself. If he be a follower of Rama, he marks his forehead horizontally with ashes; if of Krishna, he draws the sectarial mark in twelve places, viz., on his forehead, his breast, his navel, the right and left sides thereof, his right and left shoulders. the two lobes of his ears, his loins, the crown of his head and the throat. The clay of the Ganges is considered the most efficacious for this purpose but saffron and the like are also used. A Sudra marks his forehead with only a circle. After this he takes his staff and slings across his shoulders the deer-skin and occupies himself with the Sandhyä, which consists of certain religious exercises, sprinkling and sipping water, and the like.4 Next comes the lighting of the fire and certain burnt offerings are made which is called the Homa sacrifice.

[&]quot;These rites are performed at morning, mid-day, and evening.

When these ceremonies are concluded, he goes to his teacher and gains merit by waiting upon him and reading the Vedas. At midday, the ablution and the ceremonies aforesaid are repeated with some variation and some increase in their number. When these are over he sets out begging alms and solicits from three, five, or seven houses, but avoids a Sudra. After cooking a sufficient meal he carries it to his teacher and with his permission, eats it. He precedes his meal with prayers and a few ceremonies and eats in silence and then repeats other prayers. When it is near dusk, he again performs the Sandhyā and Homa rites and occupies himself with reading. After a watch of the night has elapsed, he sleeps upon the ground, making his couch of straw or a tiger's skin or deer-skin or the like. He should avoid honey, betel-leaf, and perfumes. He should shave his head, keeping a tuft only, but the hair of the other parts of the body should be suffered to grow. He should not use collyrium nor anoint himself with oil, and should abstain from singing, dancing and gaming. He should not kill any animal nor have any commerce with women nor eat of anything not tasted first by his teacher. He should abstain from falsehood, anger, avarice and envy, and not defile his tongue by speaking ill of any one though he deserve it, and make his days meritorious by practices of piety. In prayer he should turn to the east or north and he should not look towards the sun in its rising or setting. Some pass forty-eight years in the Brahmacharya stage, allowing twelve years for the study of each Veda. Some take only five years, and others till the Vedas are learnt. Others again spend their lives in this manner and undergo austerities in the hope of final liberation.

[156] The Second Period is the Gārhasthya, or a state in which the duties of a householder are observed and the person so engaged is called Grihastha. When the Brahmachārin has completed his studies, if he feels called to the religious life and his heart is estranged from the world, nothing

can more conduce to his welfare than the endeavour to attain eternal bliss, but if he has no such vocation, he should seek the consent of his teacher and, having obtained permission, return to his father's house. He then puts away all but his sacred thread, but continues the oblations and some other ceremonies, the number of the oblations being the same as during his period of pupilage as Brahmacharin. If he be a Brāhman, he wears a turban, and a sheet eight cubits in length and two in breadth is put on in the fashion of a loincloth, one end being passed between his legs and fastened behind to the waist-piece, and the other end brought forward and tied similarly in front. Another sheet, five cubits long and two broad, is worn over the shoulders, and this may have a suture. A householder of other castes wears different garments. He now marries in the manner that shall be presently described.

The householder repeats certain prayers and thus performs the Homa sacrifice. He takes in his hand a stick of pipal or palās wood, a span in length and burns it in the Homa fire. Another stick of the same kind is taken and passed into the fire and reserved, and when the next Homa takes place, this stick is burnt and another like the first is scorched and reserved, and this is continued till the time of the Agni-hotra.5 This is a special kind of Homa or oblation. A pipal stick is set alight by means of two other sticks and a cord forcibly worked by the hand, and the fire is placed in three round earthen vessels. The figure of a tortoise is then made of a ser and-a-quarter of rice-flour, and the three portions are cooked in one lump and dressed with oil, and part of this is thrown into the three fires as an oblation to the deities. and the remainder is given to Brahmans. One of the three portions of the sacrificial fire is reserved, and throughout his whole life,

This is a Vedic oblation to Agni, chiefly of milk, oil and sour gruel; there are two kinds, nitya, or of constant obligation, and kämyä, or optional.

the daily *Homa* oblation is made with that fire; the oblations cast into the fire in the name of the deities consist of any barley, rice, clarified butter, milk, wheat, that may be available, and once every fifteen days in the first degree of the moon's course he carries out the ceremony as before. The ceremony of the *Agni-hotra* may not take place till the period has elapsed between the fourth day after his marriage and that on which the bride leaves her father's house (to join her husband). With the exception of the Sudra and the *Miechchha*, the rest of the people come generally under this second denomination. Four *gharis* before day-break, the householder awakes and passes some little time on his bed in prayer. He divides his day into eight portions, thus profitably employing his time.

First, when the rays of the sun appear, he refreshes his sight with its lustre, and next by looking upon fire, water, gold, a just prince, a Brāhman, a cow, and clarified butter. If none of these eight be present, he must look upon the palms of his hands, and proceed to wash his mouth and perform the Sandhyā ceremonies. The second portion of his time he must employ in study and occupy himself in the interpretation of the Vedas [P. 157] and other branches of knowledge. The third he spends in attendance on his prince, and engages in state affairs. The fourth is occupied with his own household. The fifth, which is about the entry of noon, he spends in ablutions and the Sandhyā ceremonies, and taking up water in both hands, offers it to the deities, the great Rishis and (the manes of) his ancestors, and repeats certain prayers. This libation is called tarpana. During the sixth, he prays to Vishnu, Mahādeva, the Sun, Durga, and Ganesa. This is called Deva-pujā, or worship of the gods, as will be more fully described hereafter. In the seventh,

This is the true interpretation of the sentence, as I learn from a Brāhman pandit. Abul Fazl's language is terse to obscurity without a knowledge of the subjects he treats of. The Agni-hotra ceremony cannot be performed till after marriage, and the presence of the wife is a necessary part of it.

he casts into the fire some of his food as an offering to the gods, and makes the Homa sacrifice. Next follows the Atithipuiā (or the religious reception of a guest). He waits expectantly for any hungry person, and when he meets him, treats him with respect and satisfies his need, after which he himself eats, and this act is called the Vaisvadeva-pujā (or offering to all deities). A Brahman obtains his food in the following way. When the husbandman has reaped his field and the poor have gleaned their fill, the Brahman then follows in quest, and takes what he can find, and if he does not feel content with this, he may receive from his own people; and if this is insufficient, he may accept whatever is given to him without solicitation by another Brahman, a Kshatriya, or a Vaisya. If this is not his choice, he may beg; and if he will not submit to this, he may cultivate land. Trade is considered more objectionable. A Brahman should not keep more than twelve days' supply of food, but to others an abundance is permitted, as has been explained. In the eighth, he listens to the recital of the lives of former holy men and performs the ceremonies of the Homa and Sandhyā. If he is hungry, he takes his meal. He then occupies himself till the first watch of the night, in studying works of philosophy and reading the lives of ancient sages, after which he goes to rest. Such are the means by which he profitably employs his day and night. Other ceremonies performed during times of eclipse and festivals, are numerous. Those practised by the Kshatriyas and Vaisyas who follow their special occupations, are fewer as shall be presently described.

The third period is that of the Vānaprastha or anchorite, a name given also to the person so engaged. This is forbidden to a Sudra.

When one (of the other castes) arrives at old age, or has a grandson, he may wisely give up the management of his household to his son or to a relation, abandon worldly concerns, and leaving the city, retire into the desert. He

may there build himself a hermitage, and putting away the outward pleasures of sense, practise mortification of his body in preparation for his last journey. If his wife, through affection, desire to accompany him, he may suffer it and not deny her, but he must resist all carnal inclinations. Here he preserves the sacred fire of his daily sacrifice and clothes himself with the leaves of trees or with skins, and he may wear [158] a coarse loin-cloth. He should never cut his hair or his nails and morning, noon, and evening he should perform the prescribed ablutions and the Sandhyā. Like the Grihastha, he should perform the Homa sacrifice morning and evening, but his ablutions are three times more numerous, in as much as he performs them ten times to the other's three. He must always keep his head bowed down and follow the instructions given in the Patanjala system and carefully control the emotions of the spirit. He should employ his time in reading the Vedas, sleep only at night, and lie on the bare ground. During the four months of the hot season he sits between five fires, lighting four about him, and having the sun burning over head. During the four months of the rains he should live upon a stage sustained by four poles, so that he may not be in danger from a flood nor injure minute animals by his movements, nor must he protect himself from the weather. During the four months of the cold season, he should pass the night sitting in cold water. He should always observe the Chandrayana fast and eat only at night. He is permitted to keep a store of food sufficient for a year and should accept nothing from others, living on grain and gathering wild fruits that have fallen. He eats nothing that is cooked, but he may moisten his food. If he can obtain naught else, he may beg of other anchorites, and failing them, he may go into the town to seek the necessaries of life but he must not remain there.

If he is unable to live in this manner, he abandons all sustenance and journeys onwards to the east or north till his

bodily powers are exhausted, or he throws himself into fire or water in self-destruction, or casts himself down from a precipice and thus ends his life. They consider that heaven is the reward of this course and final liberation is dependent on the profession of asceticism. What is understood by some as mukti, or final liberation, is, that in a former birth, this stage of abandonment of the world had been attained.

The fourth period is Sannyāsa, which is an extraordinary state of austerity that nothing can surpass, and which when duly carried out is rewarded by final liberation. Such a person His Majesty calls Sannyāsi.

After the completion of the third stage, and the habit of self-denial in all sensual pleasures is acquired, the disciple first obtains the permission of his teacher and then guits his wife, shaves his head, beard, and the hair of his face and abandons all worldly concerns. His teacher presents him with a loin-cloth and some covering and accepts a trifle in return. He does not occupy himself with reading, but applies himself entirely to spiritual contemplation. He passes his life alone in the wilds, performs his ablutions morning, noon, and evening, and is scrupulous in self-purification and practises the duties described in the Patanjala system, carrying them out after his own method. He performs the Sandhyā and then repeats from one to twelve thousand times the word Om, which is the beginning of the Vedas. At the fourth ghari before the close of day, he goes into the city, and repeats the name of God, begging at three, five, or seven houses of Brahmans, but does not take more than a handful of food [159] from each. If they put it into his hand he straightway eats it, or if they throw it on the ground, he takes it up with his mouth or gathers it in a cloth and eats it after cleansing it in a stream. He then retires to a place where there is no sign of the cooking of food or lighting of a fire.

⁷ The term Sannyāsin was applied many centuries before his Majesty was born.

He avoids a Sudra or a Mlechchha and if he is not quickly supplied with food, he does not wait. After eating he directs his eyes to the tip of his nose or to his brow and passes a brief space in meditation. He walks with his head and feet bare and does not remain in any one place. If he is compelled to pass through a city or village, he does not remain in the former more than three days nor in the latter more than one. In the rains he abides in one spot and thus is his life passed. Some adopt the course of religious abandonment both during the first and second periods.

Some say that the first period extends to twenty-five years, and the same is allowed for the three other periods. The second is lawful to all the four castes; the first and third to all but Sudras, but the fourth is exclusively for Brahmans.

WORSHIP OF THE DEITY

The Hindu sages declare that whoever seeks to do the will of God, must devote certain works exclusively to purposes of worship and the first six of the nine schools already alluded to, comprise this under four heads.

The First is-

SVARA-PUJA,

or

Divine Worship.

Since according to their belief, the Supreme Deity can assume an elemental form without defiling the skirt of the robe of omnipotence, they first make various idols of gold and other substances to represent this ideal and gradually withdrawing the mind from this material worship, they become meditatively absorbed in the ocean of His mysterious Being. Sixteen ceremonies conduce to this end. After the performance of the Homa and Sandhyā obligations, the devotee sits

down facing the east or north, and taking up a little rice and water sprinkles (the idol) with the intention of beginning the worship of God. Then follows the Kalasa-pujā or pitcherworship. The water of the pitcher which is required for the ceremony is venerated after a special manner.4 He next performs the Sankha--pujā, wherein the white shell is venerated which is filled with water to be poured over the idol. Next follows the Ghanta-puja, in which the gong is plastered with sandalwood unguent and worshipped. When these are concluded. he sprinkles a little rice with the intention of soliciting the manifestation of the deity. Such is the first of the sixteen ceremonies. (2) The intention is made that the prayer of the supplicant may be accepted. A throne of metal or other [P. 160] substance is placed as a seat for the deity. (3) He pours water into a vessel that he may wash his feet when he comes, it being the custom of the country to wash the feet of superiors when they enter a house. (4) He throws down water thrice on the ground to represent the rinsing of the mouth by that mystical being, as it is also a custom of this country among the more refined classes to offer this service to a superior before meal-time. (5) Sandal, flowers, betel, and rice are thrown into water and thus offered. (6) The idol is lifted up with its seat and carried to another place. With the right hand a white conch-shell is held while with the left a gong is struck and the water is poured over the idol which is then washed. (7) The idol is then dried with a cloth and placed upon its throne and it is dressed in such costly robes as circumstances can furnish. (8) It is then invested with the sacred string. (9) The sectarial mark is next made in twelve places with sandal. (10) Flowers or leaves are then strewn over it. (11) It is fumigated with perfumes. (12) A lamp is lit with clarified butter. (13) Food according to ability is then

^{*} A twig of each of the following sacred trees: Ficus religiosa, Ficus indica, Ficus glomerata, Mimosa albida and the Mangifera Indica are placed in the pitcher of water as an oblation.

placed on a table before the idol, which is then distributed to people as the idol's leavings. (14) Is the Namas-kāra which is a posture of supplication. He repeats the praises of God with heart and tongue and falls prostrate with his whole body like a staff. This prostration is called danda-vat (staff-like); he so prostrates himself that eight of his limbs touch the earth,—the two knees, the two hands, the forehead, the nose, and the right and left cheeks. This is called Sāshtāngā, (eight members). Many perform one of these two obeisances in supplication before the great. (15) Circumambulating the idol several times. (16) Standing like a slave before it, and taking leave.

In each of these ceremonies, prayers are repeated and particular acts are performed. Some consider only five of these ceremonies from the 7th to the 13th, as imperative, others practice more; except a Sudra and a Sannyāsin, all others perform this worship thrice daily.

Worship is of six kinds: (1) In the heart. (2) Making the sun a means of divine adoration. (3) Causing fire to serve the purpose of spiritual recollection. (4) Worshipping in presence of water. (5) Cleaning a spot of ground as a place for worship. (6) Making an idol a representative object of prayer. They also make images of those who have attained to God and account their veneration as a means of salvation.

The Second kind is-

YAJNA,"

OT

Sacrifice.

By this the favour of the deities is obtained and it becomes the means [P. 161] of securing the blessing of God. The

[&]quot;For the Hindu yajna, Hastings Encyclop. ii 800-801, xii. 611-618, iv. 770-771, v. 13-16, and ii. 160. Jag is the popular Hindi form of the Sanskrit yajna.

term Jag is also used. Paka-yajna (simple or domestic sacrifice) is making the Homa in the name of the deities and bestowing charity before taking food. This is variously performed. Japa-yajna is the muttering of incantations and the names of God. These two, like the first, are of daily practice. Vidhi-uaing or ceremonial act of worship is of numerous kinds, in each of which important conditions are prescribed, large sums of money expended and many animals sacrificed. One of these is the Asvamedha. or horse-sacrifice. which is performed by sovereign princes. When its necessary preparations are completed, a white horse having the right ear black, is brought out and consecrated by certain incantations, and (being turned loose) it is followed in its march by an army for conquest which in a short time subdues the world and the king of every territory (which it enters) tenders submission and joins the victorious forces. They pretend that whoever performs this sacrifice a hundred times, becomes lord of heaven. Many are said to have attained this rank and marvellous legends are told of them. If he cannot perform that number he obtains an eminent place in that region.10 Another is the Raja-suya-yajna, one of the conditions attached to which is the presence of all the princes of the world at the great festival, each of whom is appointed to a particular duty, and the service at the banquet can be performed only by them. Whoever has twice inaugurated this ceremony becomes lord of heaven, and many (are said) to have obtained this happiness. There are manifold kinds of these sacrifices, but the two herein mentioned must suffice.

After the return of the king, if successful, with the vanquished princes in his train, the horse was sometimes immolated, after the festival of rejoicing. Failure in conquest was followed by contempt and ridicule of overweening pretension. The antiquity of this sacrifice goes back to Vedic times. Albiruni briefly describes it in Chap. LXV. Asvamedha in Hastings, ii, 160.

The Third kind is-

DANA.

or

Alms giving.

There are numerous forms of this meritorious precept and various are the modes by which the provision for man's last journey is secured. The following sixteen are accounted the most important:—

(1) Tula-dana or the weighing of the person against gold, silver and other valuables. (2) Hiranyagarbha-dana: an idol of Brahma is fashioned of gold, having four faces in each of which are two eyes, two ears, a mouth and nose. It must have four hands, and the rest of the members are after the form of men. It must be 72 fingers high and 48 in breadth. Its weight may vary between a minimum of 33 tolahs and 4 māshas and a maximum of 3,410 tolahs. It is decked with jewels, and incantations are pronounced over it. (3) Brahmānda-dāna, or alms of the egg of Brahmā. An egg is made of gold in two parts which when joined together have an oval shape. Its weight varies between a minimum of 66 tolahs and 7 māshas and a maximum of 3.633 tolahs and 4 māshas. [162] Its length and breadth may not be less than twelve fingers nor greater than one hundred. (4) Kalpa-tarudana. This is the name of a tree 11 (taru) which is one of the fourteen treasures brought out of the sea, as will be related. A similar tree is made of gold, and birds are represented sitting on its branches. It should weigh not less than 12 tolahs, and the maximum weight as above. (5) Go-sahasradana, is the alms of a thousand cows with one bull, having the tips of their horns, according to ability, plated with gold or silver and their humps covered with copper, with bells and tassels of yak's hair round their necks, and pearls in the tails.

¹¹ Of Indra's paradise, granting all desires. Dana, Hastings, iii. 387-389 (under Charity).

(6) Hiranya-kāmadhenu-dān.12 A golden cow and calf are made: they may be of three kinds: the first weighs 3.410 tolas: the second, the half of this weight, and the third weighs onefourth. (7) Hiranyāsva-dāna. A golden horse is fashioned weighing from ten tolahs to 3,633 tolahs and four mashas. (8) Hiranyasva-ratha. A chariot of gold of the first of the above-mentioned weights is made with four wheels and from four to eight horses weighing from ten to 6,606 tolahs and eight māshas. (9) Hemahasti-ratha-dāna is an alms of a chariot of gold drawn by four elephants. Its weight is from sixteen tolahs and eight māshas to the maximum aforesaid. (10) Pancha-längala-däna is a gift of five ploughs of gold of the above weight. (11) Dhara-dana, is a figure of the surface of the earth made of gold, upon which are represented mountains, woods and seas, weighing not less than sixteen tolahs, eight māshas, and not more than 3,633 tolahs. (12) Visva-chakra-dāna. A complete radiate of eight petals is made of gold representing the entire dome of the heavens, and is of four weights, viz. 3,333 tolahs, four mashus: half of the above: one-fourth: 66 tolahs, 8 māshas. (13) Kalpalatadana is in the shape of a creeper. [P. 163] Ten tendrils are made of gold, weighing from sixteen to 3,330 toluhs, four māshas. (14) Sapta-sāgara-dāna. The seven seus are represented in gold weighing not less than twenty-three tolahs, four māshas, and not more than the weight above given. The length and breadth of each of these are twenty-one fingers, or the half thereof. The first sea is filled with salt; the second, with milk: the third, with clarified butter: the fourth, with molasses; the fifth, with butter-milk; the sixth, with sugar; the seventh with Ganges-water. (15) Ratna-dhenu-dāna, the

ing all that is desired. For Hiranya-garbha. See p. 163.

13 Mahā-bhuta signifies a 'huge creature' and 'ghata' is the frontal sinus of an elephant. Ganesa was the son of Siva and Pārvati and is invoked at the beginning of undertakings as removing

Thenu is a milch-sow, or a cow that has calved. Kāmathenu is the cow of plenty; belonging to the sage Vasishtha, yielding all that is desired. For Hiranua-garbha. See p. 163

representation of a cow with a calf made up of jewels. (16) Mahābhuta-ghata-dāna, is a representation in gold of the figure of a man surmounted by the head of an elephant, which is called Ganesa. Its weight is from sixteen tolahs, eight māshas to 3,330 tolas, four māshas.

In some works the first or Tulā-dāna, the weight whereof should be not less than 106 tolahs, eight māshas, nor more than 833 tolahs, four māshas, is alone given, and the remaining forms are omitted. There is also some difference of opinion regarding the distribution. Some give only to the Achārya or teacher who shares the alms with others, while some bestow it also upon other Brāhmans.

For each of these forms of charity, there are various injunctions. Although no distinct season is fixed, they are regarded as of more efficacy in times of eclipse and when the sun enters Capricorn and on some other occasions. Strange legends are told of them and of their results, as for instance regarding the first kind, if the giver weighs himself against gold, he will remain in paradise for a thousand million kalpas and advance from degree to degree of beatitude, and when he re-assumes human form will become a mighty monarch.

The Fourth kind is-

SRADDHA.

or

Ceremonies in honour of deceased ancestors.

The charity is given in the name of deceased ancestors and is of various kinds, but four are specially observed:

(1) On the day of decease and its anniversary. (2) On the first day of the first quarter of the new moon. (3) On the sixteenth lunar day of the month of Kuar. (Sept.-Oct.).

obstacles. He is represented as a short pot-bellied man frequently mounted on a rat or attended by one, and to denote his sagacity, has the head of an elephant, with, however, but one tusk.—Monier Williams.

(4) Bestowing charity in a place of worship in the name of the deceased.

[164] The manner of performing it is to bestow money and gifts in kind, dressed and undressed, on Brāhmans in the name of father, grandfather and great grandfather including their wives, and in the same way on the three directly ascending male ancestors of the mother and their wives. All four castes may perform this ceremony.

When these four duties of worship, sacrifice, alms-giving and commemoration of the deceased, as now described, are performed, the worship of God is accounted to be perfectly carried out, and without them it is not effected.

AVATARAS.

or

Incarnations of the Deity.14

They believe that the Supreme Being in the wisdom of His counsel, assumes an elementary form of a special character for the good of the creation, and many of the wisest of the Hindus accept this doctrine. Such a complete incarnation is called *Purnāvatāra*, and that principle which in some created forms is scintillant with the rays of the divinity and bestows extraordinary powers is called *Ansāvatāra* or partial incarnation. These latter will not be here considered.

Of the first kind they say that in the whole four Yugas, ten manifestations will take place, and that nine have up to the present time appeared.

MATSYAVATARA,

or

Fish-Incarnation.

The Deity was herein manifested under the form of a fish. They say that in the Dravida country at the extremity

¹⁴ For the Avatārs, see Hastings, Encyclop. vii. 193-197 (by Jacobi).

of the Dekhan in the city of Bhadravati, during the Satua Yuga on the eleventh lunar day of the month of Phalguna (Feb.-March), Rājā Manu, having withdrawn himself from all worldly concerns, and being then ten hundred thousand years of age, lived in the practice of great austerities. He was performing his ablutions on the banks of the river Kritamala when a fish came into his hand and said "preserve me." It remained in his hand a day and night and as it increased in size, he put it into a cup, and when it grew larger, he placed it in a pitcher. When the latter could not contain it, he put it into a well and thence transferred it to a lake and afterwards to the Ganges. As the Ganges could not hold it, he gave it place in the ocean, and when it filled the ocean, the Raja recognised the origin of the miracle and worshipped it and prayed for a revelation. He heard the following answer: "I am the Supreme Being. I have assumed the form of this creature for thy salvation and that of a few of the elect. After seven days the world will be destroyed and a flood shall cover the earth. Get thou into a certain ark with a few of the righteous together with the divine books and choice medicinal herbs and fasten the ark to this horn which cometh out of me." The deluge continued one million, seven hundred and twenty-eight thousand years after which it subsided. 15

In The story is told in the Mahābhārata with reference to the Matsya Purāna as its authority which would imply that the poem is later than the Purāna, but according to Wilson, the great epic is much older than any extant Purāna. and the simplicity of the story in the Mahābhārata is of much more antique complexion than the extravagance of the actual Matsya Purāna. In the former. Manu collects the seeds of existing things in the ark, explained in the latter, as effected by the power of Yoga. In the latter, the great serpents come to serve as cords to fasten the ark to the horn of the fish; in the former, a cable of ropes is used. As the ark is borne on the waters, Manu enters into converse with the fish, and its replies which concern the creation, regal dynasties and the duties of the different orders, form the subject of the Purāna.—Wilson, V. P.

KURMAVATARA,

Or Tortoise-Incarnation.

In the Satya Yuga in the light half of the month of Kārttika (Oct.-Nov.), on the twelfth lunar day, the Creator manifested himself in the shape of a tortoise. They relate that the deities wished to obtain the water of immortality after the manner of butter by churning the ocean [165] of milk. Instead of a churning-stick, they used the largest of the mountains, Mandāra. From its excessive weight the mountain sank into the ocean, and great were their difficulties. The Deity assumed this shape and bore up the mountain on his back and the gods obtained their desire.

By this miraculous act, fourteen priceless objects were brought up from the sea: -(1). Lakshmi, the goddess of fortune, appeared as a bride and thus a source of happiness to all creatures was obtained. (2). Kaustabha-mani, or the wonderful jewel Kaustabha, of extraordinary lustre and in value beyond price. (3). Parijātaka-vriksha, the miraculous tree Parijataka" whose flowers never fade and whose fragrance fills the universe. Some say that it grants all desires. It is called also Kalpavriksha. (4). Sura, (the goddess of) wine. (5). Dhanvantari, the physician (of the gods) who could heal the sick and raise the dead to life. In his right hand, he held a leech and in his left (a branch of) the myrobalan tree. His Majesty considers that these two should be regarded separately and the number of treasures be accounted sixteen. (6). Chandra-mani, the (moon-gem or) world-illumining moon. (7). Kāma-dhenu; the miraculous cow which gave forth from her udders the gratification of every wish. (8). Airāvata, the white elephant (of Indra) with four tusks. (9). Sankha, the white conch-shell of wondrous sound that bestowed victory

[&]quot;The coral tree. Erythrina Indica, one of the five trees of Paradise.

on whomsoever possessed it. (10). Visha, deadly poison. (11). Amrita, the water of life. (12). Rambhā, 17 the nymph, beautiful and sweet-dispositioned. (13). Asva, the horse with eight heads. (14). Sārangadhanus, or the bow Sāranga of which the unerring arrow carried to any distance.

After producing these inestimable treasures, the tortoise descended into the earth and is believed still to exist.

VARAHAVATARA,

or

Boar-Incarnation.

In the Satya Yuga, on the day of the full moon in the month of Kārttika (Oct.-Nov.) in the city of Brahmāvarta near Nimishāra¹⁸ and Ayodhya, this manifestation took place. [P. 166] One of the Daityas named Hiranyāksha had passed a long period in the practice of austernies and the worship of God. One day the Deity appeared to him in visible form and asked him what he desired. Rejoiced at these gracious words, he enumerated many noxious animals and prayed for exemption from their injury and that he might be monarch of the whole universe. Shortly after he obtained his wishes, and dispossessing Indra of the sovereignty of heaven, committed its charge to one of his own kindred. The deities and Brahmā

of Lakshmi, and popularly accepted as a type of female beauty. The order and number of these ocean treasures varies in different accounts. See the Vishnu Puruna on the churning of the ocean. I. IX.

Or Naimisha from S nimisha, a twinkling; the name of a forest and shrine, celebrated as the residence of certain Rishis to whom Sauti related the Mahābhārata. The district was so-called because the sage Gaura-mukha destroyed an army of Asuras in a twinkling. Monier Williams, who refers to the Mahābh. Adi., p. 7275, Vana, p. 6079. It is called Nimkhār in the 1. G., a town in the Sitapur Dist., Oudh, on the left bank of the Gumti, 20 miles from Sitapur town. Lat. 27° 20′ 55″ N. and long. 80° 31′ 40″. It is described as a place of great sanctity with numerous tanks and temples. In one of the tanks, Rāma is said to have washed away his sin of slaying a Brāhman in the person of Rāvana, the ravisher of Sità.

hastened to Vishnu and besought his aid. As in the request for exemption the name of the boar had been omitted, they received this answer, "I will manifest myself under that form and deprive him of life."

Soon afterwards, Vishnu took this shape and entering his capital, destroyed him. This is pointed out as having taken place at Soron.¹⁹ The earth was again peopled with the virtuous and Indra recovered his sovereignty of the world above.

The period of this manifestation was a thousand years.

NARA-SINHA,

or

Man-Lion-Incarnation.

This was a form from the head to the waist like a lion and the lower parts resembling a man, and was manifested in the Satya Yuga on the fourteenth of the light half of the month of Vaisākha (April-May), in the city of Hiranyapura now commonly called Hindaun²⁰ near the metropolis of Agra. They say that Hiranyakasipu of the Daitya race spent many long years in a life of austerity until the Deity appeared to him and asked his desire. His first prayer was that his death might not take place by night nor by day, and next, he begged protection against all noxious animals which he severally named, and lastly, that he might obtain sovereignty over the realms above and below. His request was granted. The deities yielded submission to him and the world was filled with the unrighteous. The chief spirits implored aid of Vishnu through Brahmā and their prayer was heard. It is

on the old route from Agra to Mhow, 71 miles S. W. of the former.

according to the I. G. and was originally known as Ukala-Kshetra, but after the destruction of Hiranyāksha, the name was changed to Sukara-Kshetra (beneficent-region). Devout Hindus after visiting Mathurā, go on to Soron to bathe in the Barhgangā which is here lined with handsome temples and ghāts.

said that Hiranyakasipu had a son called Prahlada who, like the deities, worshipped the Supreme God and followed the path of truth in spite of his father, who though he subjected his son to much persecution, was unable to turn him from that course. One evening his father asked him where the Supreme Being dwelt. He replied that he was omnipresent and to explain his meaning, pointed to a pillar in which also he declared the Deity to be. The king in folly smote it with his sword, and by a miracle from heaven, the above form came forth from it and tore him to pieces at the interval of time between night and day, and his death was caused by an animal of a specially-created type. It is said that this divine form asked Prahlada to choose some boon. The greatsouled youth prayed only for final liberation (fivan-mukti), [167] which is eternal life freed from the defilement of corporal existence and from the bonds of joy and sorrow. This manifestation continued one hundred years.21

VAMANA,

or

Dwarf-Incarnation.

In the Treta Yuga, on the twelfth day of the light half of the month of Bhadrapada (H. Bhadon, Aug-Sept.) in the city of Sonbhadra on the banks of the Narbada, this new manifestation was born of Aditi in the house of Kasyapa, the son of Marichi, the son of the legendary Brahma. This incarnation continued a thousand years. Bali of the Daitya race underwent an austere penance to obtain the sovereignty of the three worlds. The Bountiful Giver of all desires revealed himself and granted his wish and Bali thus obtained a mighty dominion. Having subdued the throned princes of the gods, he left them in possession of their principalities.

²¹ Four chapters of the Vishnu Purāna, from the 17th to the 21st, are taken up with the history of the legend. The story is told in detail only in the Bhāgavata Purāna.

He performed many sacrifices, but neglected to present to the deities their customary offerings. The latter, through the intercession of Brahma, implored Vishnu to dethrone him who comforted them by revealing the issue of events. In the same year this moon-orb displayed its radiance, and when the child grew in wisdom, in conformity with rule and custom he was placed under the tuition of the sage Bharadwaja. With his preceptor he attended the sacrifice which the king had inaugurated at Kurukshetra, and after the royal custom. Bali asked him what boon he desired. He replied, "I ask of thee as much ground as I can cover with three steps." The king in amazement rejoined, "Is so slight a gift craved of a monarch so illustrious and powerful?" When at last, after some debate he consented, the first step was so great that it covered the earth and the lower regions. The second measured the extent of the celestial world. The Raja delivered himself up in bonds in commutation of the third step. On account of the natural goodness of the Raja's disposition, after depriving him of his universal sovereignty, he conceded to him the rule of the nether world.

PARASURAMAVATAKA,

Of

Incarnation of Rama with the axe,

In the house of Jamadagni a Brāhman, and of his wife Renukā, during the *Tretā Yuga*, on the third day of the light half of the month of *Vaisākha*, in the village of Rankatta near Agra, this human form was born.

Karttavirya of the Daitya²² race, who had neither hands nor feet, was at that time on the throne. In great affliction

of the Haihaya tribe, descendants of Yadu from the twelfth prince of the lunar line. Of this tribe there were five great divisions, the Tālojanghas, Vitihotras, Avantyas, Tundikeras and Jātas They dwelt in Central India. The capital of the first named was Māhishmati or Chuli Maheswar, still called, according to Col. Todd

on account of his misfortune, he abandoned the world and retired to the Kailasa mountain to undergo penance. Mahadeva vouchsafing his favour, gave him a thousand arms and at his prayer bestowed on him the sovereignty of the three worlds. But he oppressed the deities for which reason they implored his destruction, and their supplication was heard. They say that lamadagni was descended from Mahadeva and Renukā from Aditi mother of the deities (4 dityas). She had five sons, the fifth being Parasurama. He was [168] instructed by Mahadeva in the Kailasa mountain, and Jamadagni his father worshipped in the desert. Karttavirya was one day engaged in the pastime of hunting and he happened to pass by the hermitage of Jamadagni and sought there to satisfy his hunger and thirst. The hermit brought forth food and drink, besides jewels and valuable presents befitting a monarch. The king was amazed and refused to touch them till he was informed concerning their possession. He replied that Indra, the ruler of the celestial regions, had bestowed upon him the cow Kāmadhenu which supplied him with all that he required. The king, seized with avarice, demanded the cow. He answered that he could not comply with his request without the sanction of Indra, and that no earthly power could take possession of it. The king enraged determined to use force, but notwithstanding all the troops he could collect and his hostile attempts, he could not prevail. At length one

Sahasra-bāhu ki basti, 'village of the thousand aimed,' i.e., of Kārttavirya. (Rajāsthān, l. 39, n.). These tribes must have preceded the Rājput tribes by whom their country, Mālwa, Ujjain and the valley of the Narbadā, is now occupied. A remnant of the Haihaya still exists at the top of the valley of Sohāgpur in Bagel-khand, aware of their ancient lineage and celebrated for their valour. Their predatory connection with the Sakas, suggests their Scythian origin, which the word Haya, meaning in Sansk. a horse, is supposed to confirm, perhaps from their nomadic habits implied in the Homeiic name, Hippemolgi. Wilson hints their connection with the Huns. See his notes to Book, IV, Chapters III and XI, V. P. The Kailāsa mountain, the fabled Paradise of Siva is placed by the Hindus, north of the Mānasa lake and regarded as one of the loftiest peaks of the Himalayas. Vide Vol. II, 313, n 2.

night he came secretly and slew lamadagni, but found no trace of the cow. Renukā sent for her son Parasurāma. and performing the funeral ceremonies of the deceased, burnt herself according to the custom of her people and laid upon her son the injunction to avenge her. Parasurama, endued with miraculous power, set out to engage the king, and twenty pitched battles took place. In the last, the king was slain and the deities recovered their sovereignty. He then collected the wealth of the universe and bestowed it in alms at a sacrificial ceremony, and then abandoning the world, retired to the obscurity of a solitude.23

He is still believed to be living and his habitation is pointed out in the mountain Mahendra of the Konkan.

RAMAVATARA.

or

Rāma-Incarnation

They relate that Ravana one of the Rakshasas two generations in descent from Brahmā,24 had ten heads and twenty hands. He underwent austerities for a period of ten thousand vears in the Kailasa mountain and devoted his heads. one after another in this penance in the hope of obtaining the sovereignty of the three worlds. The Deity appeared to him and granted his prayer. The gods were afflicted by his rule and as in the former instances, solicited his dethronement which was vouchsafed, and Rāma was appointed to accomplish this end. He was accordingly born during the Treta Yuga on the ninth of the light half of the month of Chaitra

²³ This fable is taken from the Mahabharata and inserted in the 7th Chapter, Book IV, of the Vishnu Purana. In this, Rama uses his axe to cut off his mother's head at the command of his father. who restored her again to life at his son's request. The sons of Karttavirya are there said to revenge the death of their father by slaying Jamadagni in Rāma's absence.

24 He was the son of Visravas, son of Pulastya, son of Brahmā.

(March-April) in the city of Ayodhya, of Kausalya wife of Rājā Dasaratha. At the first dawn of intelligence, he acquired much learning and withdrawing from all worldly pursuits, set out journeying through wilds and gave a fresh beauty to his life by visiting holy shrines. He hecame lord of the earth and slew Rāvana. He ruled for eleven thousand years and introduced just laws of administration.²⁵

KRISHNAVATARA,

or

Incarnation as Krishna.

More than four thousand years ago, Ugrasena of the Yadu race bore sway in his capital of Mathura. His son Kansa rebelled and dethroning his father ruled with a persecuting hand, while at the same time larasandha, Sisupala and other princes of the Daityas exercised unbounded tyranny. IP. 1691 The afflicted earth assuming the form of a cow. hastened with Brahmā to Vishnu and implored their destruction. The prayer was granted and the divine commission was entrusted to Krishna. They say that the astrologers foretold to Kansa that a child would shortly be born and that his reign would be at an end. He thereupon ordered the slaughter of all infants and thus each year the blood of many innocent children was shed until his sister Devaki married Vasudevaof the Yadu race. Now Kansa heard a report that Devaki's eighth son would be the cause of his death. He therefore confined them both in prison and put to death every son that was born to them. In the beginning of the Kali Yuga, on the eighth lunar day of the dark half of the month of Bhadrapada (Aug.-Sept.), in the city of Mathura near the metropolis

²³ The literature of the Rāmāyana in various languages is sufficiently well-known to dispense with a reference to the details of this Avatāra. For the Rāmāyana, see Hastings, Encyclo. x. 574-578 and Winternitz, History of Indian Literature.

of Agra, the child was born while the guards were negligent. The fetters fell off and the doors were opened and the child spoke thus. "On the other side of the Jamuna, a girl has even now been born in the house of the cowherd Nanda, and the family are asleep. Take and leave me there and bring the girl hither." As Vasudeva set out to fulfill this injunction, the river became fordable and the command was obeyed. Krishna in his ninth year killed Kansa, released Ugrasena from prison and seated him on the throne. He also engaged the other tyrants and overthrew them.

He lived one hundred and twenty-five years and had 16,108 wives, each of whom gave birth to ten sons and one daughter, and each wife thought that she alone shared her husband's bed.

BUDDHAVATARA,

or Buddha-Incarnation.

He was born of Māya in the house of Rājā Sudhodhana of the race of Rāmachandra during the Kali Yuga, on the eighth of the light half of the month of Vaisākha in the city of Magadh.

They say that as many sacrifices were performed at this period and the number of animals sacrificed was very large, Vishnu willed to appear in human form to condemn the Vedic institutions and their sacrificial rites. For this reason he became incarnate in that year and lived to the age of a hundred. Some account of him has already preceded.

KALKYAVATARA.

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Kalki-Incarnation.

At the close of the Kali Yuga, in the tenth of the light half of the month of Vaisākha, this birth will take place in the family of the Brahman Vishnuyasas from the womb of his wife Yasovati in the town of Sambhala.26

They say that a time will come when a just prince will not be left upon the earth, iniquity will abound, grain become excessively dear, and [P. 170] the age of men will become shortened so that they will not live beyond thirty years, and deaths will be rife. For the remedy of these disorders, the Deity will become incarnate and renew the world in righteousness.

Some add fourteen other Avatāras, making them twenty-four, and have written works on the histories of each, relating many extraordinary legends.

Many men fashion images of these Avatāras in silver and gold and worship them, but the Jainas and Buddhas do not believe in the complete incarnations (Purnavatāras).

Unclean Things.

These are,—wine, blood, semen, excrement, urine, excretions from the mouth, nose, ears and eyes, sweat, hair, detached nails, bones of animals whose flesh is forbidden, a woman in her courses, and one newly delivered during the period hereinafter stated, any dead animal, forbidden food, a sweeper, an ass, a dog, (tame) swine, the dust that rises from off an ass, goat, sheep or broom, and the mud shaken out of a garment, a sinner guilty of the five great sins, or whoever touches such, a crow, a (tame domestic) cock. a mouse, a eunuch, the smoke from a burnt corpse, a washerman, a hunter, a fisherman, a gamester, a spirit-seller, an executioner, a tanner, a dyer, a currier, and an oilman.

See Vol. II. He is to appear on a white horse with a flashing sword for the final destruction of Mlechchhas and those that love iniquity, and to re-establish righteousness. The similarity of the idea and expression to the Apocalyptic vision of the white horse and its rider will readily occur to mind and the analogy between some of these manifestations and certain scenes in the New Testament has often been observed, and is not the result of accident.

PURIFIERS.

Knowledge, austerity, suspension of breath (prānāyāma), religious exercises of the Sandhyā, sun-light, moon-light, fire, water, air, earth, ashes, mustard-seed, wild produce of the earth, shade of a tree, the back and legs of a cow, a plough, a broom, sour things, salt-water, mouth of a horse or goat, eating certain food, the lapse of time, milk, butter-milk, clarified butter, and the dung and urine of a cow.

STATE OF PURIFICATION.37

Knowledge and austerity purify the soul. When the inward person is unclean by improper food, it is purified by suppression of breath and the wild produce of the earth: a drunkard by molten glass. When the body is defiled by ordure, wine, blood and the like, it becomes pure by cleansing below the navel with earth and water, and above it with earth and water, rinsing the teeth, washing the eyes, bathing, abstaining for a day and a night from food and drink, and afterwards eating five things from a cow. A pathway or water that has been polluted by the shadow of a Chandāl (pariah) is again purified by sunlight, moonlight, and air. If the ordure of any animal falls into a well, sixty pitchers full of water must be taken out; if into a tank, a hundred pitchers;

28 Milk, buttermilk, ghee, dung of a cow and its urine, [Sanskr.

pancha gavya.]

and food, vi. 63-65. Prohibitions and permissions in regard to food and ceremonial purification are treated in the V. Lecture of Manu's Ordinances. Albiruni says that he was informed by Hindus that before the time of Bhārata, the meat of cows was permitted, and cows were killed at certain sacrifices and that the reason of the prohibition was their unwholesomeness as food. In a hot climate the inner parts of the body are cold, the natural warmth is feeble and the digestion is so weak, that it has to be strengthened by chewing the betel-nut. The betel inflames the bodily heat, the chalk in the betel leaves dries up everything wet, and the betel-nut acts as an astringent on the teeth, gums and stomach. Hence cow's meat was forbidden as it is essentially thick and cold. II. Chapter 58.

any part of a river, is purified by its own flow. From oil that is defiled, the contaminating matter is taken out and the oil is boiled. Milk cannot be purified except only when the shadow of a Chandal may have fallen upon it, in which case it becomes pure by boiling. Cotton, leaves, molasses, grain become pure by the sprinking of a little water after removing the defilement. Gold, silver, stone, vegetable produce, rope and whatever grows beneath [P. 171] the earth and utensils of cane are purified by water, and if they have been defiled by unclean oil and the like, by hot water. Clothes are purified by water. Wooden vessels if defiled by the touch of a Chandal cannot be made pure, but if touched by a Sudra or any unclean thing, may be purified by scraping; and wood and bone and horn must be treated in the same manner. Anything made of stone after being washed must be buried for seven days. A sieve, a winnowing basket, a deer-skin, and the like, and a pestle-and-mortar, are purified by being sprinkled with water. A cart may be scraped in the part defiled and the rest dashed with water. An earthen vessel is purified by being heated in the fire; and the ground by one of the following: sweeping, lighting a fire thereon, ploughing, lapse of a considerable time, being touched by the feet or back of a cow, sprinkling with water, digging or plastering with cowdung. Food smelt by a cow or into which hair, flies or lice have fallen, is purified with ashes and water. If any thing is defiled by excretions from the mouth, nose, eyes, ears, or sweat, or touched by hair or nails detached from one's own body, it should be first washed, and then scoured with clean earth, and again washed until the smear and smell have gone. Excretions from the mouth, nose, ears, or eyes of another, if they come from above the navel, must if possible, be purified as above described, after which he must bathe: all below the navel, and the two hands are purified by cleansing in the same way. If he be defiled with spirituous liquor, semen, blood, catamenia, (the touch of) a lying-in woman,

ordure and urine, he must wash with water and scour with earth, and again wash with water if the defilement be above the navel; if it extend below, after the second washing, he must rub himself with butter from a cow and then with its milk, and afterwards with its butter-milk, and next smear himself with cowdung and wash in its urine, and finally drink three handfuls of water from the river. If he touch a washerman, or a dyer, or a currier, or an executioner, or a hunter, or a fisherman, or an oilman, or tame swine, he is purified by water only. But if he touch a woman in her courses or a lying-in woman, or a sweeper, or a great sinner, or a corpse, or a dog, or an ass, cat, crow, domestic cock, mouse or a eunuch, or the smoke of a burning corpse, or the dust from an ass, dog, goat or sheep reach him, he must enter the water in his clothes and bathe and look at the sun and pronounce incantations to it. After touching a greasy human bone, he must bathe with his clothes on or else wash himself and drink three handfuls of water and look at the sun and put his hand upon a cow. Where the sun is not visible, he must look upon fire. If silk or wool come in contact with any thing the touch of which (in a man) would require his bathing, it is purified by air and sunshine if it be not actually defiled, otherwise it must also be washed. A woman in her courses becomes pure after the fourth day.

If it is not known whether a thing be clean or unclean, they accept the decision of some virtuous person regarding it or sprinkle it with water. The details on this subject are numerous.

IMPROPER DRESS.

[172] A blue garment, unless it be of silk or wool, is improper for any caste except a Sudra, but a Brāhman's wife at night, and a Kshatriya woman as a bride or at a feast, may wear it, and a Vaisya woman must avoid it when perform-

ing the Srāddha or funeral rites. The women of all three castes may not wear it when cooking or eating.

PROHIBITED FOOD.

Human flesh, beef, horse-flesh, domestic cocks and hens. the parrot, the Sārika, the Mynah, the pigeon, the owl, the vulture, the chameleon, the bustard, the Saras (Ardea antigone), the Papiha and waterfowl, frogs, snakes, weasels and animals whose toes are joined (web-footed birds): animals that abide in towns, except the goat; the ruddy goose (Anas casarca), the pond-heron (Ardea torra), dried fish or flesh, five kinds of fish, viz.:—(1). The Rohu, (Cyprinus Rohita). (2). The Patthar Chata (Stone licker). (3). The Sankara (probably a skate the Raia Sonkar). (4). The Rajiva. (5) The Bārahi29: carnivorous animals, the camel, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the monkey, the various reptiles; all that produces intoxication, camel's milk, mare's milk, and the milk of all animals that divide not the hoof; goat's and ewe's milk, the milk of forest animals, woman's milk, milk from a cow in the first ten days after calving, milk of a cow whose calf has died, till she calves again; garlic, leeks, carrots, the Sebesten plum (Cordia Sebestena) the produce from unclean land, or food which a man's foot has touched or the hand of a woman in her courses; anything from the house of a courtesan, or a thief, or a carpenter, or a usurer, or a blacksmith, or a polisher, or a goldsmith, or a washerman, or a weaver, or a tanner, or a currier, or a singer or dancer, or an armourer, or

The last named, of which there are several variants, and the second and third, are not in Manu who mentions the pathina and simhatunda which together with the rājiva and rohu or rohita are declared to be lawjul, but the commentator Medha-tithi limits the two latter to use at sacrificial ceremonies. I do not find the Patthar-chata mentioned in Day's Fishes of India. Stone-licking is common to a good many if not to all. The Sankāra is perhaps, a skate, the Raia Sankur; Rājiva signifies streaked or striped, and is mentioned by Monier Williams as a fish whose spawn is said to be poisonous. I cannot identify it nor the following name Bārahi. The rhinoceros is a disputed animal, M. V. 16, n. 6.

a dog keeper, or a seller of spirits, or a physician, or a surgeon, or a hunter, or a eunuch; food set apart or the food of one who has committed the five great sins; food dressed for offerings to the deities, leavings of food of one in mourning during the period of mourning, food of an unchaste woman, cheese and the like that is made of milk, all food dressed with oil or water and left all night; whatever becomes sour from being left long; food in which hair or insects may have fallen; food eaten without the five ceremonies which are obligatory before meals, as will be now described.

These details are already numerous and what has been said must suffice.

CEREMONIES IN COOKING AND EATING.

Each time before cooking, if it be in the house, the floor and part of the wall should be plastered with cowdung and earth, and if it be in the woods, as much ground as will hold the materials and the cooking utensils. No one but the person who cooks may occupy the spot, and he must first bathe and put on a loin-cloth and cover his head and thus complete his meal. If a piece of paper or dirty rag or other such thing fall on the plastered space, the food is spoilt. He must bathe again and newly plaster the ground and provide fresh materials. The cook must be either the mistress of the family or a Brāhman whose special duty this may be, or a relation, or the master of the house himself. [173.]

Before eating, the place where they sit must be plastered in the same way, and they occupy it without spreading any covering on the ground, but a stool or a wooden board, bare as aforesaid, may be used.

"Curdled milk and all produced from it are expressly allowed.

V. 10.

³⁰ Slaying a Brāhman, drinking spirituous liquor, theft, adultery with the wife of a Guru are the four great crimes; associating with those who commit them is the fifth. Manu 1X, 235, and X, 55.

Next, the following five ceremonies are regarded as indispensable:—(1). Reading some portion of the Vedas.
(2). Sprinkling water as a libation to departed ancestors.
(3). Placing some food in front of the idol. (4). Throwing a little food on the ground in the name of the deities. (5). Giving some to the poor. First the children eat, then the relations satisfy themselves, after which the man himself partakes, but not out of the same dish with another even though it be a child. None but the cook may bring any provisions to the gathering. If by accident his hand touches any one, or he is touched by others, whatever food he holds in his hand at the time he must throw away, and bathing anew, bring fresh materials; unless the cook be a woman, for whom it will suffice to wash her hands and feet. The cook eats last of all. In drinking also, each person must have a separate vessel.

Formerly it was the custom for a Brāhman to eat at the house of a Brāhman or of a Kshātriya or of a Vaisya, and a Kshātriya might eat at any house but that of a Sudra; and a Vaisya in the same way; but in this cycle of Kali Yuga, each must take his meal in the house of his own caste. The utensils from which they eat are generally the leaves of trees, and fashioned of gold, silver, brass, and also of bell-metal, and they avoid the use of copper, earthenware, and stone vessels. They also consider it improper to eat from a broken dish or from the leaves of the bar or banyan tree (ficus Indica), the pipal, (ficus religiosa and the swallow-wort (Asclepeas gigantea).³² To eat twice either in the night or day is not approved.

These being sacred; the flowers of the Asclepeas are placed upon the idol Mahādeva. It secretes an acrid milky juice which flows from wounds in the shrub, and is applied to various medicinal purposes, and preparations of the plant are employed to cure all kinds of fits, epilepsy, hysterics, convulsions, poisonous bites. The flowers are large and beautiful, a mixture of rose and purple: there is also a white-flowered variety Roxburgh, Flora Indica.

RULES OF FASTING.

These are of numerous kinds, but a few will be men tioned.

The first kind is when they neither eat nor drink during the day and night, and twenty-nine of these days are obligatory during the year, viz., on the eleventh day of each lunar fortnight of every month; the Sivarātri; the fourteenth of the light half of the month of Vaisākha (April-May) in which the birth of the Nara-Sinha, or Man-lion took place; the third of the light half of the same month being the anniversary of the birth of Parasurāma; the ninth of the light half of the month of Chaitra (March-April), the nativity of Rāma; and the eighth of the dark half of the month of Bhādra-pada (Bhādon, Aug.-Sept.), the nativity of Krishna. On these occasions, some abstain from grain only, and other authorities lay down particular details.

The second kind. They eat only at night.

The third kind. They take only water, fruit and milk.

The fourth kind. They eat but once during the day and night, but may drink water at any time.

The fifth kind. They do not of their own desire eat during twenty-four hours, but if pressed to do so, they may partake of food not more than once.

The sixth kind is the Chandrayana, which is in five ways:—(1). On the first day of the month, one mouthful is taken and an increase of one mouthful made daily till the fifteenth, from which date it diminishes daily by the like quantity. [P. 174] (2). Or on the first of the month, fifteen mouthfuls are taken and the consumption daily diminishes till the fifteenth, when it is reduced to one mouthful; after which it again increases by one mouthful daily. (3). Some

so Siva's night, a popular festival in honour of Siva kept on the 14th of the dark half of the month of Mūgha (Jan.-Feb.). When Siva is worshipped under the type of the Linga, a rigorous fast is observed. Monier Williams. Hindu fasting, Hastings, Encyclop., v. 761, vii. 362.

say that instead of this, three mouthfuls, should be taken each half-day, and nothing else should be touched. (4). Or, again, eight mouthfuls each half-day, four in the morning and four in the evening. (5). Or two hundred and forty mouthfuls may be eaten (during the month) in any manner at will: The size of the mouthful should be that of a pea-hen's egg, and the faster should bathe regularly morning, noon, and evening.

The seventh kind. They neither eat nor drink for twelve days.

The eighth kind. Out of twelve days, they eat a little once daily for three days consecutively, and once at night only for three days; during three other days and nights they do not eat unless some one brings them food, and for the remaining three, they fast altogether.

The ninth kind. For three days and nights they eat no more than one handful, and for three other days the same allowance only at night. for three more days and nights if any food is brought to them, they may take one handful, and for three days and nights they eat nothing.

The tenth kind. For three days and nights, they swallow only warm water: for three other such periods only hot milk, and again for three days and nights hot clarified butter, and for three days and nights they light a fire and put the mouth against an opening by which the hot air enters, which they inhale.

The eleventh kind. Out of fifteen days, for three days and nights they eat only leaves, and for three days and nights only the ludian fig; for three days and nights they are content with the seeds of the lotus; for three days and nights, leaves of the pipal; for three days and nights, the kind of grass called dābha.³⁴

³¹ Or darbha, the name specially of the kusa-grass (Poa Cynosuroides) used at sacrificial ceremonies, but also applied to the Saccharum spontaneum and S. cylin dricum.

The twelfth kind. For six days out of the week they must content themselves with one of the following six consecutively, the produce of the cow:—(1). Urine. (2). Dung. (3). Milk. (4). Buttermilk. (5). Butter. (6). Water. On the seventh he must abstain from food altogether.

During every kind of fast they must abstain from meat, the pulse Adas, (Cicer lens), the bean Lobiyā, (Dolichos Sinensis), honey and molasses; they must sleep on the ground; they may not play at such games as chaupar and solah; nor approach their wives at night, nor anoint themselves with oil, nor shave, and the like, and they must give alms daily and perform other good works.

ENUMERATION OF SINS.

Although these exceed expression, and a volume could not contain them, they may be classed in seven degrees.

The first degree comprises five kinds which cannot be expiated.

(1). Killing a Brāhman. (2) Incest with the mother. (3). Drinking spirituous liquors by a Brāhman, Kshātriya or Vaisya; accounted no sin, however, in a Sudra. Some authorities name three kinds of spirits, viz., distilled from rice or other grain: from mahwā (Bassia Latifolia), and the like: from molasses and similar things. All three are forbidden to the Brāhman; the first-named only to the Kshātriya and the Vaisya. (4). Stealing ten māshas of gold. (5). Associating for one year with anyone guilty of these four.

The second degree. Untruth in regard to genealogy, carrying a slander to the king, and false accusation of a Guru, are equivalent to slaying a Brāhman.

³³ Both are games of hazard: the latter is also called solah-bagghu. The names are derivatives from the numerals four and sixteen respectively, chaupar having two transverse bars in the form of a cross drawn on the playing cloth, and the other played with a number of lines drawn on the ground.

Carnal connection with sisters by the same mother.36 with immature girls, with women of the lowest class, and the wives of curriers, painters, rope-dancers, fishermen and fowlers, and the wife of one's friend or son, is equivalent to the second great sin (of the first degree). [P. 175]

Forgetting the Vedas, or showing them contempt, false testimony (without a bad motive), killing a relation (without malice), and eating prohibited things, are equivalent to the third sin of the first degree.

Betraval of trust in regard to a deposit, and stealing a human creature, a horse, jewels, silver and land, are equivalent to stealing gold.

Third degree. Killing a cow, adultery with other than the above named women, theft of other things besides (gold). killing a woman. 37 a Kshatriya, a Vaisya or a Sudra (without malice), bewitching, oppression of others, exacting illegal imposts, procuring for immoral purposes, prostitution and making a livelihood thereby, described a teacher or father or mother, usury as has been noticed, trading in e Brahman or Kshatriya unless through necessity, in which case they may not deal in oil, salt, sweetmeats, cooked food, sesame-seed, stone, living animals, red cloths, hempen, linen or woollen cloths, fruits, medicines, arms, poison, flesh, perfumes, milk, honey, buttermilk, spirituous liquors, indigo, lac, grass, water and leather goods: non-payment of the three debts,35 that is to the gods, which is sacrifice; to spiritual teachers, which is reading the Vedas; and to ancestors for the procreation of their kind: omitting investiture of the sacred thread at the

37 The variant in the notes is correct and I have adopted it instead of the reading of the text which makes the woman the wife of the castes that follow. See Manu. XI, 67.

28 To the gods, manes and men, are the three debts with which

man is born. XI. 66, n. 7. Hopkins.

Taken in this sense by Sir W. Jones, and confirmed by the commentator Medhātithi, but Hopkins translates "with women born of one's own mother Mana XI. 59. For sins, see Hastings, xi. 560-562.

proper time, deserting one's kindred, selling a son, a wife, a garden, a well, or a holy pool, digging up green produce from the ground having no need of it, performing the pāka sacrifice with a selfish view merely, application to the books of a false religion, doing service for hire as a Brāhman." marrying before an elder brother: all these are considered equivalent to killing a cow.

Fourth degree. Dissimulation, sodomy, molesting a Brāhman, smelling any spirituous liquor, and anything extremely fœtid or unfit to be smelt.

Fifth degree. Killing an elephant, a horse, a camel, a deer, a goat, a sheep, a buffalo, a nilgao, a fish, an ass, a dog, a cat, a pig and the like; receiving property from forbidden persons as a Chandala or pariah, and the like; trading in the things aforesaid without necessity, falsehood, and serving a Sudra.

Sixth degree. Killing small insects like ants; eating from the hand or vessel of a wine-seller.

Seventh degree. Stealing fruit, flowers, and firewood; want of mental firmness on important occasions.

For each of these degrees of sin certain penances have been appointed, the performance of which releases from further penalty: for instance, they say that whoever kills a Brāhman will transmigrate into the form of a deer, a dog, a camel, or boar. When he takes human form he will be subject to diseases and end his life in great afflictions. The expiation is to cut off pieces of his own flesh and skin and throw them into the fire, or for twelve years forsake his family and taking a human skull in his hand, go abegging and from street to street and door to door proclaim his wickedness; this is, provided it was accidental, otherwise this penance lasts twenty-four years.

dykes and bridges and other mechanical works, serving a Sudra all of which are forbidden.

INTERIOR SINS.

twelve are accounted heinous:—(1). Krodha, being under the influence of anger. (2). Lobha, inordinate desire of rank and wealth. (3). Dvesha, hatred towards men. (4). Rāga, love of worldly pleasures. (5). Māna, esteeming one's self above others. (6). Moha, ignorance. (7). Mada, intoxication from spirituous liquors or wealth or youth or station or knowledge. (8). Soka, absorption in grief through loss of goods, reputation or honour, or separation from friends. (9). Mamatva, considering the things of the world as one's own. (10). Ahankāra, egoism. (11). Bhaya, fearing other than God. (12). Harsha, joy in one's own virtue and the evil of others.

The endeavour of such as desire to know God should be first to restrain themselves from these twelve sins until they acquire virtuous dispositions and become worthy to attain to the divine union. Some say that all evil actions are reducible to ten heads, of which three corrupt the heart, viz, coveting the goods of another; resolving on any forbidden deed; scepticism in regard to the chosen servants of God. The same number defile the members of the body, viz., taking the goods of another by force; injury to the innocent; adultery.

The sins of the tongue are four, viz., scurrilous language,

falsehood, slander, and useless tattle.

May the omnipotent Lord keep us from these ten sins and bring us to the goal of our desire.

This is taken from Manu, XII. 5, 6, 7. Resolving on forbidden things is defined by a commentator as desiring to kill a Brāhman and the like, and the third in conceiving notions of materialism and atheism.

CHAPTER IX.

SACRED PLACES OF PILGRIMAGE.

Although profound and enlightened moralists are convinced that true happiness consists in the acquisition of virtue and recognise no other temple of God but a pure heart, nevertheless the physicians of the spiritual order, from their knowledge of the pulsation of human feeling, have bestowed on certain places a reputation for sanctity and thus rousing the slumberers in forgetfulness and instilling in them the enthusiastic desire of seeking God, have made these shrines instruments for their reverencing of the just, and the toils of the pilgrimage a means of facilitating the attainment of their aim.

These holy places are of four degrees.

The first is termed deva or divine and dedicated to Brahmā, Vishnu and Mahādeva. The greatest among these are twenty-eight rivers in the following order:—[P. 177]

(1). Ganges. (2) Sarasvati. (3). Jamuna. (4). Narbadā. (5). Vipāsā, known as Biāh (Hyphasis). (6). Vitastā (Hydaspes or Bidaspes) known as the Bihat. (7). Kausiki, a river near Rhotās in the Panjāb, but some place it in the neighbourhood of Garhi in the eastern districts. (8). Nandāvati. (9). Chandrabhāgā, known as the Chenāb. (10). Sarayu (Sarju) known as the Sarāu. (11). Satyavati. (12). Tāpi known as Tapti upon the (north) bank of which is Burhānpur. (13). Pārāvati. (14). Pāsāvati. (15). Gomati (Gumti) near Dvārakā. (16). Gandaki, upon the banks of which is Sultānpur of the Subah of Oudh. (17). Bāhudā. (18). Devika (Deva or Gogra). (19). Godāvari, called also Bānganga. Pattan of the Dekhan is situated on its bank. (20). Tāmraparni at the extremity of the Dekhan. Here pearls are found. (21). Charmanvati. (22). Varana, near Benares. (23). Irāvati,

known as the Rāvi (Hydraotes). Lahor is on its bank. (24). Satadru (the hundred-channelled), known as the Sutlej. Ludhiana is upon its bank. (25). Bhimarathi, [178] called also the Bhimā, in the Dekhan. (26). Pacnasonā. (27). Vanjara, in the Dekhan. (28). Achamiyyā. Some include the Indus, but it is not of the same sanctity.

Each of these rivers as dedicated to one of these deities, has peculiar characteristics ascribed to it: Some of the places situated on their banks are esteemed holy, as, for example, the village of Soron on the Ganges, to which multitudes flock on the twelfth of the month of Aghan (Nov.-Dec.). Some regard certain cities as dedicated to the divinities. Among these are Kāsi, commonly called Benares. The adjacent

conjectural.

Sacred rivers—An earlier list of names is given in Alberuni's India (Sachau's trans.), i. 257-262. Abul Fazl's transliteration of Sanskrit geographical names is even more puzzling than Alberuni's and any attempt to identify the doubtful names must be largely

Kausiki, evidently the Kosi in North Bihar, and therefore Abul F.'s location of it 'near Rhotas in the Panjab' is incorrect; he probably confounded it with Rohtas in south Bihar, near which there is no sacred river. 'Garhi is a parganā of Purnia (N. Bihar) through which the Kosi flows. A F.'s Nandāvati—Alberuni's Nandanā, A. I.'s Pārāvati—Alberuni's Parā and Pāvani, probably the Parvati river (a tributary of the Bias) in the Kangra district, or a lesser river of the same name in Malwa. Satyavati of A. F. = Sailoda of Alberuni. But Jarrett suggests that it is "the same as the Kausiki, because Satyavati the mother of Jamadagni (the father of Parasurāma) became the Kausiki river." On this view Abul F.'s Kausiki cannot be the Kosi of North Bihar, but the Kausika, 'one of the seven mouths of the Godavari, branching off from the Gautami, near Mandapalle. A. F.'s Bāhadā = Alberuni's Bāhudāsa (probably a mistake for the Mahananda near Malda or for the Bhadrā, which joins the Tungā in the Deccan). A. F.'s Parna Sonā stands for the Son river (the name of which means gold, sonā). Parnā being the old name of Panna (popularly called Jharnā-Parnā) through which State the Son flows. For Pasavati (Albertini's Pisavika) I suggest the Pampa-nadi in Travancore, or more probably the Pampa lake near old Vijaynagar. A. F.'s Vanjara is evidently a mistake for the Manjara river, a tributary of the Godavari. For A. F.'s Achamiyya I hazard the guess Ujjainia or the river of Ujjain, known as the Siprā, a very sacred water, which Alberuni gives under its proper name. The Tāmraparni flows in the Tinnevelli district of Madras. (J. Sarkar).

country for five kos around the city is held sacred. Although pilgrimages take place throughout the year, on the Siva-ratri multitudes resort thither from distant parts and it is considered one of the most chosen places in which to die. Final liberation is said to be fourfold: -(1). Sālokya,2 passing from the degrees of paradise to Kailasa. They say that when a man goes to heaven through good works, he must return to earth. but when after various transmigrations, he attains that region. he returns no more. (2). Sārupya (assimilation to the deity); when a man partakes of the divine elementary form, he does not revisit the earth. (3). Sāmipya (nearness to the deity) is when a man after breaking the elemental bonds, by the power of good works is admitted into the presence of God's elect, and does not return to earth. (4). Sayuiya (absorption into the deity); after passing through all intermediate stages, he obtains the bliss of true liberation. They have likewise divided the territory of Benares into four kinds. The characteristic of two parts is that when a being dies therein, he attains the fourth degree of Mukti; if he dies in one of the others, he reaches the third degree, and if in the remaining one, the second degree.

Ayodhyā, commonly called Awadh. The distance of forty kos to the east, and twenty to the north is regarded as sacred ground. On the ninth of the light half of the month of Chaitra a great religious festival is held.³

Avantikā, Ujjain. All around it for thirty-two kos is accounted holy and a large concourse takes place on the Siva-rātri.

Kānchi (Conjevaram) in the Dekhan. For twenty kos around it is considered sacred. On the eighth of every Hindu

I read bihisht for hasht. Sālokya signifies being in the same heaven with any particular deity. Kailāsa is the paradise of Siva, placed according to their belief in the Himālaya range.

The anniversary of the birth of Rama, Rama-navami.

month that falls on a Tuesday, there is a great concourse of pilgrims.

Mathurā is sacred for forty-eight kos around, and even before it became the birthplace of Krishna, was held in veneration. Religious festivals are held on the 23rd of the month of Bhādra (Aug.-Sept.) and the 15th of Kārttika (Oct.-Nov.).

Dvārakā The country for forty kos in length and twenty in breadth is esteemed holy. On the Diwāli' festival, crowds resort hither.

Maya, known as Haridvāra (Hardwar) on the Ganges. It is held sacred for eighteen kos in length. Large numbers of pilgrims assemble on the 10th of Chaitra.

These seven are called the seven (sacred) cities.

Prayaga now called Illahabas. The distance for twenty kos around is venerated. They say that the desires of a man that dies here are gratified in his next birth. They also hold that whoever commits suicide is guilty of a great crime except in this spot where it meets with exceeding reward. Throughout the year it is considered holy, but especially so during the month of Māgha (Jan.-Feb.).

Nagarkot.⁶ For eight kos round it is venerated. On the eighth of the months of Chaitra and Kärttika, many pilgrims assemble.

Kāshmir is also accounted of this class and is dedicated to Mahādeva. Many places in it are held in great veneration.

The second are the shrines of the Asuras, which are

Kängra. See Vol. II.

The former is the auniversary of the birth of Krishna, i.e., adding 15 days of the light half to 8 of the dark half, making it the 23rd day. The second festival is connected with the legend of the Serpent Kāliyā. See Vish. Pur. V. 7.

Dipēli in Sansk., a row of lamps. The day of the new moon in the month of Kārttika, on which there are nocturnal illuminations in honour of Kārttikaya, the god of war. The night is often spent iii gambling.

temples dedicated to the Daitya race. In many things they share the privileges of the devatās; but the latter are more pure, while the others are filled with the principle of tamas (darkness). Their temples are said to be in the lower regions (Pātāla).

The third are called Arsha, or shrines of the great Rishis, men who by virtue of austerities and good works are in near proximity to the deity. [180] Their shrines are counted by thousands. Amongst them are Nimkhār (Nimishāra), Pukhra (Pushkara), Khushāb, and Baddiri.

The fourth are called Mānusha, or appertaining to men who by their power of good works are superior to mankind in general, though they do not obtain the rank of the third degree. Their shrines also are numerous. Among them is Kurukshetra, which for forty kos around is considered holy, and numerous pilgrims resort thither during eclipses of the sun and moon.

Ceremonies are laid down for each pilgrimage and their various meritorious results are declared.

O THOU! that seekest after divine knowledge, learn wisdom of these Hindu legends! Each particle among created atoms is a sublime temple of worship. May the Almighty deliver mankind from the wanderings of a vain imagination troubled over many things.

being termed gods. demons, progenitors, and men, collected his mind into itself; whilst thus concentrated the quality of darkness pervaded his body and thence the demons (the Asuras) were first born, issuing from his thigh. This form abandoned by him which embodied darkness became night; the quality of goodness then becoming embodied, from his mouth issued the gods; this form abandoned became day. Thus the gods are powerful by day, the demons at night. Vish. Pur. 1. 5.

^{*}Nimkhār (Sansk. Naimisha) a town in the Sitapur district of Oudh. Pushkar in the Ajmer dist.; Badrināth in the Garhwāl dist. Can Khushāb be a mistake for Joshi (math) in the Central Himalayas. which pilgrims to Badri-nāth also visit? [J. S.]

CUSTOMS OF MARRIAGE.

This is of eight kinds:-

1. Brāhmya. The girl's father with other elders of the family visit the bridegroom and bring him to his house where the relations assemble. Then the grandfather, or brother, or any other male relation, or the mother, says before the company:-"I have bestowed such and such a maiden upon such and such a man." The bridegroom in the presence of the same company gives his consent. Certain incantations are then pronounced and the Homa sacrifice is performed. It is then declared that the girl's mother has borne male children and was of smaller stature than her husband,10 and that the bridegroom is not impotent, and both parties declare that they have not been subject to leprosy, phthisis, dyspepsia, hemorrhoids, piles, chronic issue of blood, deformity of limb, or epilepsy. At the nuptials an attendant of the bride washes the feet of the bride and bridegroom and draws the sectarial marks upon them. Three vessels filled severally with rice and curds, after certain incantations have been pronounced, are then given to them to eat. When this is concluded they are dressed out and taken to a retired chamber and a curtain is hung between the bride and bridegroom. The father takes each of the young people and turns them facing the east and

in caste but in that sense Abul Fazl uses saft. Manu requires a bridegroom to avoid the ten following families whatever their wealth in gold or kine, viz., the family which has omitted prescribed acts of religion; that which has produced no male children; that in which the Veda has not been read; that which has thick hair on the body; and those subject to hemorrhoids, phthisis, dyspepsia, epilepsy, leprosy and albinoism, also a girl with reddish hair, a deformed limb, troubled with habitual sickness: and one with no hair or too much. and immoderately talkative and with inflamed eyes. She must not bear the name of a constellation, of a tree, of a river, of a barbarous nation, of a mountain, of a winged creature,

PFor Hindu marriages, see Hastings, viii. 449-454.

- a Brāhman repeats certain prayers and places in the hand of each some rice and five betel-nuts. The curtain is then removed and they present to each other what they hold in their hands. The Brāhman next places the two hands of the bride in those of the bridegroom and repeats certain prayers and then reverses the ceremony; after which he binds them both with loose-spun cotton thread, and the girl's father taking [P. 181] her hand gives her to the bridegroom and says, 'May there be ever participation between you and this nursling of happiness in three things—in good works, in worldly goods, and tranquillity of life.' Finally, a fire is lit and the pair are led round it seven times," and the marriage is completed. Until this is done, the engagement may be lawfully cancelled.
- 2. Daiva (of the Devas). At the time of a sacrifice, all is given away in alms and a maiden is bestowed on the Brāhman performing the sacrifice. The betrothal is then made and the other ceremonies are conducted as aforesaid.
- 3. Arsha (of the Rishis). This rite takes place when a pair of kine have been received from the bridegroom.
- 4. Prājāpatya¹² (of the Prajāpatis). The man and woman are brought together and united by this bond.
- 5. Asura (of the Asuras). The maiden is received in marriage after as much wealth has been presented to her kinsmen (as the suitor can afford).¹³
 - 6. Gandharva (of the Gandharvas). The pair enter-

made) after reverencing and addressing (the pair) with the words. together do ye both your duty. " Ibid. 30. The Arsha rite is the commonest form now. Burnell.

¹¹ Properly in seven steps. The marriage is not completed till the seventh step is taken. Manu, VIII. 227, and note. Hopkins.

12 "The gift of the maiden is called the Prajapatya rite (when

This form is practised at the present day by people claiming to be Brāhmans, e.g., the Saiva Brāhmans called Gurukkal in Southern India, who seldom can get wives for less than a thousand rupees. It often happens that low caste girls are palmed off upon them. Manu. III. 31, n. 2.

tain a mutual affection and are voluntarily united in wedlock without the knowledge of others.

- 7. Rākshasa (of the Rākshasas), is the forcible seizure and abduction of a girl from her people by the ravisher to his own house and there marrying her.
- 8. Paisācha (of the Pisāchas). This rite receives this name when the lover secretly approaches a girl when asleep or intoxicated or disordered in mind.

Everywhere there is some difference in the preliminary betrothals, but the concluding ceremonies are after the manner above described. The four rites are lawful for a Brāhman; and besides the second, all are within his privilege. The fifth is lawful to Vaisya or a Sudra; the sixth and seventh for a Kshatriya. The eighth is held disgraceful by all.

A dower is not mentioned in the case of Brāhmans, and divorce is not customary: In the former ages of the world, it was the rule for Bāhmans to take wives from among all the castes, while the other three castes considered it unlawful to wed a Brāhman woman. The same practice obtained between all superior and inferior castes reciprocally. In the present, Kali Yuga no one chooses a wife out of his own caste, nay, each of these four being subdivided into various branches, each subdivision asks in marriage only the daughters of their own equals.

Although there are numberous classes of Brāhmans, the noblest by descent are from the (seven) Rishis, Kāsyapa, Atri, Bharadvāja, Visvā-mitra, Gotāma, Angiras, and Pulastya. Each of these has numerous ramifications [P. 182] When any member of one of these families attains to any worldly and spiritual eminence and becomes the founder of any class of institutes, his posterity are called by his name. The family

The Satapatha Brāhmana, and the Mahabharata differ a little from the text and from each other; in Manu they are reckoned as ten. The seven Rishis form in Astronomy, the Great Bear. Wlonier Williams, S. D.

caste of each is called Kula (Hindi kul) or gotra,¹⁵ (Hindi gotar), and the rule is that if a youth and maid be of the same gotra, however distant be the relationship, their marriage is unlawful; but if one be of a separate kula, they may lawfully marry. Kshatriyas, Vaisyas and Sudras are dependent for their marriage ceremony on a family priest (purohita), and each class has a special Brāhman from one of the seven lines of descent. If the maid and the youth have their several family priests belonging to the same kula, their marriage is held unlawful. When united in marriage, the wife leaves her own gotra and enters that of her husband.

When the betrothal is first proposed the lines of paternal and maternal ancestry of both the woman and the man are scrutinised. In computing either of the two genealogies, if within each fifth degree of ascent the lines unite, the marriage is not lawful. Also if in the two paternal genealogies, they unite in any generation, the marriage cannot take place. Scrutiny of the maternal descent on both sides is not necessary. If in the paternal genealogies of both parties, consanguinity through a female occurs in the eighth generation, it is held lawful, but if in the paternal lines of both, consanguinity through a female occurs in the sixth generation it constitutes a fresh (impediment of) kinship. The same result occurs if the consanguinity occurs in the sixth generation by the mother's side.

Until the elder brother is married, the younger may not lawfully be so.

It is held expedient that the bride should not be under eight, 16 and any age over ten is thought improper. The man

¹⁵ Among the Brāhmans, twenty-four gotras are reckoned, supposed to be sprung from and named after celebrated teachers, as Sāndilya, Kāsyapa, Gautama, Bharad-vāja, &c. Ibid.

he find one dear to his heart, or a man of twenty-four years, a damsel of eight; but if, he should finish his studentship earlier and the duties of his next order would otherwise be impeded, let him marry immediately." M. IX, 94. Sir W. Jones.

should be twenty-five, and marriage after fifty years of age, they regard as unbecoming. Excepting in the king, it is not considered right for a man to have more than one wife, unless his first wife is sickly or proves barren, or her children die. In these cases, he may marry ten wives, but if the tenth proves defective, he may not marry again. If his first wife is suitable, and he desires to take another, he must give the first a third part of his estate.

It was the custom in ancient times for the daughters of kings when they sought a husband, to hold a great festival. Her suitors were assembled together and the damsel attended the banquet in person. Of whomsoever she made choice, she placed upon his neck a string of pearls and flowers. [183] This custom was called Svayamvara, or self-choice.

Quando mulier mensium suorum expers sit quod post quatriduum contingit, si maritus ejus intra duodecim dies proximos in quibus satis probabile est conceptus, ineat eam, necesse est illi perlutum esse. In reliquis temporibus dissimilis est ratio et manus pedesque lavare satis esse censeant. Per totum tempus mensium coitum in crimine ponunt. In diebus his, vivit mulier in secessu, neque cibum mariti nec vestimenta tangit neque ad culinam accedit ne contaminet eam.

SRINGARA,

OT

Ornaments of Dress.

A man is adorned by twelve things:—(1). Trimming his beard. (2). Ablution of his body. (3). Drawing the

Nala and Damayanti. The practice is conceded in Manu (IX. 92). but as Hopkins observes, only out of respect for the old custom and was not practised at that date Yājnavalkya and others permit it when there are no relatives to give away the girl in marriage. Some early writers conceded it without distinction of caste; in the epic it is confined to royal maidens: among later commentators it is restricted to the lower castes.

sectarial marks of caste. (4). Anointing with perfumes and oil. (5). Wearing gold earrings. (6). Wearing the jāma¹⁸ fastened on the left side. (7). Bearing the mukuta which is a golden tiara worn on the turban. (8). Wearing a sword. (9). Carrying a dagger and the like, at the waist. (10). Wearing a ring on the finger. (11). Eating betel. (12). Wearing sandals or shoes.

A woman is adorned by sixteen things:—(1). Bathing. (2). Anointing with oil. (3). Braiding the hair. (4). Decking the crown of her head with jewels. (5). Anointing with sandal-wood unguent. (6). The wearing of dresses and these are of various kinds. The sleeves of some reach to the fingers, of others to the elbows. A jacket without a skirt called angiyā (Sansk. angikā) was chiefly worn, and instead of drawers, a lahangā which is a waist-cloth joined at both ends with a band sewn at the top through which the cord passes for fastening. It is also made in other forms. Others wear the dandiyā which is a large sheet worn over the lahanga, part of which is drawn over the head and the other end fastened at the waist. These three garments are of necessity. The wealthy wear other garments over this. Some wear the veil¹⁹ and pāe-jāmas. (7). Sectarial marks of caste, and often decked with pearls and golden ornaments. (8) Tinting with lamp-black like collyrium. (9). Wearing ear-rings. (10). Adorning with nose-rings of pearls and gold. (11). Wearing ornaments round the neck. (12). Decking with garlands of flowers or pearls. (13). Staining the hands. (14). Wearing a belt hung with small bells. (15). Decorat-

¹⁸ The jāma is described in the dictionaries as being a long gown from eleven to thirty breadths in the skirt, folded into many plaits in the upper part and double-breasted on the body and tied in two places on each side.

In the text, m'ajar which I conceive corresponds to the Hindi, orhani—the sheet or mantle covering the head and upper part of the body.

ing the feet with gold ornaments. (16). Eating pan. Finally blandishments and artfulness. [P. 184]

JEWELS.

These are of many kinds²⁰:—(1). The Sis-phul, an ornament for the head resembling the marigold. (2). Mang, worn on the parting of the hair to add to its beauty. (3). Kotbiladar, worn on the forehead consisting of five bands and a long centre-drop. (4). Sekrā, seven or more strings of pearls linked to stude and hung from the forehead in such a manner as to conceal the face. It is chiefly worn at marriages and births. (5). Binduli, smaller than a (gold) muhār and worn on the forehead. (6). Khuntilā, a earring tapering in shape. (7). Karnphul (ear-flower), shaped like the flower of the Magrela,21 a decoration for the ear. (8). Durbachh, a earring. (9). Pipal-patti, (Pipal-leaf) crescentshaped, eight or nine being worn in each ear. (10). Bāli, a circlet with a pearl worn in the ear. (11). Champakali, smaller than the red rose, and worn on the shell of the ear. (12). Mor-Bhanwar, shaped like a peacock, a ear-pendant. (13). Besar is a broad piece of gold to the upper ends of which a pearl is attached and at the other a golden wire which is clasped on to the pearl and hung from the nose by gold wire. (14). Phuli is like a bud, the stalk of which is attached to

²⁰ I refer the reader for an explanation of these ornaments to the Persian text of the 1st Vol. of the Ain-i-Akbari which contains in the pages succeeding the preface, plates of the jewels here mentioned and a descriptive catalogue of the whole series.

²¹ Dr. King, Superintendent, Royal Botanical Gardens, whose

In Dr. King, Superintendent, Royal Botanical Gardens, whose invaluable aid is never withheld and never at fault, on my reference to him informs me that, this is the Nigella sativa sometimes called the N. Indica, and is not a native of Hindustan, but domesticated. The seeds are largely used in cookery, and in Bengal are named Kala jira or black Cumin-seed. The flower has a calyx of delicate fibres dishevelled in appearance and is commonly known as "Love-in-mist." From the specimen Dr. King has been good enough to send me, the ornament imitates the appearance admirably.

the nose. (15). Laung, an ornament for the nose in the shape of a clove. (16). Nath is a golden circlet with a ruby between two pearls, or other jewels. It is worn in the nostril. (17). Guluband consists of five or seven rose-shaped buttons of gold strung on to silk and worn round the neck. (18). Här is a necklace of strings of pearls inter-connected by golden roses. (19). Hāns is a necklace. (20). Kangan is a bracelet. [185] (21). Gajrah, a bracelet made of gold and pearls. (22). Jawe, consisting of five golden barley-corns (jau) strung on silk and fastened on each wrist. (23). Chur, (a bracelet) worn above the wrist. (24). Bāhu is like the chur but a little smaller. (25). Churin, a little thinner than the (ordinary) bracelet. Some seven are worn together. (26). Bazuband, (armlet); of these there are various kinds. (27). Tād, a hollow circle worn on the arm. (28). Anguthi, finger ring. Various forms are made. (29). Chhudr-Khantikā, golden bells strung on gold wire and twisted round the waist. (30). Kati-mekhlā, a golden belt, highly decorative. (31). Jehar, three gold rings, as ankle-ornaments. The first is called Chura, consisting of two hollow half-circlets which when joined together form a complete ring. The second is called dundhani, and resembles the former only engraved somewhat. The third is called masuchi and is like the second but differently engraved. (32). Päil, the anklet, called Khalkhāl (in Arabic). (34). Ghunghru, small golden bells, six on each ankle strung upon silk and worn between the Jehar and Khalkhāl. (35). Bhānk, an ornament for the instep, triangular and square. (36). Bichhwah, an ornament for the instep shaped like half a bell. (37). Anwat, an ornament for the great toe.

All these ornaments are made either plain or studded with jewels, and are of many styles. What words can express the exquisite workmanship of the trade? Their delicacy and skill is such that the cost of the work is ten tolahs for each tolah of gold. Her Majesty has suggested

new patterns in each kind. A few of these have been represented in plates for illustration. [P. 186]

WORKMEN IN DECORATIVE ART.

In other countries the jewels are secured in the sockets made for them, with lac, but in Hindustan, it is effected with kundan which is gold made so pure and ductile that the fable of the gold of Parviz which he could mould with his hand becomes credible.²²

The mode of preparation is as follows:---Of a māsha of gold they draw out a wire eight fingers long and one finger in breadth. Then the wire is coated with a mixture of two parts of the ashes of dried field-cowdung²³ and one part of Sämbhar salt, after which it is wrapped in a coarse cloth and covered with clay. This is generally of not more than ten tolahs weight, and it is placed in a fire of four sers of cowdung which is then suffered to cool down. If there is but little alloy in it, it will become of standard fineness after three fires, otherwise it must be coated with the same mixture and passed through three more fires. It is generally found that three coatings and three fires are sufficient for the purpose. It must then be washed and placed in an earthen vessel filled with limeiuice or some other (acid) which is heated to boiling. It is then cleaned and wound round a cane and taken off (when required), and re-heated from time

²³ Sargin gão suhrãi is translated by Blochmann (l. 21) incorrectly the dry dung of the wild cow. It merely means the cowdung picked up in the fields and jungles; in Hindi pāchak and kanda.

Sāmbhar, the well-known great salt-lake in the States of Jaipur

and Jodhpur.

This was one of the seven unequalled treasures possessed by Khusrau Parviz. It was said to be a piece of gold that might be held in the hand and as ductile as wax. The others were his throne Tāghdis; his treasure called the Būdāvard, or wind-borne. because being conveyed by sea to the Roman emperor, the vessel was cast upon his shores; his horse shabdiz; his minister Bārbud: his minister Shāhpur, and above all his incomparable wife Shirin.

to time, and used for setting by means of an iron style and so adheres that it will not become detached for a long period of time. At first the ornament is fashioned quite plain and here and there they leave sockets for the setting of the jewels. These sockets are filled with lac and a little of the gold is inserted above it, and on this the jewel is pressed down. The overflow of the lac is scraped off and it is then weighed. They next cover the lac with the kundan by means of a needle, and finally scrape and polish it with a steel-pointed tool.

The fee of a skilled artificer for this work is sixty-four dams on each tolah.

The Zarnishān or gold inlayer, is a workman who cuts silver agate, crystal and other gems in various ways and sets them on gold. He inlays silver and steel with lines of gold and embellishes agates and other stones by engraving and cutting them. On steel and gems, if he uses one tolah of gold, he receives one and a half as his charge; if he inlays on ivory, fish-bone, tortoise-shell, rhinoceros-horn or silver, his charge for every tolah of gold is one tolah of the same.

The Koftgar or gold-beater, inlays on steel and other metals, markings more delicate than the teeth of a file, and damascenes with gold and silver wire. He receives one hundred dāms for each tolah of gold and sixty for a tolah of silver. His work is principally on weapons.

The Minākār or enameller, works on cups, flagons, rings and other articles with gold and silver. He polishes his delicate enamels separately on various colours, sets them in their suitable places and puts them to the fire. This is done several times. His charge is sixteen dāms for each tolah of gold, and seven for a tolah of silver.

The Sādah-kār, a plain goldsmith, fashions gold-work and other articles [187] of gold and silver. His charge is five and a half dāms on every tolah of gold and two for every tolah of silver.

The Shabakah-kār²⁴ executes pierced-work in ornaments and vessels. His charge is double that of the Sādah-kār.

The Munabbat-kar works plain figures or impressions on a gold ground, so that they appear in relief. His charge is ten dams for a tolah of gold and four for a tolah of silver.

The Charm-kār²⁵ incrusts granulations of gold and silver like poppy-seeds on ornaments and vessels. For every tolah weight of golden grains his charge is one rupee, and half of this for silver.

The Sim-bāf or plaiter of silver, draws out gold and silver wire and plaits them into belts for swords, daggers and the like. He receives twenty-four dāms on a tolah of gold and sixteen for a tolah of silver.

The Sawād-kār grinds a black composition (sawād) and lays it smoothly over traceries of gold and then polishes the ground evenly with a file. The sawād consists of gold, silver, copper, lead and sulphur mixed together in certain proportions. The work is of several kinds. The finest is on gold and the charge is two rupees per tolah of sawād. For the midddling kind, the charge is one rupee, and for the lowest, eight annas.

The Zar-kob or gold beater, makes gold and silver leaf.

Lapidaries, metal casters, and other artificers produce designs which excite astonishment, but this exposition is already sufficiently protracted. Artists of all kinds are constantly employed at the Imperial Court where their work is subjected to the test of criticism. [P. 188]

reticulated work. Munabbat comes from the Arabic root 'nabt' and is pass. part. of II. conj., 'to cause to grow out'; hence repousse-work.

²⁵ Charm signifies leather and the granulated kind of it called kimukht or shagreen (from the Pers. Sāghari) would represent the style of work which the text refers to. The granulation of the shagreen is produced by embedding in the leather when it is soft, the seeds of a kind of chenopodium and afterwards shaving down the surface. The green colour is produced by the action of salammoniac on copper filings.

CEREMONIES AT CHILDBIRTH.

As soon as a child is born, the father bathes himself in cold water, worships the deities and performs the Srāddha ceremonies, and stirring some honey and ghee together with a gold ring, puts it into the infant's mouth. The midwife then cuts the umbilical cord, and immediately upon its severance the whole family become unclean. In this state they refrain from the Homa sacrifice and the worship of the deities and from repeating the gāyatri and many other ceremonies, contenting themselves with interior remembrance of the Deity. If this takes place in a Brāhman's family, his children and relations to the fourth degree of consanguinity are ceremonially unclean for ten days; the relations of the fifth degree, for six days; those of the sixth degree. for four days; of the seventh, for three; of the eighth for one day and night, and those of the ninth continue so for four pahrs.

At the close of these periods they are freed after ablution of the body. But the usual rule is that a Brāhman together with his kindred to the seventh degree, are unclean for ten days; a Kshatriya, for twelve days; a Vaisya and the superior class of Sudra for fifteen days, and the inferior Sudras for thirty days. During this time strangers avoid associating or eating with them. This state is called Sutaka (impurity from childbirth). A prince and his attendants, his physician, cook, overseer, and other servants of the crown are not subjected to this condition, but on the sixth day certain prayers are offered to the Deity and rejoicings are made, and the mother and child are bathed.

The day after the expiration of the Sutaka, they name the child and look in the astronomical table for the sign and station of the rising of the moon. The initial of his name is

²⁶ By these are meant the Ahir and Kurmi castes or shepherds and agriculturists, from whose hands Brāhmans and Kshatriyas will drink, the inferior Sudras being Chamārs and the like who are held unclean.

taken from the letter which is therewith connected and a name of more than four letters is considered blameworthy. In the fourth month they bring it into the sun before which time it is never carried out of the house. In the fifth month they bore the lobe of the right ear. In the sixth month, if the child be a boy, they place various kinds of food around him, and feed him with that for which he shows a preference. If it be a gurl, this is not done till the sixth or seventh month. When it is a year old, or in the third year, they shave his head, but by some this is delayed till the fifth year, by others till the seventh, and by others again till the eighth year, when a festival is held. In the fifth year they send him to school and meet together in rejoicing.

They observe the birthday and annually celebrate it with a feast, and at the close of each year make a knot on a thread of silk. He is invested with the sacred string at the appointed time. At each of these occasions they perform certain works and go through some extraordinary ceremonies.

THE NUMBER OF FESTIVALS.

Certain auspicious days are religiously observed and celebrated as festivals. These are called te'ohār and a few of them are here indicated.

This requires explanation. The day is divided into 60 dandas=24 hours, the four divisions of which allow 15 dandas to every six hours. Now each of the 28 asterisms (v. p. 21) is symbolised by a fanciful name of four letters: e.g., the first asterism Asvini is called chu, che, cho, lā, the second Bharani lo, lu, le, lā. To each of the periods of six hours a letter is allotted, as chu from 6 A.M. to noon, che from noon to 6 P.M., cho from 6 P.M. to midnight, and lā from midnight to 6 A.M. A child born in the first period has a name beginning with chu, as Churāmani: in the second with che, as Chet-Rām, and so on. This is termed the rāsi name from Sanskrit rāsi, the passage of any planet through a sign of the Zodiac. A second name is subsequently given when the child is two or three, at the fancy of the parents without any ceremonial observance. Thus a man's rāsi name will be Panna Lāl, and the name by which he is generally called, Dāmodar. This practice is mostly confined to the more cultivated classes.

During the month of Chaitra (March-April, Hind, Chait) eight occur: -[P. 189] (1). Srishtuādi,28 the first lunar day of the light half of the month. (2). Nava-ratra (Hind. Naurātr); the nine first nights of the year are chiefly employed in ceremonial worship and prayer and pilgrims from afar assemble at Nagarkot (Kängra) and other places dedicated to the worship of Durga. (3). Sri-panchami, the fifth lunar day (of the light half of the month). (4). Asokāshtami, 29 the eighth of the light half of the month. (5). Rāma-navami. ninth day of the light half of the month, the birthday of Rama. (6). Chaturdasa (Hind. Chaudas) the fourteenth. (7). Purna-masa (Hind. Purnamasi), the fifteenth. (8). Pariva (Sansk. Pratipada) the sixteenth calculating from the Suklapaksha or light fortnight, or counting from Krishna-paksha (dark fortnight), the 1st, and according to the computation by which the beginning of the month is taken from Krishnapaksha, this day will fall in the beginning of the second month which is Vaisākha. Therefore with those who hold this view, the festival will occur on the 1st of Krishna-paksha which preceded the aforesaid Sukla-paksha,30 and so with all the festivals that fall in Krishna-paksha, the difference of a month one way or the other arises between the two methods of calculation.

The transliteration is incorrect. The luni-solar year of Vikramāditya begins from this festival.

a grove of these trees Sita, the wife of Rāma, was imprisoned in Lanka by Rāvana. Rāmāyana; Sundar Kānda.

**Cf. p. 17. Vol. II. The two modes of reckoning. viz., by

the mukhya chandra or principal lunar month which ends with the conjunction, and the gauna-chandra or secondary lunar month which ends with the opposition, are both authorized by the Puranas. The latter mode begins the month with the Krishna-paksha or dark half of the month, in which differences of reckoning occur; the Sukla-paksha or light half from which the mukhya-chandr reckoning begins, is the same, of course, for both modes, and therefore no difference can arise. Cl. Sir W. Jones. "Lunar months of the limins." Works 1, 374.

During Vaisākha (April-May) there are four:—(1). Tij (Sansk. Tritiya), during the third lunar day of the light fortnight, the birthday of Parasurāma. (2). Saptami, the seventh. (3). Chaturdasi; the fourteenth, the birthday of Nara-Sinha.

(4). Amāvasa, the thirtieth.

During the month of Jyeshtha (Hind. Jeth, May-June), there are three:—(1). Chaturthi, the fourth lunar day. (2). Navami, the ninth. (3). Dasami, the tenth which is called Dasa-harā.³¹

[190] In the month of Ashādha (Hind. Asārh, June-July), the seventh, eighth and eleventh, and according to some the fifteenth.³²

In the month of Sravana (Hind. Sawan, July-Aug.) three:—(1). Purnamāsa, the fifteenth of the light half of the month. This is the greatest festival with the Brāhmans throughout the year upon which they fasten the smulet called raksha-bandhana on the right wrists of the principal people. It is a cord of silk and the like, decorated by some with jewels and pearls. (2). (Nāga-panchami)³³ the fifth of the light fortnight.

In the month of Bhadra-pada (Hind. Bhadon, Aug.-Sept.) there are five; the fourth, fifth, sixth, twelfth, and

of the Vedas. He is supposed to be represented on this festival

Vulg. Dusscrah. There are two festivals. Diz., that in the text, which is the birthday of Ganga, in which whoever bathes in the Ganges is said to be purified from ten sorts of sins. and ne second on the 10th of Asvin Sukla-paksha (Find. Kubr, Sept.-Oct.) in honour of Durga. This worship continues for nine nights, and images of Devi are thrown into the river. Rāma is said to have marched against Rāvana on this day and hence it is called Vijay-dasami or the Victorious Teath. It is held as a most auspicious day for all undertakings and especially for operations of war.

by the teachers or gurus.

A snake is worshipped on this day to preserve children from their bites. The text also omits altogether the third festival, the Srāvani, held by Brāhmans only, spent in reading the Vedas and bathing, and changing the sacred thread

twenty-third. The latter is the birthday of Krishna. Some hold this to be on the eighth of (the dark half of) Srāvana."

In the month of Asvin there are two. As aforesaid (in the month of Chaitra) nine nights are accounted holy and the tenth (of the light fortnight) is called Dasa-harā. According to their writings the festival previously mentioned is called Dasa-harā and this is known as the Vijau-dasami. On this day they pay particular attention to their horses and decorate them and place green sprouts of barley on their heads, and all workmen venerate their tools, and it is held as a great festival and particularly for the Kshatriyas. (Another) they call Srāddha-Kanya-gata³⁵ on the fifteenth of Krishnapaksha of the month of Asvin by common consent, but those who compute the beginning of the month from its Krishnapaksha place it in the month preceding. During these fifteen days (of the dark fortnight) they give alms in the name of their deceased ancestors, either in money or kind, as has been related.

In the month of Kārttika (Oct.-Nov.) there are six. The 1st or parivā. This is called Balirājya or the principality of Bali.* On this day they deck themselves and their cattle and buffaloes.

as Kanya-gata is the dark lunar fortnight of this month and the name and period mark the position of a planet, escpecially Jupiter in the sign Virgo (Kanya).

That is, with those who take the beginning of the month from Krishna-paksha of Srāvana or Bhādra-pada, it will fall on the 8th; with those who begin with the following Sukla-paksha of Bhādra-pada, it will fall on the 23rd of Bhādra-Asvin, making the difference of the month as before stated. The festival of the fourth is called Ganesha-chaturthi, the birthday of Ganesha The fifth is Rishipanchami, a fast in honour of the Rishis. The sixth is called Lalits Shashthi, and in Hindi Lalhi chhat and also Gayhat as Albiruni observes (XVI). In Kanauj it is known by the latter name.

This is the name of the Daitya prince whom Vishnu subdued in the dwarf incarnation. A great deal of gambling goes on for three nights. They give alms and bathe and make presents of areca nuts to each other. It is said that Lakshmi, wife of Vasudeva, once a year on this day liberates Bali from the nether world and allows him to go about the earth. Cf. Albiruni.

The second, ninth, eleventh and twelfth are also festivals. The thirtieth is the Dipāli or row of lamps (Hind. Diwāli). A difference occurs in the calculation of its date. According to the Sukla-paksha computation, it is as above stated, but by the Krishna-paksha this is called the 15th of Mārgasirsha (Hind. Aghan. Nov.-Dec.) and they therefore hold this festival on the 15th of the Krishna-paksha of Kārttika. Lamps are lit as on the (Muhammedan) festival of Shab-i-barāt. It begins on the 29th, and this night is considered auspicious for dicing and many strange traditions are told regarding it. It is the greatest of the festivals for the Vaisya caste.

In the month of Märgasirsha, there are three viz., the seventh of Sukla-paksha and the eighth and ninth of Krishna-paksha. In both these last a difference of computation as above occurs.

In the month of Pausha (Hind. Pus, Dec.-Jan.) the eighth of Sukla-paksha is held sacred.

In the month of Māgha (Jan.-Feb.) there are four, viz., the third, [191] fourth, fifth and seventh. On the fifth a great festival is held called Vasanta in which they throw different coloured powders upon each other, and sing songs.

This is the beginning of the spring among the Hindus. Although this is much regarded among the people, yet in old works the seventh was considered the greater festival

In the month of *Phālguna* (Feb.-March) there are two. The fifteenth of Sukla-paksha is called the Holi³⁷ and extends from the 13th to the 17th. They light fires and throw various articles into them and fling coloured powder upon each other

[&]quot;Holikā' is said to be the name of a female Rākshasi, killed and burnt by Siva on this day, but her penitence for the fault of a too turbulent disposition secured for her the promise of this annual celebration in her remembrance, and that all who perform this worship, in this month, would be prosperous for the year. See Māhātmya of Phālguna, which quotes the Bhavishya Purāna. Songs are sung in honous of Krishna of the broadest and coarsest kind.

and indulge in much merriment. It is a great festival among the Sudras. The night and day of the 29th are held sacred: the night is called Siva-ratri. Some make this occur on the 14th of Krishna-paksha and by this computation the Sivarātri falls on the 14th of the dark fortnight of Phālguna,38 a month earlier. They keep the night in vigil, narrating wonderful legends. The Brähmans also consider five days in each month sacred, the 8th, 14th, 15th and 30th, and Sankranti which is the day on which the sun passes from one Zodiacal sign into another.

Regarding the celebration of the various festivals marvellous legends are told, and they are the subject of enter-

taining narratives.

CEREMONIES AT DEATH.

When a person is near unto death, they take him off his bed and lay him on the ground and shave his head. except in the case of a married woman, and wash the body. The Brahmans read some prayers over him and alms are given. They then plaster the ground with cowdung and strew it over with green grass and lay him down at full length face upwards, with his head to the north and his feet to the south. If a river or tank be hard by, they place him up to his middle in water. When his dissolution is at hand they put into his mouth Ganges water, gold, ruby, diamond and pearl, and give away a cow in charity, and place upon his breast a leaf of the Tulasi (Ocymum sanctum) which they hold sacred, and draw the sectarial mark on his forehead with a particular kind of earth.34

sible, or ashes from the Homa fire.

occurring on the 14th of the dark half of Māgha, but this is also counted as Phālguna by those who begin the month with the Krishna-paksha, the same fortnight being either one or the other. according to the order of the primary or secondary lunar months.

This is either earth taken from the banks of the Ganges if pos-

When he expires, his voungest son,40 his brother, and his pupil and particular friends shave their heads and beards. Some defer this till the tenth day. The body dressed in its loin-cloth is wrapped in a sheet. The corpse of a married woman is dressed in the clothes she wore in life. The body is borne to the river side and a funeral pile of Palāsa-wood (Butea frondosa) is formed, upon which the body is laid. Prayers are read over ghee, which is put into the mouth and a few grains of gold are put into the eyes, nostrils, ears and other apertures. It is advisable that the son should set fire to the pile, otherwise the youngest brother of the deceased or, failing him, the eldest. All his wives deck themselves out and with cheerful countenances are burnt together with him in their embrace. A pile of lignum aloes and sandalwood is fired for those who are wealthy. The wives are first advised not to give their bodies to the flames. [P. 192]

This mode of expressing grief among Hindu women applies to five classes:—(1). Those who expire on learning the death of their husbands and are burnt by their relations. (2). Those who out of affection for their husbands voluntarily consign themselves to the flames. (3). Who from fear of reproach surrender themselves to be burnt. (4). Who undergo this death regarding it as sanctioned by custom. (5). Who against their will are forced into the fire by their relatives.

If an ascetic (Sannyāsin) dies or a child that has not yet teethed, the body is consigned to earth or launched into the river, and they do not burn those who disbelieve the Vedas or who are not bound by the rules of any of the four castes, nor a thief, nor a woman who has murdered her husband, nor an evil liver, nor a drunkard.

⁴⁰ The ceremonies of cremation are under the authority of the youngest son, and in his absence, of the eldest. The intervening sons have generally no ceremonial powers. For Sati see Hastings, Encyclo. iv. 428-429, xi. 207 and its later history in Edward Thompson's Sati.

If the corpse cannot be found, an effigy of it is made with flour and leaves of the *Butea frondosa* and reeds covered with deer-skin, a cocoanut serving for the head. Over this prayers are said and it is then burnt.

A pregnant woman is not suffered to be burnt till after her delivery. If the man dies on a journey, his wives burn themselves with his garments or whatever else may belong to him. Some women whom their relations have dissuaded from burning themselves, or whom their good sense has convinced that burning is a fictitious grief, live afterwards in such unhappiness that death becomes preferable.

On the day on which the corpse is burnt, the relations and friends repair to the riverside and undo their hair, put on the sacred string across the other shoulder, and bathe themselves and place two handfuls of sesame-seed on the bank. They then collect in any open space and the friends of the deceased after a consolatory address to the mourners, accompany them home, the younger members of the family walking in front and the elders following. When they reach the door of the house, they chew a bit of Nimba leaf (Hind. Nim, Melia Azadirachta) and then enter.

On the fourth day after the death of a Brāhman, the fifth after the death of a Kshatriya, the ninth and tenth after that of a Vaisya and Sudra respectively, the person who had set fire to the funeral pile, proceeds to the place, performs some ceremonies, and collecting the ashes and remnants of bones together, throws them into the Ganges. If the river be at any distance, he places them in a vessel and buries them in the jungle, and, at a convenient time, exhumes them. puts them into a bag of deer-skin and conveys them to the stream, and concludes with certain ceremonies.

If the deceased is a Brāhman, all his relations for ten days sleep on the ground on a bed of grass and eat only what is sent to them, or what may be procured from the market (cooking nothing for themselves).

During ten days, the person who had fired the pile cooks some rice and milk and makes an offering of it as nourishment to the new body of the deceased. When the natural body dies, the soul takes a subtle frame which they call *Preta*. Their belief is that while it is invested with this body, it cannot enter Paradise, and during the space of ten days this body continues in being. Subsequently, on the conclusion of certain ceremonies, it abandons this form and assumes another fitted for Paradise, and by the performance of manifold works, it finally receives its heavenly body. For other castes the time of detention (in the *Preta*) continues throughout their respective *Sutaka* periods.

Some further ceremonies for Brāhmans and others take place on the eleventh and twelfth days also. [P. 193]

If a Brahman dies out of his own house and information of his death is received within ten days of it, his family during the remaining period of those days, continue unclean. If the news arrives after the ten days, they are unclean for three days, but his son, at whatever time he hears of it, is unclean for ten days. If the death take place before investiture with the sacred string, or (if a child) before it has teethed, or is of seven months, the impurity lasts one day, and is removed by bathing. If the deceased child be above this age up to two years old, the impurity lasts one day and night; from the time of cutting the hair to that of investiture with the sacred thread, three days and nights. For the death of a daughter up to ten years of age, ablution suffices to purify. After that age till the time of proposal when she is betrothed before marriage, there is one day's impurity. After betrothal. the father's family and that of the suitor are unclean for three days.

[&]quot;This is properly the spirit of the deceased before the obsequial rites are performed and is supposed still to haunt its abode. Hastings, Ency. ii. 810.

MERITORIOUS MANNER OF DEATH.

The most efficacious kinds of death are five:—(1). Abstaining from food and drink till dissolution. (2). Covering the person with broken dried cowdung like a quilt or pall, and at the feet setting it on fire which creeps gradually from the toe-nails to the hair of the head, while the mind is fixed on divine contemplation till death. (3). Voluntarily plunging into snow. (4). At the extremity of Bengal where the Ganges divided into a thousand channels falls into the sea, the foe of his carnal desires wades into the sea, and confessing his sins and supplicating the Supreme Being, waits till the alligators come and devour him. (5). Cutting the throat at Illahabās at the confluence of the Ganges and the Jamuna.

Each of these modes is described with its appropriate details.

CHAPTER X.

COMERS INTO INDIA.

For asmuch as the fenced city of tradition is unfrequented and the wastes of legend are stony places, knowledge that seeks after truth kept me from connection therewith, but the decree of fate unexpectedly drew me from silence into speech, and intent on freshening the interest of my narrative, I have been led into entering upon a multiplicity of details. A review of the general history of Hindustan has induced me to mention the comers into this vast country, and thus by recalling the memory of the great give a promise of currency to this important exposition.

ADAM.

They say that Adam after his fall from Paradise was thrown on the island of Ceylon, his consort on Juddah. Azrāil in Sistān, the Serpent in Ispāhān, and the Peacock in

¹ This is the true orthography, but commonly written liddah. on the Red Sea. Azrail is the angel of death who though connected with the creation of Adam, having been sent by God to bring various kinds of clay from the earth for the formation of his body, and having fulfilled the mission in which Gabriel and Michael had previously failed, is not mentioned as sharing his sin or punish-Iblis or Satan must be here meant whom the chroniclers unanimously declare to have been cast out of Paradise, though they differ as to the place of his fall. Masaudi naming Baisan: and Tabari, Simnan near Jurjan. He penetrated into Paradise notwithstanding the vigilance of its porter, by entering the mouth of the serpent that had on one occasion strayed outside. The latter was at that time a quadruped, but being cursed at the fall, was deprived of its feet and condemned to the form of a reptile. The peacock is said to have conducted Eve to the forbidden tree. At its expulsion it was deprived of its voice. The relation of these puerilities may be pursued in Tabari, Masaudi, D'Herbelot. For Adam, Ency. Islam, i. 127 and in Sale's Koran, and in most general histories of Muhammadan chroniclers who are never more at home or more precise than when referring to events of which they can know nothing.

Hindustan. Imaginative writers have embellished this fable with abundant details, but in Sanscrit works which treat of the events of myriads of past ages not a trace of this story is to be found.

HUSHANG

Was the son of Siyāmak and grandson of Kayumars, and succeeded his great ancestor, ruling with justice and liberality. He is accounted the first to whom the name of sovereign virtually applies.² He came to India where he displayed the lustre of virtue. [194] The work called 'Eternal Wisdom' (Javidān Khirad) is said to be the fruit of his mature experience.

Hāfiz,³ in his Istitālah (Per illustris) says that when Māmun conquered Khurāsān, the various chiefs sent presents to his court. The governor of Kābul sent a sage named Dubān⁴ on an embassy to Mamun and mentioned in his letter of homage that he was despatching to his court an offering of great price, than which nothing more valuable was known. The Caliph on receiving this information appointed his minister Fadhl (Ibn-i-Sahl) to inquire what it referred to. The envoy replied that the allusion was to himself. They said to him, "How doth a distinction so great concern such as thee?" He answered, "In enlightened knowledge, judicious counsel, and right guidance," and he spoke such parables of wisdom that all were amazed. It happened that at this time the Caliph designed to enter upon hostilities against his brother Muhammad u'l Amin and all parties were endeavouring to dissuade

took the name of their dynasty.

See Vol. II, p. 36, n. 4. Of the Tārikh of Hāfiz Abru, no copy was known by Sir H. Elliot, to exist in India The Istitālah is not mentioned by Hāji Khalifah under that title.

The reader will recall the story of the Grecian king and his physician duban in the thirteenth of the "Arabian Nights."

² Firdausi imputes to him the discovery of fire from the concussion of two stones. Hushang obtained by merit or adulation the epithet of *Peshdād* or the Lawgiver, when the *Peshdadian* kings took the name of their dynasty.

him from it. He therefore consulted Duban, whose clearsighted reasoning confirmed his resolution of marching into Iraq and pressing on the war. The sage's advice was the means of resolving all political difficulties. Māmun treated him with great favour and commanded that a large sum of gold should be bestowed upon him. Duban excused himself saving. "It is not the practice of my sovereign to allow his envoy to receive anything, but there is a work called 'Eternal Wisdom's composed by the farsighted intellect of Hushang and is said to be in the Madain.6 On the conquest of that country, when the Caliph obtains the work let him graciously bestow it upon me." His proposal was assented to. When Madain was taken, he pointed out that in a certain quarter of the city, by a certain tree there was a large stone. This they were to lift and to dig down till they came to a subterranean chamber in which were a number of chests and a large quantity of valuables, none of which were to be touched as the time for removing them had not arrived. In a certain corner of the chamber a box of certain shape would be found which they were to bring out, wherein would be discovered the work they sought. Sharp-eyed and experienced men were sent in search, and all happened exactly as he had described. Some portion of this work was translated into Arabic at the pressing insistance of Fadhl, but as it was treasured by Duban, he did not suffer its translation to be completed.

The original of this collection of moral lables is the Sanskrit Panca-tantra, from which were made the Arabic version named Kalila-wa-Dimna and the Persian translation named Anwār-i-Suhaili. De Sacy supposes that in this last "we have the olden Jāvidān Khirad." [See Ency. Isl. ii. 694-698. J. S.] Known to Europe as the Fables of Pilpay.

The ancient Ctesiphon. It passed into the possession of the Arabs in the Caliphate of Omar in A.D. 637. During the insurrection against al Mamun by the Alide party under the leading of Abu Sarāya, Madāin was taken by the latter. but recaptured during the same year, A.D. 815.

Ham

Was the son of Noah. After the subsidence of the deluge he came to Hindustan. Annalists of other countries than this believe the Hindus to be descended from him.

JAMSHID

Was the son of Tahmuras Devband or the binder of the demons. When by the Almighty decrees he became a wanderer in the desert of misfortune, he happened to pass through Zābulistān. For sixteen years he dwelt in Kābul and secretly married the daughter of the prince Kaurnak. When the news was bruited abroad the prince bade him, one night, take his departure for Hindustan. The poet Asadis says of this night: [P. 195]

Black as an Ethiop grew the night whose veil O'er the moon's face its sable shadow flung, Sad as the stifled sob whose scarce-heard wail Dies on the ear from some despairing tongue.

*The quotation must be from the Garshasp Namah of Hakim Asadi of Tus, one of the seven poets at the court of Mahmud of

Ghazni.

⁷ He receives this surname in the Shah Namah. His justice and vigour cleansed the country of crime, and produced the rebellion of the Devs or demons, probably the barbarous neighbouring peoples who resented his iron control. They were defeated by him and bound. He introduced the solar year among the Persians, the first day of which, when according to Tabari he administered justice in open darbar, was called Nauroz when the sun enters Aries. His prosperity turned his head and he proclaimed himself a deity, which disgusted his subjects and led to the invasion of the Syrian prince Zohāk, the descendant of Shedād, and according to some the nephew of Jamshid. Malcolm says that the wanderings of the exiled prince are wrought into a tale which is amongst the most popular in Persian romance. He was pursued through Seistan, India and China by the agents of Zohāk and carried before his enemy who, after every contumely he could inflict, placed him between two boards and had him sawn asunder. When the news of his death reached his widow in Seistan she put an end to her life by poison. The son of this marriage was Atrut, whose son was Garshāsp, whose son was Narimān, father of Sām, whose son Zil was the father of Rustam. See Malcolm, Hist. Persia. I. 3, and Atkinson's Abridgment of the Shah Namah.

For some time he employed himself in the profession of arms and when his secret was on the point of being discovered, he set out for China by way of Bengal, and on the road fell in with the emissaries of Zohāk.

ZOHAK

Was the son of Mardas, the Arabian. He passed into India several times as Asadi says:

Zohāk the conqueror ere the year had gone, To Kābul swiftly passed from Babylon, Resolved to launch o'er India's plains once more The invading legions he had led before.

GARSHASP

Was the son of Utrut. The Garshäsp Nāmah narrates his invasion of India and the astonishing actions in which he engaged.

ISFANDYAR OF THE BRAZEN BODY

Was the son of Gushtasp, 10 the son of Luhrasp. In obedience to the commands of his father he propagated the doctrines of Zoroaster, and his zeal caused the universal acceptation of that creed. He honoured the institutions which were the bequest of Faridun, applying them after his own direction. Firdausi thus alludes to him:

This mighty warrior of a line of kings From clime to clime his rapid conquest wings; O'er Greece and India his proud standards fly To unknown seas where realms of darkness lie.

"Malcolm gives Atrut, but the Dictionaries write the name as I have rendered it. Firdausi makes him the son of Zav. He was the last of the Peshdadian monarchs.

¹⁰ The conjecture that Gushtāsp was the Darius Hystaspes of the Greeks accords with the chronology of Herodotus; and starting from this first secure footing amid the quicksands of fable, the identification of Isfandyar with Xerxes is historically probable. The arguments in favour of this hypothesis are marshalled by Malcolm.

NARIMAN, SON OF GARSHASP, THE SON OF UTRUT.

SAM, SON OF NARIMAN.

ZAL, SON OF SAM.

FARAMARZ, SON OF RUSTAM.

BAHMAN, " SON OF ISFANDYAR.

When the astrologers announced to Garshasp the future sovereignty of Bahman and the overthrow of his own family. the devastation of Zābulistān, the slaughter of the descendants of Rustam, the disentombment of himself and his sons, and the burning of their bodies, he enjoined his sons to erect his tomb and that of his children at Kanaui in Hindustan. When Garshāsp died, Narimān conveyed his remains thither, and on the death of Nariman his body was also taken to that country by Sam. On Sam's death, Zal transported his body to the same city whither, likewise, Faramarz carried Rustam when he died. When Bahman defeated Zal and Faramerz and the latter was killed in the engagement, Bahman overran Zābulistān and advanced to Kanauj desiring to view the royal mausoleum. A superstitious awe restrained him from entering it. Each of these four great men in anticipation of this event had left a great treasure within it. Among them was the world-displaying mirror of Kaikhusrau (Cyrus), which at his death [P. 196] he bequeathed to Rustam, and ninety maunds weight of diamonds belonging to Garshasp. Each of them also inscribed on a tablet a brief record of memorable

Whatever doubt may exist regrading the identification of Nerxes with Islandyār, there is little or none regarding that of Bahman with Artaxerxes Longimanus. Bahman was known to the Persian historians as Ardishir Darāzdast, the similarity of the epithet adding conclusive evidence to the similarity of the name. Firdausi says that 'when he stood upon his feet; his closed hand reached below his knee.'

deeds, praying that the conqueror would not desecrate the tomb. Bahman, struck by the sight of these splendid offerings and the prescient sagacity of the gift, fell into a profound melancholy and withdrew from his previous resolve.

Faramarz, indeed, had twice entered this country, for Rustam after his combat with Barzu by whose mace his arm had been disabled, said to Kaikhusrau, "if my son Faramarz returns this night from India, he will deal with Barzu," upon which followed his sudden arrival and the overthrow of the latter.

ALEXANDER OF GREECE.

When Alexander had completed the conquest of Iran and Turan and laid the foundations of Marv, Herat and Samarqand, he entered India by Ghaznin and in the neighbourhood of the Panjab gave battle to the Hindu prince, Porus, who had advanced from Kanauj to engage him, and by stratagem put him to rout. From thence he turned to the country of the Brahmans. The chiefs of that region represented to him that it the conqueror sought riches and worldly goods they were destitute of these.

Wisdom and knowledge dwell with us, nor cease To fill our bosoms with untroubled peace: The earth a couch, the skies their covering lend, So turn our thoughts to our appointed end.¹²

"If thy design be the gathering of knowledge and the search for truth, let those who seek it come not in this guise." Alexander, therefore, leaving his army, set out at the head of a few followers. A court was held to secure a just hearing and their peculiar views were discussed in audience. The king approved their speech and conduct and announced to them that whatever they desired should be granted. They

These lines are taken from Firdausi and vary somewhat from the ordinary text, where they are not consecutive. The substance of a great deal of what follows in the reply of the Brahmans, is from the same sources.

replied that they had no other wish than that the king should live for ever. He answered that this wish was inconsistent with mortality. They rejoined: "If the instability of worldly things is so evident to your Majesty, why these fatigues in the tyrannous oppression of mankind?" Alexander for a space bowed his head in humiliation and imputed his actions to the decrees of fate.

According to some Christian 13 writers, when the standards of Alexander were raised on the shores of the Indian Ocean. accounts of the island of the Brahmans reached him and he determined to take possession of it. They sent an envoy to him and made the following representation: -- "Sovereign ruler of the world! The fame of thy conquests and thy successes has been constantly in our ears, but what can content a man to whom the possession of the world is insufficient? We enjoy no outward splendour, nor bodily vigour that thou shouldst deem us worthy to measure thy prowess in war. The worldly goods that we own are shared in common amongst us, and we are passing rich on what may satisfy our hunger. Our costliest robes are garments worn with age. Our women are not in bondage to adornment for the seduction of hearts, and account no beauty or charm of price, save [197] that inherited from their mothers. Of our lowly habitations we ask but two things, a shelter in life and in death a grave. We have a king for considerations of dignity, not for the administration of justice or law. What

nay be also applied to the Zoroastrians. For tarsa, see Hastings, Encyclopædia of Religion, iii. 576. For the general idea of the letters, Abul Fazl is indebted to Firdausi, who in turn in one passage regarding the unprofitable questions put by Alexander to confound the Brāhmans, is in agreement with Plutarch. The jazira or isle of the Brāhmans is perhaps Brāhmanābād, identified by Genl. Cunningham as the town where Ptolemy was wounded by a poisoned sword (Quintus Curtius IX. 8), the Harmatelia of Diodorus, described by him as the last town of the Brāhmans on the river. For the Islamic traditions about Alexander, see Encyclo. Islam, ii. 533 (Iskandar).

use would punishment serve in a land where none is wicked and there is no thought of crime?" The sagacious monarch was struck by this affecting address and leaving them their freedom, abandoned his project.

The following letter was addressed by Alexander to Didim, the head of the Brahmans: for he had often heard that they did not live as other men. The novelty excited his wonder and made his life seem insupportable to him14:-"O Didim, after learning thy message, I desire again to be informed of thy precepts and doctrines. If what thou hast represented bears the light of truth and is the result of experience, answer speedily, so that, putting this system to the proof, I also for justice sake and in search of truth, may follow thy footsteps." Didim thus replied: "What I have stated results from profound knowledge. You have not chosen to believe in its truth and you reject what you do not incline to. Many blameable actions were favourably represented by you in our interview. Now, therefore, with full knowledge believe my words. Hirābud, the Brāhman, does not yield to the promptings of desire. Content with the measure of his needs, he opens not the door of greed.15 Our food is

This crabbed and obscurely-worded sentence is capable of a different, but in my opinion, not so satisfactory an interpretation. The name Didim in the text is not in Firdausi. It occurs in Plutarch (Alex. LXXXVI) and in Arrian (Anab. VII. 2) as Dandamis: in Strabo (LXIV.) as Mandanis. The name is most probably Dandin, meaning an ascetic who always carries a rod in his hand after his initiation. Mandanis is evidently an error; there was a real Hindu scholar bearing the name Mandan Mishra who figures in the stories of Sankarāchārya's disputations, but that was in the 8th century after Christ. [J. Sarkar.]

This probably refers to the embassy of Onesicritus to the Gymnosophists, who endeavoured to persuade some of them to return with him to Alexander's camp. Plutarch says that Calanus insolently told him to divest himself of his robe in order to hear his precepts in nakedness, symbolical doubtless of humility and ignorance. He was however induced by Taxila to visit Alexander who retained him in his suite with distinguished favour. His self-chosen death by burning at Pasargadæ in Persia, when suffering from a fit of cholic, is told by Arrian [Bk. vii. ch. 3 and 18], Diodorus, and Plutarch.

AINLI-AKBARI

not such as the four elements cannot easily supply. earth gives us of its produce. In our meals intemperance has no place, for this reason we have no need of medicine physician, and thus we enjoy perpetual well-being. We are not indebted to each other for assistance. We Brahman have equality in all things; what room then is there for ind gence? In a land where the seeds of arrogance and van glory grow not, universal poverty is consummate fortune We have no governor, for our actions are not subjects for penal inquiry. We disapprove of a variety of creeds for they are produced through exceeding unrighteousness and manifold iniquities. Our only religion is the worship of conscience. From what it restrains us we withhold our hearts. We do not submit to the tyranny of the pursuit of wealth for it fosters greed and brings disappointment in its train. We disdain idleness and hold it in reproach. We are not rendered averse from the delights of wedlock by incapacity, for all things are in our power as we can also forego them. From the sun we receive warmth, from the dews moisture. Our thirst is quenched from the stream and we have no couch but the earth. Desire does not rob us of sleep, nor leave us a prey to care. We lord it not over our equals through pride; we seek service from none save of our own bodies, for we consider the body subservient to the spirit, We bake not stone in the fire for the raising of palaces, for we dwell in the hollows of the earth according to the measure of our needs, nor do we go in fear of the violence of the wind nor of storms of dust, for there we are safer than in houses of reed. We wear no costly robes; we cover our nakedness with leaves, or to speak truly, with modesty; our women are at no pains for their adornment, for who can add beauty to the creations of God? and after they are arrayed [198] it profiteth them nothing. Our sexual commerce cometh not sinfully from carnal desire, but continuance of the race is kept in view. We are not prone to violence and we lay the

dust of discord by the agency of right conduct, and though dependent on the guidance of destiny we do not resign ourselves to inactivity. Over our head we erect no edifices in the guise of temples of worship. Give your commands to those who have flung wide for themselves the door of avarice and make their treasure of the things of this world. The ravages of pestilence do not reach us for we defile not the skirts of heaven with evil deeds. We are prepared to meet the vicissitudes of the seasons, and thus summer's heat and winter's cold distress us not, and therefore we live careless of the exigencies of those times. We do not deaden our minds with games and shows of elephants and horses and with dancing, and when a desire for worldly pageants seizes us, the sight of the record of your actions withholds us therefrom, and recalling your deeds which indeed more deserve a smile, we are moved to many tears. Worldly splendours make us rejoice in another spectacle, for amidst the varied beauties of the universe, the heavens glowing with the radiance of their myriad stars, the sea, coloured by its skies, that clasps in a fond embrace its sister earth, the revel of its fish that leap in play from its foam-tossing waves, fill our eyes with delight. Wandering through the woods with the fragrance of flowers and by running springs in the shade of abundant trees gladdens us in a hunderd ways, while the sweet songs of birds render us unenvious of all the festal banquets of the rich. Such is the theatre we possess, to share in the enjoyment of which is difficult, to erase it from our minds, a crime. We plough not the seas in barks and vessels. Our hearts are not affame with passion for the beauty of others, and we affect not the language of flattery or eloquence. The redundance of professed eulogists obtains no credit in this land, for the practice of this base crew which gives to the creature the praise due to God and overlays the purity of faith with error, darkens celestial light with reprehensible deeds. Of a truth you are the most unfortunate of mankind for your worship is sinful and your life is chastisement."

The monarch thus replied: "If your language reflects the light of truth, I should infer that the Brahmans alone are robed in the true characteristics of humanity and that this sect are to be regarded as incorporeal spirits. To hold as altogether unlawful the acts of the natural man is either to be God or to be envious of the Supreme Being. In short these principles, in my opinion, proceed from madness not from the fulness of wisdom. O. Didim, I have not fixed my abode in this hired dwelling, nor made of a passing-resthouse a settled habitation, but prudently looking on myself as a sojourner, hasten, unencumbered with guilt, to my true country. This language is not the making of self a god, but like dark-minded bigots that are enemies to their own happiness. I do not affect to make the attributes of the Creator the instruments of my salvation. And whosoever under the guidance of a wakeful fortune, abandoning sinful actions, walks in the way of virtue is not a god, but by means of the grace of that Supreme Lord, rises above his fellow men." The writer [P. 199] continued: "My royal master observes that you call yourselves fortunate in that you have chosen a retired spot of earth where the comings and goings of those without and the busy movement of the world are not heard, and that you consider this praiseworthy as proceeding from your attachment to your hearths and love of your native land. The lowliness and poverty that you cannot avoid is not worthy of commendation: on the contrary, the Almighty has inflicted this as a punishment for your evil True merit consists in living abstemiously amid abundant fortune, for ignorance and want cannot exhibit the lustre of virtue. The first cannot see what to avoid, the second has not the means by which it may possess. I, who with all the resources of pleasure and enjoyment at my command.

have refrained from them altogether and have sternly chosen a life of toil, am more deserving of a glorious reward."

Some say that after his victory over Porus. Alexander heard that at the extremity of India, reigned a king called Kayd, " possessed of many virtues, and who for three hundred vears had passed a blameless life. To him he despatched a letter that appealed to his hopes and fears. The king read the letter and thus replied: "I have heard of the successes of your Majesty and would deem the honour of a personal visit the source of fortune, but stricken in years, strength fails me. If my excuse is accepted, I will send as an offering four matchless treasures which are the pride of my life; an accomplished and virtuous maiden of incomparable beauty; a sage unequalled in penetrating the secrets of the heart; a physician, in healing as the Messiah; a cup which though drunk from is inexhaustible. Alexander accepted the gifts and despatched Balinas with some experienced associates to bring them. The envoy returned to the court with these treasures of price together with forty elephants of which three were white, and numerous other presents. Alexander first essayed to test the Hindu sage. He sent him a bowl full of clarified butter. The sage thrust a few needles therein and sent it back. Alexander fused the needles and forming the metal into a ball returned it to him. The sage fashioning of this a mirror, again sent it back. Alexander placed it in a basin full of water and despatched it once more. The sage made of the mirror a drinking cup and set it upon the water of the basin. The monarch filled it with earth and returned it. At the sight of this, the sage fell into a profound melancholy and bitterly reproached himself and directed it to be carried back. Alexander was perplexed at this action. The

This story is told at considerable length by Masaudi in the 26th Chapter of the 'Meadows of Gold'. The king's name is there Kend. Firdausi's version is somewhat different, but the name is Kayd, as in the text.

next day he held an assembly of the learned to discuss these mysteries. The seer was introduced and honourably received. He was of prepossessing exterior, with a noble brow, tall and powerfully made. Alexander on seeing him, thus reflected: "If to such a presence, he also unites a lofty wisdom, quickness of penetration and strength of will, he is unparalleled in his generation." The sage read his hidden thoughts and making a circuit of his face with his forefinger rested it on the point of his nose. When asked for an explanation, he replied: "I understood your Majesty's reflections and by this gesture I meant to express that as the nose in the face is one, I also am unique in my time." He was then required to expound the enigmas of the preceding day. He answered: "Your Majesty wished to signify the profundity of your wisdom, for as the bowl was full so the royal mind was filled with various knowledge and could contain no more. I, on the other hand, showed that as needles could find a place therein, so could other lore find room in your mind. By fashioning the ball your Majesty's intention was to discover that the clearness of your intellect was not like the bowl of butter in which other things could be contained, but resembled a ball of steel. The construction into a mirror signified that though steel be hard, it is capable of such polish as to reflect the face. By your sinking the mirror in water, I understood the shortness of life and the vast extent of knowledge. By fashioning it into a cup, I answered that what sank in water might with skill be made to float; thus also immense erudition may be acquired by severe application and the shortness of life be prolonged. The filling it with earth implied that the end of all things is death, and the return to earth. This was capable of no answer, and I was silent." Alexander praised his sagacity and penetration and said: "The profit that I have reaped from India has been my meeting with thee." He took him into his companionship and intinacy and parted from him only when he left India. The other three treasures also were subjected to a similar ordeal and their worth approved.

Some writers narrate the history of Porus after the particulars regarding Kayd, and state that he fled without fighting to distant parts and that his dominions were conferred upon another.

MANI THE PAINTER."

His presumption led him to claim the authority of a prophet and he composed a work which he pretended had come down from heaven affirming also that he was the Paraclete announced by the Messiah; Sāpur, the son of Ardshir Bābagān favoured him. It was not long before his imposture was discovered and he was condemned to death, but he contrived to escape by flight. For a time he remained in Kashmir and from thence entered India where his doctrines received some acceptance. From thence he went to Turkistān and China and resided chiefly in the eastern parts till his wanderings brought him to a mountain where he discovered a cave which was untrodden by human foot, and to this he brought provisions sufficient for a year. One day, in the course of conversation, he said to his followers: "I have been summoned to heaven where I shall remain for a twelve-

agrees in the main with D'Herbelot's sketch from the same historian. Firdausi makes him a native of China and places his death in the reign of Shāhpur by whom, he says, Mani was flayed alive and his skin stuffed with straw as a warning to his followers. The Manichean sect takes its rise from this impostor who, according to D'Herbelot, was a Christian priest in the province of Ahwāz and had many controversies with the Jews and Magians and maintained the Indian doctrine of metempsychosis. He named twelve apostles to preach his doctrines in India and China, and gave them his book called the "Anghelion". "Anghelion, c'est a dire l'Evangile. One of his principles was abstinence from all flesh, and he forbade the taking of animal life. He admitted two principles of good and evil and the dual soul, one bad and created with the body by the evil principle, and the other the good created by the good principle. He denied free-will and the necessity of baptism. Dubistan (Shea and Troyer), i. 205, Hastings, Encyclo. viii. 396.

month: be not troubled at my absence nor withdraw from the worship of God and the practice of virtue. At the end of the year, go, some of you, to a certain mountain and wait in expectation." Previous to his concealment he had learnt the art of painting in which he had attained incomparable skill. After he had ascended the mountain, he painted some wonderful figures which are celebrated by the name of Artang, or Arzhang, 18 and at the time that he had said, he came forth with the book in his hand. Those who saw it were filled with amazement. He exclaimed: "This is not the work of mortals that ye should wonder; I brought it from heaven and it is painted by the angels." This he brought forward as a witness of his prophetic mission and deceived the ignorant and credulous. He attempted to impose upon Bahram Gor, the son of Hormuzd, the son of Ardeshir, but he failed in his purpose, and in this criminal venture staked and lost his life.

[201] BAHRAM GOR

War the son of Yezdejird, the Wicked, of the Sassanian dynasty. Since the lust of the world fills the brain with extraordinary fancies in the first flush of his success he was seized with the frenzy of adventurous travel, and leaving one of the Magi of the line of Bahman, son of Isfandyār, as governor in his stead, he set out for India in a disguise which defied recognition. In those parts there was a raging elephant which put the whole country in terror. Although the bravest warriors had attempted to kill it, they lost but their own lives. Bahrām hearing of this event arrived at the place and by sheer strength of arm destroyed it. The prince

¹⁴ Hammer Purgstal supposes that the Artang might have been an ensign upon which cabalistic fingers were represented, and which the Mongols and Buddhists used to call Māni. (Jahrb. der-Lit. for April, May, June, 1840, p. 28 quoted by Troyer. (Dabistan, 1, 205).

of that region received him at his Court with much favour. In his vicinity a powerful enemy had arrived to dispute his sovereignty, and he saw no resource but in the payment of tribute. Bahrām dissuaded him from this course, and opposed the invader in person and defeated him. The prince gave him his daughter in marriage, but when he discovered his illustrious descent, he became apprehensive and dismissed him loaded with presents back to his own country. It is said that Bahrām took with him 12,000 musicians; and many other wonderful adventures are related of him.

BURZUYAH.

Nushirwan spent his days in the assiduous pursuit of knowledge, solicitous to discover erudite minds and interesting literary works. He opportunely fell in with a learned Brāhman with whom he frequently held familiar discussions. Enquiry was made regarding the truth of a universal report to the effect that in a certain mountainous part of India certain herbs grew which could restore the dead to life. The Brahman replied: "The report has a semblance of fact, inasmuch as by the mountain is meant a wise man, by the herbs knowledge, and by the dead an ignorant person," and he proceeded to expound the various lore of the country and the advantages thereof. In this he included the story of Kalifah and Damnah, and briefly recounted its merits and said, "the rulers of Hindustan keep this manual of statecraft studiously concealed and do not show it to every one." The desire to obtain this work rendered the monarch

Nose Vol. II. for the connection of Bahrām Gor with the royal house of Mālwah. The adventures of this monarch were the subject of a poem by the Persian poet Kātihi, and they are amply narrated in the Shāhnāmah. Firdausi gives the name of the Indian prince as Shangal. Bahrām is represented as having fled from Kanauj with his wife after his marriage, being wearied of his splendid exile. The monarch pursues, but after an interview becomes reconciled to his departure.

impatient. He commanded his ministers saying: "I need a judicious and discerning person who to a strong bodily constitution unites firmness of purpose and various learning besides a knowledge of toreign tongues." Burzuyah was found to possess these important qualifications and successfully proved his capacity. A large sum of money was entrusted to him in order that he might set out in the guise of a merchant to that country, and through inquiries of experts attain the object of his mission, and return with it and other scientific treatises to the court. He came to India, and setting up as a trader passed himself off as an unlearned person desirous of acquiring knowledge. In this way he secured an intimacy with the ministers of the Indian princes, and through their instrumentality returned to the imperial court with that volume of wise lore, together with other valuable objects. The king received him with favour and fulfilled his desires.20

MUHAMMAD QASIM

Was cousin to the celebrated Hajjāj. He received his commission in the reign of the Caliph Abdu'l Malik, as has been already noticed. [P. 202]

Burzuyah, he narrates, was one of the distinguished circle of learned men at the court of Nushirwān, and one day presented himself before that monarch saying that he had lately read in a Sanskrit work of a mountain in India where grew a herb bright as a Greek sword-blade, which skilfully compounded and sprinkled over a corpse would restore it to life, and he asked permission to go in search of it. The king despatched him to India ostensibly as a merchant, with many presents, steeds, and a letter addressed to the king of Kanauj, and with merchandise laden on 300 camels. The Indian prince offered him every facility in his search for the wonderful herb, of which no trace could be found. He was directed at last to a hoary sage who informed him that the mountain was wisdom, the herb an eloquent monitor, and the corpse an ignorant man and that this herb was fitly represented by the work called Kalilah which was in the king's treasury. Returning elated to Kanauj, Burzuyah petitioned the Prince for the gift of the work,

AMIR NASIRUDDIN SABUKTIGIN

Was the father of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni. After Bahram Gor none of the (Persian) kings entered India. Sabuktigin invaded it at the head of an army in the year A.H. 367 (A.D. 977), and after several engagements returned to Ghaznin.²¹

AMIR SULTAN MAHMUD GHAZNAVI

Led twelve descents on India. The first was in A.H. 390 (A.D. 1000), and the last in A.H. 418 (A.D. 1027). Fanatical bigots representing India as a country of unbelievers at war with Islām incited his unsuspecting nature to the wreck of honour and the shedding of blood and the plunder of the virtuous.

SULTAN MANAGE

Was son of Mahmud: He crossed into India in A.H. 426 (A.D. 1034-35).

SULTAN IBRAHIM, SON OF SULTAN MASAUD

Although a considerable territory in Hindustan was in the possession of the descendants of Sultan Mahmud, none of the undermentioned princes entered India: Makhul-b-Sultān Mahmud; Maudud-b-Masaud; Masaud-b-Maudud; Sultān Ali-b-Masaud-b-Mahmud; Sultān Abdu'r Rashid-b-Mahmud; Farrukhzād-b-Masaud; but when in course of time

which in Arabic was called Kalilah. For the correct history of the translations of this Indian volume of wise love (the Pancatantra), see Ency. Islam, ii. 694-698, under Kalila-wa-Dimna. [1, 5,]

see Ency. Islam, ii. 694-698, under Kalila-wa-Dimna. [J. S.]

21 The latest work on the dynasty of Ghazni is Dr. Nazini's Sultan Mahmud (Cambr. 1931). See also the Cambridge History of India (1928), Vol. III. ch 2. The dates of Mahmud's invasions of India have been critically discussed in Elliot and Dowson's History of India as told by its own Historians. ii. Appendix D, pp. 434 et seq. See also Raverty's trans. of Tabaat-i Nasiri. [J. Sarkar.]

crown devolved upon Ibrāhim-b-Masaud-b-Sultān Mahmud he made peace with the Saljugis and turning his thoughts to India he entered it on several occasions.

SULTAN MASAUD-B-IBRAHIM

Also crossed into India at intervals and was successful.

BAHRAM SHAH-B-MASAUD-B-IBRAHIM.

The Hadigat (u'l Hagaig) of the (poet) Hakim Sanái²² and the Kalila Damna of (Abu'l Maāli) Nasru'llah Mustaufi were dedicated to him. This prince also visited India.

KHUSRAU SHAH-B-RAHRAM SHAH

On the death of his father, he succeeded to the throne. It was about this time that Alau'ddin Husayn Ghori, known as Iuhānsoz or Burner of the World, sacked Chaznin and entered India. Sultān Ghiyāsu'ddin Sam and Sultān Shihabu'ddin, nephews of Alau'ddin Husayn, on whom the latter had bestowed Ghaznin and the adjacent provinces, contrived to secure the person of Khusrau Shāh from India and put him in prison where he ended his days, and thus the dynasty of the descendants of Mahmud passed away. Some authorities, however, assert that Khusrau Shāh held his court at the capital of Lahore, and that on his death, he was succeeded by his son [203] Khusrau Malik who was taken by the Ghoris and placed in confinement,23 in which be continued till be died.

known and is altogether of a religious character, a mystical treatise on the unity of God and other devotional subjects.

This latter version is correct. Khusrau Shäh died in A.D. 1160, after a reign of seven years. Khusrau Malik, his son prolonged his feeble rule for 27 lunar years to A.D. 1186. He was taken prisoner by Shihābu ddin through a stratagem, and sent with his family to Ghirjistān where, some years after, he was put to death.

SULTAN MUIZZ'UDDIN MUHAMMAD SAM.

He is also called Sultān Shihābu'ddin. After the capture of Ghaznin Alāu'ddin Husayn Ghori imprisoned Ghiyāsu'ddin and Shihābu'ddin.

On his death, his son Sayfu'ddin came to the throne and by releasing them attached them to his person.

On the death of Sayfu'ddin in his campaign in I'rāq.24 he was succeeded by Ghiyāsu'ddin. During his reign Shihābu'ddin led several expeditions into India, and the (defeat and) death of Prithvi Rāj and the conquest of Hindustan occurring about this time, he left his slave Qutbu'ddin (Eibak) at Delhi as his representative. On the death of Ghiyāsu'ddin, the throne was occupied by Shihābu'ddin who favoured the Turkish slaves. Among these was Tāju'ddin Yildiz, upon whom he bestowed the governments of Mekrān and Surān which are dependencies of India.

SULTAN QUTBU'DDIN AIBAK

Was one of the slaves of Sultān Mu'izzu'din, and rose to eminence through his own valour and resolution. The Sultān entrusted to him the viceroyalty of Delhi. He made many successful campaigns in India and performed many acts of personal prowess.

MALIK NASIRU'DDIN QABACHAH

Was also a slave of Mu'izzu'ddin. On the death of his master he made himself master of Uchin, Multan and the Sind country.

SULTAN SHAMSU'DDIN LETUTMISH

Some account him to have been a slave of Shahābu'ddin and others of Qutbu'ddin Aibak. After the death of the

Against the Turkish tribe of the Euz or Chuz long settled in Kipchäk.

latter, his son Arām Shāh being defeated, the sovereignty devolved upon Iltutmish.

SULTAN GHIYASU'DDIN BALBAN

Was one of the slaves of Shamsu'ddin and brought from Turān to India. For a time he held the title of Ulugh Khān and subsequently obtained the sovereign power.

SULTAN MUHAMMAD-B-SULTAN MALIK SHAH SALJUQL.25

According to some authorities, towards the close of his life having settled his differences with his brothers, he invaded India and put many to death. A stone idol weighing ten thousand maunds tell into his possession. The Hindus sent him a message offering to ransom it at its weight in pearls. This offer he refused.

SULTAN JALALU DDIN MANKBURNI.26

[204] When Sultan Muhammad Khwarazm Shah took refuge from the troops of the great Qaan, Changiz Khan, in the island of Abaskun, he was accompanied by his son Jalalu'ddin who, on his father's death, set out for Khurasan

p. 495. The narrative in the text is borrowed from Mirkhond.

""See Encycl. Islam, i. 1004, under Djalal-al-Din Mangubarti: also Raverty's trans. of Tabaqāt-i-Nāsiri (where the name is spelt Mangubarni), pp. 1013-1023, 1042 et seqq. [J. S.] Abaskun is n

port on the south-eastern shore of the Caspian Sea-

He was the fifth prince of the elder branch of the Seljuks of Persia, omitting the ephemeral reign of Malik Shāh, son of Barkiarok. He succeeded to power in A.D. 1105 and died in A.H. 511 (A.D. 1118). The author of the Tārtkh-i-Guzidah, Hamdu'llah-b-Abi Bakr Qazwini, mentions his invasion of India and the capture of the idol. His reason for rejecting the offer of the Hindus was that as Azar, the father of Abraham, was a maker of idols (but tarāsh), it should never be said of him that he was the seller thereof (but Jarosh). See Ency. Isl. iii. 073. He fled says De Guignes, into Ghilān, passed Astarābād and took refuge in 'the island of Abaskun', where he died miserably abandoned by every one. As Suyuti narrates that he fell ill of a pleurisy and died alone and abandoned, and his corpse was shrouded in his bedding. A.H. 617 (A.D. 1220), v. Hist. of the Caliphs. Jarrett, p. 495. The narrative in the text is borrowed from Mirkhond.

and thence hastened to Ghaznah, and was engaged in several important actions against the Qaan's forces in which he was victorious. The great Qaan himself marched in person to remedy the disaster. Jalalu'ddin unable to cope with him retired towards Hindustan. The great conqueror pursued him to the banks of the Indus and both armies were again engaged. Yielding at last to superior force he mounted his horse and seizing his royal umbrella in his hand plunged into the stream and crossing its raging waters landed at a point opposite the enemy. He there took off his saddle and flung his clothes in the sun, and planting the umbrella in the ground sat down under its shade. The Qaan beheld this feat with astonishment and was loud in his admiration. For a night and day he remained there and was joined by fifty of his men, and cutting some clubs, they made a night attack on a party of Indians and carried off a considerable booty,27 and in a short time ten thousand horsemen were assembled under his command. Sultan Shamsu'ddin Iltutmish, Emperor of Hindustan, was under the gravest apprehension, and could not venture to engage him. |alal'ddin continued for nearly two years in India carrying on a desultory warfare, and made himself master of several fertile districts, but subsequently returned by way of Kach and Mekran to the conquest of I'raq.

Some authorities assert that when the number of his followers amounted to a thousand, he marched towards Delhi, and sent a messenger to Sultan Shamsu'ddin Altmish desiring a post in his service. The latter prudently declined, and after the manner of astute intriguers he poisoned his messenger, and sending him a number of valuable presents sped him towards Iran.²⁸

Sewistan, and Mirkhond that he remained an independent power in India for three years and seven months. Elliot, II. 561.

II. and the narrative taken from the Rauzatu's Safa. Elliot. II. Appendix 558.

TURMATAI29 NOVIAN.

Was one of the principal generals of Changiz Khān. After the incidents in connection with Sultān Jalālu'ddin, he invaded India and took Multān. Nāsir'uddin Qubācha who was governor of that province, opened the gates of his treasury and won over the soldiery, and by his address and valour remedied the disaster.

MALIK KHAN KHALAJ.

Was one of the military adventurers of Khwārzam and invaded Sind. Nāsiru ddin Qabāchah advanced to give him battle and displayed great heroism in the encounter in which the Khalaji lost his life.

TAHIR30

Was one of the generals of Changiz Khān, and in the reign of Mu'izzu'ddin Bahrām Shāh (A.D. 1239-42) son of Sultān Shamsu'ddin (Iltutmish), he was infatuated with the design of invading Hindustan. Malik Qarāqash at that time held the government of Lahore on behalf of the Sultān and from want of spirit and the disunion among his followers, he set out one night for Delhi, and the town was sacked.

attack on Multan in 621 A.H. on pp. 534-540. [J. S.]

Raverty spells the name as Tāir (p. 1126) and describes the siege of "Lohor" (pp. 1133-1135 and 655). Lahore fell on 22nd Dec. 1241. [J. S.] This invasion is noticed by Ferishta without naming the invader, as having taken place on the 16th Jumāda. I. A.H. 639 (A.D. 1241), and according to Briggs, was under "a

famous Turk leader Toormoosherin Khan".

²⁹ This name appears in the Tärikh-i-Jahān Kushā as Turtāi (Elliot. II. 391), who was despatched by Changiz Khān in pursuit of Sultān Jalālu'ddin. He captured Multān and ravaged the surrounding country returning through Sind to Ghazni. The word Noviana, (or Novian in oriental historians), in the Mogul language signifies chief or general, corresponding to the Arab word Emir (De Guignes a. III. p. 69), and will be found as an adjunct to many names in the history of the Moguls (Vol. III. Book XV). Raverty spells Novian as Nu-in and Nu-yin, and explains it on p. 164. He gives this general's name as Turmati or Turti and describes the attack on Multan in 621 A.H. on pp. 534-540. [J. S.]

MANKLIVAHII

Was one of the generals of Hulagu Khan. He advanced as far as Uchh in the reign of Sultan Alau'ddin Masaud Shah (A.D. 1242-46), who marched to give him battle. On arriving at the banks of the Biah, the invader retreated to Khurāsān. A year previous to the invasion of Mankuyah. a part of the army of Changiz Khān entered Bengal³² and hostilities took place with Tughan Khan, who was at that time governor on the part of Alau'ddin Masaud Shah (reign 639-643 A.H.), but terms of peace were agreed upon. In the reign of Sultan Nasiru'ddin Mahmud Shah, the Mughal troops again invaded the Panjab and retired.

SARI NOVIAN

Invaded Sind with a large army. Sultan Nasiru'ddin (A.D. 1246-66), sent Ulugh Khān to oppose him and followed in person, and the invader retreated.33

TIMUR NOVIAN

In the reign of Hulagu Khan marched towards India with a large force and a hard-fought engagement took place with Oadar Khan, son of Sultan Ghiasu'ddin Balban between Lahor and Dipalpur in which this nursling of fortune drank his last draught.34 He was brave, studious, and a friend to learning, and twice despatched gifts of

³¹ Tabaqāt-i-Nāsiri, trans. p. 1047 spells as Mankadhu or Mankadah, on p. 1153 as Mangutah, whom Raverty differentiates from Mukātu on p. 1126 n.; siege of Uchh described on pp. 1154-1156 and also 667. [J. S.]

32 They arrived at Lakhnauti in Shawwal, A.H 642 (March

^{1245),} by way of Khatā and Tibet according to Ferishta.

33 Raverty's trans. of Tab Nāsiri, p. 711, mentions the invasion of Nuyin Sālin [not Sāri] in 655 A.H. (Dec. 1256 A.D.). Ulugh Khan was the earlier title of Ghiyās-ud-din Balban, Sultan of

Delhi [J. S.]

The phrase is not inappropriate, as Qadar Khān was surprised by the routed enemy as he halted by a stream to drink and to return thanks for his victory. E. & D. iii, 122.

valuable presents to Muslihu'ddir. Shaykh Sa'adi at Shirāz, with an invitation to his court. Although the poet was unable to accept it, he sent him a work written with his own hand. In this action Mir Khusrau was taken prisoner and has himself briefly alluded to this event in his poem. After this no foreign invasion took place for seven years.

ABDU'LLAH KHAN

Was the grandson of Hulagu Khan who advanced upon India by way of Kabul, A.H. 691 (A.D. 1292), Sultan Jalalu'ddin (Firoz Khilji, A.D. 1288-95), marched to stem the disaster and a stubborn engagement was fought at Bagram, safter which the invader retreated on terms of peace. Algu, a grandson of Changiz Khan, with many other chiefs entered the service of the Sultan, who gave him his daughter in marriage. In the beginning of the reign of Sultan Alau'ddin, some of the Turan troops crossed the Indus, and he despatched (Almas Beg) Ulugh Khan and Zafar Khan with a large force to oppose them. The Mughals were defeated, some were taken prisoners, but the greater number were slain.

SALDI

Was of the Mughal race and about this time invaded Sind. The Sultān (Alāu'ddin) appointed Zafar Khān (to oppose him), who in a short time obtained a victory and taking him prisoner, sent him to the royal court.³⁶

Mentioned in the Tarikhi Firoz Shahi. Elliot, III. 165,

¹⁵ Barani's Tārikh Firoz Shāhi gives Barrām; a river divided the two armies, but there is no mention of the province in which the engagement took place. Flliot iii 147-148

the engagement took place. Elliot, iii. 147-148.

For Algu Barani reads Ulghu. The Tārikhi Firoz Shāhi says that these Mughuls embraced Islām and were allotted residences in Ghiyāspur, Kilughari, Indrapat and Tāluka, which were called Mughalpur after them.

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QATLAGH KHWAIAH.37

In the same year crossed the Indus with a large army and advanced by direct marches on Delhi, and as his design was otherwise he did not open his hand to plunder. Sultan Alau'ddin resolved to give him battle and (Zafar Khan) defeated him, pursuing him for sixteen kos. The chiefs through jealousy did not join in the pursuit and the enemy returning surrounded him. Though (Zafar Khān) was offered the strongest assurances of advancement, he refused their terms and died fighting to the last.

TARCHI NOVIAN

At the time when Sultaan Alau'ddin was investing Chitor, thinking the opportunity favourable, invaded India with a large army. The Sultan after the capture of that fortress, A.H. 703 (A.D. 1303), hastened to oppose him and Targhi possessed himself of the fords of the river Jumna, within five kos of Delhi. The Sultan entrenched himself in the vicinity outside the city walls. After some hostilities Targhi returned unsuccessful to his own country.36

ALL BEG AND TARTAK

Were descendants of Changiz Khān. At the head of thirty thousand horse, skirting the (Sewālik) mountains, he penetrated to Amroha, A.H. 704 (A.D. 1304). Sultan Alau'ddin sent an army to oppose them. After severe fight-

³⁷ Ziau'ddin Barani gives the details of this action which took place in A.D. 1299 and mentions the failure of Ulugh Khan and other chiefs to support Zafar Khan and the favourable offer of Katlagh which was refused. Zafar Khan's reputation for valour among the Mughals resembled that of Cœur de Lion in Syria. If their horses shied they would ask if they had seen the ghost of Zafar Khän. Barani in Elliot, iii. 165-167, also 548 (Khusrau).

These Mongol invasions are described by Zia Barani and Amir Khusrau. See Elliot, iii. 72 and 189 (Targhi), 72 and 198 (Ali Beg and Tartak), 73 and 198 (Kapak), 74 and 199 (Iqbalmand).

ing, both of these chiefs were taken prisoners and the rest an example were trodden to death by elephants.

KAPAK MUGHAL

In the following year (A.H. 705) reached India with considerable force, but was taken prisoner. The year after thirty thousand Mughals made an incursion through the Sewaliks. The Sultān sent a large army which seized the fords and skilfully obstructed them. In the retreat many the Mughals perished and some were taken prisoners.

IQBALMAND

In the reign of Alāu'ddin invaded the country at the head of an army of Mughals, but was killed in action. After this no further hostile designs were entertained by them.

KHWAJAH RASHID 19

Sultān Muhammad Khudabandah sent the author of the Jāmi'ut Tawārikh-i Rashidi on an embassy to Sultā Qutbu'ddin [Mubārak Khilji], son of Sultān Alāu'ddin, ar a close friendly alliance was entered into between them.

LORD OF THE FORTUNATE CONJUNCTION. (TIMUR).

When the sovereignty of Delhi devolved upon Sulta Mahmud the grandson of Sultan Firoz [Tughluq] and the office of chief minister upon Mallu Khan, all systematical administration and knowledge of affairs ceased to exist an

in Hamadan, and as a physician, was brought into notice at the court of the Mughal Sultans of Persia. The Jami'u't Tawarikh we finished in A.D. 1310, and is a general history in 4 Vols. containing the history of the Turkish and Arab tribes, prophets, kings Khalifs, &c. For Khudabanda the Ilkhan, see Ency. Islam, in 974 under Olcaitu (pronounced Oljāita) and for Rashid-ud din, in 1124.

the government fell into discredit. At this period the Sublime Standards approached as has already been briefly described. Notwithstanding [207] the conquest of so populous a kingdom, the booty obtained was not important, and the invaders impelled by love of their native land, retired from the country.

BABER.

His history has been fully detailed in the first volume.40

HUMAYUN.

When the jewel of sovereignty beamed with the radiance of a coming possession, Humayun, after some unsuccessful attempts, invaded India (A.D. 1555), as before narrated.

Infinite praise to the Almighty that through the justice of the emperor and the harmonious order of his administration, Hindustan has become a gathering of the virtuous from all parts of the universe, each of whom in manifold ways has attained to the desire of his heart.

But this long narrative will never end, for there are many of those freed from the trammels of the world and of others fettered therein, who have visited this country, such as Husayn Mansur, Abu Maashar of Balkh, Khwājah Mu'inu' ddin Sijizi, Khwājah Qutbu'ddin Ushi, Shaykh I'rāqi, Shaykh Saadi, Mir Husayni, Mir Sayyid Ali Hamadāni and others.

The Akbarnamah, of which the Ain-i-Akbari is the third volume. Accounts of Humayun will also be found in the 1st volume.

CHAPTER XI.

SAINTS OF INDIA.

(AWLIYA-I-HIND).

Inasmuch as the writer is a suppliant before the servants of God and the love of them is innate in his heart, he concludes this work with a notice of such among them as have been either born or have their last resting places in this country. He trusts that this course will be pleasing to many minds and a source to them of eternal bliss. For himself he will inhale fragrance from the garden of truth and receive the meed of his abundant toil,

Awliyā is the (Arabic) plural of wali which is interpreted as signifying 'nearness', by which is intended spiritual proximity. Some authorities ascribe to wilāyat with a kasra of the wao, the meaning of diversity of appearance, and to walāyat with a fatha, that of authority. Others assert that the idea of a lover attaches to the first, and the state of the beloved to the second. The possessor of the former quality is called wali, that of the latter, wāli. Another opinion is that the word (walāyat) with the fatha, betokens the proximity (to God) of the prophets, and with a kasra (wilāyat), of the saints. In ancient works many significations have been given,

^{&#}x27;Compare with this, Jāmi's introduction to his Nafahātu'l l'ns min Hadharāti'l Quds (Halitus familiaritatis e virs sanctitate eminentibus prodeuntes) p. 3. Lees' edit, where the derivation and meanings of wali are discussed and illustrated. "Do you desire to be a Wali?" said the celebrated devotee Ibrāhim Adham, to a certain man, "then seek not the things of this world or the next, but resign thyself wholly to God and turn to Him." That is, that the selfish desire for the delights of paradise is an obstruction to perfect communion with God in a similar sense with worldly pleasures though, of course, differing in degree. [Jarrett.]

According to Jurjani, a wali is one who knows God, he is delivered from the yoke of the passions; he has influence with

the outcome of which is that it means one who has attained to the knowledge of the Supreme Being; a lofty soul will indeed love God alone. To me the wonder is, what connection can exist between a dust-mote of creation and the self-existing sun, and what bond lies between the finite and infinity? A wali, in my opinion, is one who acquires four great virtues and avoids eight reprehensible actions. He should always wage a victorious war by circumspect conduct against the myriad disorders of the spirit, and never for an instant relax his attention from its deceits. This lofty station is attainable by the grace of God and the guidance of fortune, and is sometimes to be reached through the spiritual powers of a mediator, and sometimes without it. The latter state they call Uwaysi with reference to the example of Uways Qarani; and some say

The former, who possess the power of revealing things not manifest to the senses, are classed under twelve orders, of which two are regarded as unorthodox:--

[208] (1). Muhāsibi. (2). Qassār. (3). Tayfuri. (4). Junaydi. (5). Nuri. (6). Sahli. (7). Hakimi. (8). Kharrāzi. (9). Khafifi. (10). Sayyāri. (11). Hululi. (12). Hallāji.

God, he can bind and loosen he also has the gift of miracles (Karāmat). Ency. Islam, iv. 1109 under Wali, where the correct etymology is discussed. [J. S.]

This personage is referred to in the 37th Makamah of al Hariri; "and the crowd thronged round Abu Zayd praising him and kissing his hand and seeking a blessing by the touch of his attered garment till I thought that he must be Uways al Qaran or Dubays al Asadi." He was the son of Aāmir and one of the Tābii'n (or those next in time to the companions of Muhammad) celebrated among the devotees of Kufah and was killed fighting at the battle of Siffin under Ali, in A. H. 87. Hariri, p. 506, for the prophetic announcements of his birth and sauctity, the visit of Omar and Ali to him, and their discovery of the "white wonder" of his hand in the Mosaic sense.

I. The source of grace to the FIRST-NAMED was Abu Abdu'llah Härith³ b-Asad Muhāsibi, a native of Basrah. He mastered all secular and speculative science and was thoroughly acquainted with the inequalities of the spiritual road. He was the teacher of his time [ustād-i-waqt] and the author of many works. He died at Baghdad in A.H. 243 (A.D. 857). As he ever judiciously wielded the moral controlling authority of his age, he received this name of Muhāsib.

The SECOND follow Hamdun, the son of Ahmad-b-Ammar, Qassar or the Fuller, his patronymic being Abu Sālih. He studied under Thauri and acquired many spiritual benefits: from Salm-b-Husayn Bārusi, Abu Turāb Nakshabi and Ali Nasrābādi, and was a disciple of Abu Hafs. He attained a high degree of perfection though the world gave loose to the tongue of slander against him. He died at Nishapur in A.H. 271 (A.D. 884).

The THIRD revere Tayfur-b-I'sa Bistāmi whose patronymic is Bāyazid. One of his great ancestors was a Magian called Sharoshān. His earliest education was received from the elders of Bistām under whom he studied science and

³ He is said by Jami never to have used any support for his back, night or day, for 40 years, but always to have sat resting his knees on the ground declaring it to be the proper attitude for a servant in front of his Lord the King, meaning the Almighty

^{*}Sufyān Thauri is noticed in Jāmi, p 716: and in the same volume will be found the names of all the saints and doctors mentioned in the following pages. Internal evidence conclusively proves that Abul Fazl utilized Jāmi's work in this compilation, one sentence being taken almost verbatim in the account of the fourteenth name in the second list, and as usual without acknowledgment. I do not think it necessary to disturb the dust of these uninviting biographies which are often as brief and colourless as those in the text, a bald record of names and dates with laudatory epithets of erudition or sanctity, and concluding occasionally with a few devotional maxims. Many of these are excellent precepts of conduct and are proofs of a true interior spirit of piety, but this is not the place to record them. For the rest, the English reader can be neither edified not instructed by a hagiography of fossil names, most of them as profoundly forgotton as if they had never survived. The few that require any special mention shall receive it.

reached the rank of a mujtahid.⁵ Next, having mastered the ordinary subjects of knowledge, he attained to the highest grade of intellectual distinction. He ranked equal to Ahmad Khazrawaih, Abu Hafs, and Yahya-b-Maāz, and was contemporary with Shaqiq of Balkh. He died in A.H. 261 (A.D. 874-75), or according to another account, A.H. 234 (A.D. 848).

The FOURTH are adherents of Junayd Baghdādi whose patronymic is Abu'l Qāsim and who is styled Qawāriri, the flask maker, and Zajjāj, the glass manufacturer, and Khazzāz, the raw-silk merchant. His father sold glass and he himself traded in silk. His ancestors were from Nahāwand, but he was born and bred in Baghdad. He studied, for a time, under Sariy Sakatiy, Hārith al Muhāsibi and Muhammad Qassāb, and his connection is authoritatively traced with Kharrāz [the Cobbler], Ruyam, Nuri, Shibli and many others among the chosen servants of God. Shaykh Abu Jaafar-b-Haddād says that if wisdom could be incarnate, it would assume the form of Junayd. He died in A.H. 297-98 or 99 (A.D. 909-10-11).

The FIFTH are called after Abishkhwur Nuri Serābdil. His name was Ahmad-b-Muhammad or according to some, Muhammad-b-Muhammad. He was commonly known as Ibn-i-Baghawi. His father was from Khurāsān, but his own birth and origin are of Baghdad, and he is among those distinguished for wisdom and virtue. He was in friendly intercourse with Sariy Sakatiy, Muhammad Qassāb, and Ahmad Abu'l Hawāri, and contemporary with Zu'n Nun'

This term denotes a doctor who exerts all his capacity for the purpose of forming a right opinion upon a legal question, and the title assumes that he was successful. (Full discussion in Ency. Islam. ii. 448 (under Idjtihad.)

[&]quot;I am not sure of the orthography. Sakatiy signifies a dealer in small wares, a pedlar.

Abu'l Fayz Thuban-b-Ibrahim. The reputation for sanctity and miracles of this mystic extends throughout the Moslem world and his name constantly occurs in its literature. He died in A. H.

of Egypt. He is considered equal in authority with Junayd, but somewhat more impulsive. He died in A.H. 295 (A.D. 907-8) or 286 (A.D. 899).

[209] The SIXTH originate from Sahl-b-Abdu'llah Tustari, who was a disciple of Zu'n Nun of Egypt, and one of the most eminent of those who attained to this sublime vocation. He was among the associates of Junayd and died in the month of Muharram, A.H. 283 (A.D. 896), at the age of eighty-six.

The SEVENTH revert to Abu Abdu'llah Muhammad-b-Ali Hakim-i-Tirmidi. He was in intercourse with Abu Turāb Nakshabi, Ahmad Khazrawaih and Ibn-i-Jalā, and was pre-eminent in all secular and speculative knowledge. He is reported to have been a voluminous author and to have had the gift of miracles.

The EIGHTH look to Abu Said Kharrāz, or the Cobbler. His name was Ahmad-b-lsa and he was a native of Baghdad. Through his inclination towards the Sufis he went to Egypt and resided in devout attendance by the temple of Mecca. His profession was that of a shoemaker and he was the disciple of Muhammad-b-Mansur Tusi. He associated with Zu'n Nun of Egypt, Sariy Sakatiy, Abu Ubayd Basri, and Bishr Al Hāj, and derived much spiritual instruction from them. He is the author of four hundred works. Those uninstructed in his doctrine believed him to be an infidel. He died in A.H. 286 (A.D. 899). Khwājah Abdu'llah Ansāri says that he knew none of the great doctors more profoundly versed in the mysteries of the Divine Unity.

^{245 (}A. D. 860), and a flock of birds of a kind never before observed, fluttered over his bier when carried to the grave. On the day following his burial was found written on his tomb-stone in characters dissimilar to those used among men: "Zu'n Nun, the friend of God, and slain by this love of God." As often as this was erased, it was found ever freshly engraved. Ency. Islam, i, 963, under Dhu'l Nun.

The NINTH invoke Abu Abdu'llah Muhammad-b-Khafif. His father was from Shirāz and he himself was the disciple of Shaykh Abu Tālib. He was master of secular and spiritual science and had seen Khazraj al Baghdādi and Ruyam, and was a contemporary of (Abu Bakr) Kattāni, Yusuf-b-Husayn Rāzi, Abu Husayn Māliki, Abu Husayn al Muzayyan, Abu Husayn Darrāj and many others of note. He wrote many works and died in the year A.H. 331 (A.D. 942-43).

The TENTH trace back to Abu'l Abbās Sayyāri. His name was Qāsim and he was the son of the daughter of Ahmad-b-Sayyār. He was a native of Marv and the disciple of Abu Bakr Wāsiti. He pursued the ordinary curriculum of worldly studies as well as speculative science, and attained to an eminence in the practice of the spiritual life. He died in the year A.H. 342 (A.D. 953).

The ELEVENTH. The founder of this order was Halman of Damascus.

The TWELFTH. This order had its origin in a Persian who was one of the disciples of Husayn-b-Mansur Hallāj of Baghdad, not the celebrated Husayn-b-Mansur (of Bayzā).

These last two have been the subject of much reviling.

In Hindustan fourteen orders are recounted which are styled the fourteen families and of these twelve only are described, omitting mention of those of Tayfur and Junayd:

(1). Habibi. (2). Tayfuri. (3). Karkhi. (4). Saqatiy. (5). Junaydi. [P. 210] (6). Kāzruni. (7). Tusi. (8). Firdausi. (9). Suhrawardi. (10). Zaydi. (11). l'yāzi. (12). Adhami. (13). Hubayri. (14). Chishti.

[&]quot;He was crucified alive for three days from early morning till midday by order of the Caliph Al Muqtadir in A.H. 309 (A.D. 922). He was accused of blasphemy for his words "Ana'l Haqq". "I am the Truth," by which he was supposed to claim divinity. The best accounts of Hallaj are in Ency. Islam (ii. 239) and Hastings Ency. vi. 480-482. [J. S.]

They assert that Ali, the Prince of the Faithful, had four vicegerents, viz., Hasan, Husayn, Kamil, and Hasan Basri. The source of these orders they believe to be Hasan Basri who had two representatives, Habib-i-Ajami, from whom the first nine obtain their spiritual fervour, and the other Abdu'l Wāhid-b-Zayd, from whom the last five are filled with consolation. The mother of Hasan Basri was one of the slave girls of Ummu Salimah,3 and he received his name from Omar-b-Kattab. He early became an orphan. From the dawn of intelligence his mind was illumined and through this brilliant destiny he chose the path of solitude and emaciated himself by austerities while he became filled with the good things of the spirit. He preached a discourse every week and gathered an assembly around him. When Räbi'ah was not present, he would not proceed. The people said to him, "Why dost thou desist because some old woman does not come." He answered, "The food prepared for elephants is of no profit to ants."

The FIRST order trace their connection with Habib-i-Ajami. He was a man of substance and hypocritical in his life. His eyes were opened somewhat by Suhrawardi¹⁰ and he was directed to the true faith by Hasan Basri. Many disciples were instructed by him in the way of salvation. Once when he was escaping from the pursuivants of Hajjāj, he arrived at the cell of Habib. The officers asked him where Hasan

^{*}Hind, the daughter of Abu Umayyah, and the latest survivor of the wives of Muhammad. She died in A. H. 59 (A. D. 678). An Nawawi in his Tahzibu'l Asmā (correctio nominum) says, that the mother of Hasan of Basrah was the favourite slave or freed woman of Ummu-Salimah, and Hasan was born to her two years before the close of the Caliphate of Omar (A. H. 21). When the mother was occasionally obliged to leave her infant, Ummu Salimah would nurse it from her own bosom, and it was through the blessing of this privilege that he afterwards attained to his eminence of wisdom and sanctity. He died in A. H. 110 (A. D. 728).

¹⁶ Suhrawardi (Umar) in Ency. Islam, iv. 506.

was. He replied within the cell. They searched, but could not find him and reprimanded Habib and said, "Whatever Hajjāj may do to you, will be deserved." He answered, "I have spoken only the truth. If you have not seen him what fault is it of mine?" They again entered and made a strict search and returned in anger and departed reviling him; Hasan thereupon came forth and said, "O Habib, thou hast, indeed, truly done thy duty by thy master." He answered, "O master, thou hast been saved by the telling of the truth. Had I spoken falsely we should both have been killed." One night a needle fell from his hand in a dark room. A miraculous light shone. He covered his eyes with his hands and said, "Nay, nay, I wish not to search for a needle save by the light of a lamp."

The IHIRD order derive from Maruf Karkhi. They say that his father was a Christian and changed his faith under Imām Rizā and was honoured with the office of his door-keeper. He associated with Dāud Tāi and practised mortification and through his rectitude of intention and perfected acts he rose to be a spiritual guide. Sariy Saqatiy and many others profited by his instruction. He died in A.H. 200 (A.D. 815). It was about this time that Magians, Christians, and Jews thronged to him and each wished to practise his own faith under his direction, but it could not be carried out. Nevertheless he held a place in the pleasant retreat of universal tolerance. [P. 211]

The FOURTH follow Sariy Sagatiy whose patronymic is Abu'l Hasan. He is one of the great masters of the practical religious life and was the director of Junayd and many other servants of God. He was one of the associates of Hārith Muhāsibi and Bishr al Hāfi, and was the disciple of Maruf Karkhi. Adequate praise of him is beyond the capacity of my ignorance. In the year A.H. 253 (A.D. 867), he gathered up his garment from this dust-heap of a world.

The SIXTH acknowledge Abu Ishāq-b-Shahryār as their head. His father abandoned the doctrines of Zoroaster and embraced the creed of Islām. He was instructed by Shaykh Abu Ali Firozābādi and was the contemporary of many doctors of the faith, and had mastered all secular and speculative science. He was released from the turmoils of earth in A. H. 426 (A. D. 1034-35).

The SEVENTH was founded by Alāu'ddin Tusi, who was united in the bonds of a spiritual paternity with Shaykh Najmu'ddin Kubra.

The EIGHTH invoke Shaykh Najmu'ddin Kubra. His patronymic was Abu Janāb, his name Ahmad Khiwaki, and his title Kubra, or the Greater." He was spiritually directed by Shaykh Ismāil Kasri, Ammār Yāsir and Rozbihān, and he had great repute for his insight into matters of the exterior and inner life. Shaykh Majdu'ddin Baghdādi, Shaykh Saadu'ddin Hammawiyah, Shaykh Raziu'ddin Ali Lālā, Bābā Kamāl Jandi, Shaykh Sayfu'ddin Bākharzi and many other religious obtained their eternal salvation through his efficacious prayers. He died by the sword in A. H. 618 (A. D. 1221).

The NINTH is favoured through Shaykh Ziāu'ddin Abu'n Najib 'Abdu'l Qāhir Suhrawardi. He was versed in the knowledge of the world and the spirit, and traced his descent from Abu Bakr as Siddiq by twelve intermediary links. His doctrinal precepts he derived in direct transmission from Shaykh Ahmad Ghazzāli; and he was the author of many works, among them the Adābu'l Muridin (Institutiones Discipulorum). He passed to his heavenly abode in A. H. 563 (A. D. 1167-68).

The TENTH follow Shaykh Abdu'l Wahid-b-Zayd.

¹¹ Because in all controversies, says Jāmi, in which he was engaged in his youth, he was ever triumphant, and so received the appellation. He was killed by the Tartars on their invasion of Khwārzam after the flight of Muhammad Khwārzam Shah.

The ELEVENTH acknowledge Fuzayl-b-l'yāz. His patronymic is Abu Ali and he was a native of Kufah, but according to others of Bokhārā, and other places are also named. He passed his days as a wandering dervish between Marv and Bāward (Abiward), and from his natural goodness of disposition, received interior illumination and his virtuous conduct assured his salvation. He passed from the world in A.H. 187 (A.D. 802-3).

The TWELFTH take Ibrahim Adham of Balkh as their guide. His patronymic was Abu Ishāq. His ancestors were of princely race and the star of his happy destiny shone forth from his early youth, for he withdrew himself altogether from the world. He associated with Abu Sufyān Thauri, Fuzayl-b-I'yāz, Abu Yusuf Ghasuli and was in intimacy with Ali-b-Bakkār, Huzayfah Marashi and Silm-al-Khawwas. He died in Syria in the year A. H. 161 or 162 (A. D. 777-78-79).

The THIRTEENTH trace back to Hubayrah of Basrah.

The FOURTEENTH are connected with Abu Ishāq Shāmi who was the disciple of Shaykh U'luw Dinawari. When the Shaykh arrived at [212] the village of Chisht, Khwājah Abu Ahmad Abdāl, who was the foremost among the Shaykhs of Chisht received instruction from him, and after him his son Muhammad illumined the lamp of sanctity. Following him, his nephew Khwājah Samaāni carried on the doctrine, whose son Khwājah Maudud Chishti succeeded to the leadership. His son Khwājah Ahmad also reached the same eminence.

There is, however, no exclusive claim in regard to either of these two lists. Any chosen soul who, in the mortification of the deceitful spirit and in the worship of God, introduced some new motive of conduct, and whose spiritual sons in succession continued to keep alight the lamp of doctrine, was acknowledged as the founder of a new line, for besides these twelve and fourteen orders, many another catena of religious schools has a worldwide repute, such as the

QADIRI12

which follows Shaykh Muhyi'ddin Abdu'l Qādir Jili. He was a Sayyid descended from Husayn. Jil is the name of a village near Baghdad. Some authorities¹³ state that he was from Jilān. He was supreme in his time for his secular and spiritual knowledge. He received his dervish's habit from the hands of Abu Said al-Mubārak (b. Ali al-Makhzumi), and is thus spiritually connected with ash-Shibli through four intermediaries. His sanctity and extraordinary miracles are world-famed. He was born into the world in A. H. 471 (A.D. 1078), and bade farewell to it in A.H. 561 (A.D. 1165).

YASAWI.

These are disciples of Khwājah Ahmad Yasawi. In his youth he was under the supervision of Bāb Arslān, who was an eminent spiritual guide among the Turks. On his death he profited by the instruction of Khwājah Yusuf Hamadāni. The Turks call him Atā Yasawi; Atā in Turkish signifying a father, and their saints are thus designated. He returned to Turkistān at the command of the Khwājah and ended his days in the spiritual instruction of the people. Many miracles are reported of him. Four spiritual delegates are celebrated as religious guides: Mansur Atā, Said Atā, Sulaymān Atā, and Hakim Atā. Yasi is a town in Turkistān, the birthplace and town of this Shaykh.

For the saints and martyrs of Islam in India, Hastings, Encyclo.

Religion, xi. 63-73 (T. W. Arnold.)

The references to the saints that follow are given here in one place: Ency. Islam, ii. 608-611 (Qādiri), iii. 841, Naqshbandi), Suppl. 183 (Baba Ratan), i. 862 (Muin Chishti), iv. 290 (Farid-uddin Shakar-ganj), iii. 932 (Nizamuddin Auliya), ii. 152 (Shah Madar under Ghazi Miyan), ii. 861-865 (Khizr under al-Khadir), iii. 687 (Md. Ghaus Gwaliyari.)

Among them Jāmi from whom this notice is taken. In his infancy he refused his mother's milk at the appearance of the new moon, on the fast of the Ramazān: a cow that he was tending in his youth addressed him in Arabic and inspired him with his vocation: he fasted for 40 days. These are some of the miracles reported by Jami.

Naqshbandi.14

This school owe their eternal salvation to Khwajah Baha u'ddin Nagshband. His name was Muhammad-b-Muhammad al-Bokhāri. He was a disciple of Khwājah Muhammad Bābā Sammāsi and received his religious instruction in regard to exterior conduct from (Sayyid) Amir Kulal, his delegate. Khwajah Sammasi used often to say to Khwajah Ali Ramithani, [universally known as (Hazrat) Azizān] as they passed in the vicinity of Oasr-i-Hinduan, "From this soil there comes the fragrance of a man that will soon make the Qasr-i-Hinduan (Castle of Hinduan), be called the Qasr-i-Aarifan (Castle of the Pious);" till one day coming from the house of (Sayyid) Amir Kulāl and passing the castle, he exclaimed, "The fragrance has increased—that man verily has been born." On inquiry it was found that three days had elapsed since the birth of the Khwajah. His father carried him to the Bābā, who said that he would adopt him as his spiritual son, and turning to his friends said: "This is the one whose fragrance I smelt, and who will be the spiritual guide of the world." To Amir Kulāl he said; "Withhold no care or kindness in the bringing up [213] of our son Bahāu'ddin." His orders were carried out. After a time when his fame grew, Bābā Sammāsi said to him: "Your zeal has a loftier flight. You have my permission to go and beg of other souls." Thereupon he went to Qutham Shaykh and attended his instruction, and profited by the guidance of Khalil Ata and realised his purpose through the spiritual aid of Khwājah Abd u'l Khāliq Ghujduwāni. The source of his interior illumination was (the prophet) Khizr; his faith and discipline were derived from Khwajah Yusuf Hamadani. Khwajah Yusuf had four vicegerents. Khwajah Abdu'llah Bargi,

¹⁴ This account has been taken from Jāmi's notices of Khwājah Muhammad Bábā Sammāsi and Bahāu'ddin Nagahbandi to which I refer the reader for those of the other doctors herein named.

Khwajah Hasan Andaki, 15 Khwajah Ahmad Yasawi, and Khwajah Abdu'l Khaliq Ghujduwani. Khwajah Yusuf had received instructions from Shaykh Abu Ali Farmidi, and he from Shaykh Abu'l Qāsim Gurgāni. The latter was the disciple of the following two personages, Junayd and Shaykh Abu'l Hasan Kharagani, and these of Bayazid Bistami, and Bayazid of the Imam Jaafar as-Sadiq.16 The Imam was himself nourished from two sources: on the one side from his father Muhammad Bāqir, and he, from his father Imām Zaynu'l Aābidin, and he from his grand-parent the Imam Husayn, and on the other from his mother's father Qasim-b-Muhammad-b-Abu Bakr, and Qasim from Salman al-Farsi (the companion) and Salman¹⁷ from Abu Bakr.

It is said that Khwājah Bahāu'ddin had neither a slave nor a handmaid, and when asked the reason of this, he replied that ("the maintenance of) bondage was incompatible with the profession of a religious teacher." They inquired

Andag is ten parasangs from Bokhārā. Fārmid is one of the

Andag is ten parasangs from Bokhārā. Fārmid is one of the towns of Tus. Kharaqān is one of the Bistām villages on the road to Astarābād where, in Yākut's time, was still to be seen the tomb of Abu'l Hasan who died on the 10th of Muharram, A.H. 425 (A.D. 1033), at the age of 73.

10 The Imām Abu Abdu'llah Jaafar na-Sādiq (the Veracious), fourth in descent from Ali-b-Abi Tālib, born A.H. 80 (A.D. 699); died and buried at Medina A.H. 148 (A.D. 765). The same tomb contains the bodies of his father Muhd. al-Bāqir, his grand father Ali Zaynu'l Aābidin, and his grand-father's uncle al-Hasan, son of Ali. "How rich a tomb," says Ibn Khallikān. "in generosity and nobility." See Ency. Islam, i. 993 under Diafar bin Md.

¹⁵ Ghuiduwān is a small town in Bokhāra. Yāgut.

¹⁷ He was a freedman of Muhammad; his name Abu Abdu'llah Salman al-Khayr, or the Good, a native of Tayy, one of the villages of Ispahān; others say from Rāma Hurmuz. His father was headman of the village and a Magian. The youth fled from his home and fell in with some monks, in whose company he remained till their death. The last of them directed him to go to Hijaz and foretold the coming of a prophet. He travelled thither with some Arabs who sold him to a Jew of Quraydha at Wadi'l Qura, who took him to Medina. There he met Muhammad and recognized his prophetic mission, from his signet ring, and from an alms twice offered to him which were the three signs announced to him by the last of the monks. He is said to have been one of the most learned, pious and liberal of the companions.

of him: "To what stage does your spiritual ancestry go back?" He replied, "No one reaches any stage by virtue of a spiritual ancestry." On the night of Monday, 3rd Rabii I, A.H. 791, (4th March, A.D. 1389) he disburdened himself of his elemental body.

The case of these orders is similar to that of the four schools of theology. Any one reaching the rank of *Mujtahid* may become a doctrinal authority, and there is no difficulty in the recognition of this as fourfold.

But it is better that I should desist from further details and seek the divine mercy by mentioning the Saints of God. In the following enumeration, under the title of "Saints", I have recorded the names of forty-eight only among thousands, and make this a means towards the attainment of eternal bliss.

SHAYKH BABA RATN

Was the son of Nasrat-Tabrindi; his patronymic was Abu'l Rizā. In the time of Ignorance he was born at Tabrindah and went to Hijāz and saw the Prophet, and after many wanderings returned to India. Many accepted the accounts he related, while others rejected them as the garrulity of senile age. He died at Tabarindah, in A.H. 700 (A.D. 1300-1), and was there buried. Shaykh Ibn i Hajr Asqalāni, Majdu'ddin Firozābādi, Shaykh Alā u' ddaulah as Simnāni, Khwājah Muhammad Pārsā and many pious individuals acknowledged and commended him.

KHWAJAH MUINU'DDIN HASAN CHISHTI

Was the son of Ghiyasu'ddin Hasan and a Sayyid in descent from both Hasan and Husayn, and was born in A.H. 537 (A.D. 1142), in the village of Sijz, of the province of Sijistan.

[214] At the age of fifteen he lost his father. Ibrahim Oahandazi, a man absorbed in divine things, regarded him with an eye of favour and set aflame the gathered harvest of wordliness with the fire of divine ardour, and guided him in his quest. In Harun, a village of Nishapur, he attended Khwājah Othmān Chishti, and practised a mortified life and received the habit of Khalifah or vicegerent. Subsequently he reached a higher degree of perfection and was spiritually benefited by Shaykh Abdu'l Qadir Jili and other holy men. In the year that Mu'izzu'ddin Sām took Delhi (A.H. 589, A.D. 1193), he arrived at that city, and with a view to a life of seclusion withdrew to Aimer and there inspired the same zeal among numerous disciples by his own efficacious will. He shared the reward of a heavenly kingdom on Saturday, the 6th of Rajab, A.H. 633 (18th March 1236). His resting place is at the foot of the hilly range of that district and is visited to this day by high and low,

SHAYKH ALI GHAZNAVI HAJUBARI.

His patronymic was Abu'l Hasan. His father was Othmān-b-Abi Ali Jullābi. He lived secluded from ordinary worldly concerns and obtained a high degree of knowledge. An account of him is given in the Kashfu'l Mahjub li Arbābi'l Qulub (delectio eorum qui relata sunt in favorem cordatorum). In this work he says, "I followed in this path Shaykh Abu'l Fazl-b-Hasan al Khatli." His resting place is in Lāhor.

SHAYKH HUSAYN ZANJANI.

A man of extensive erudition. Khwājah Mu'in'uddin attended his instructions at Lāhor where his tomb is, and which is visited by many to the gain of their eternal welfare.

¹⁸ A work on Sufiism by Shaykh Abu'l Hasan Ali b. Othman al Ghaznavi. Khatli is the relative adjective of Khatlan, a province in Transoxiana near Samargand.

SHAYKH BAHAU'DDIN ZAKARIYA¹⁹

Was the son of Wajihu'ddin Muhammad-b-Kamālu'ddin Ali Shāh Qurayshi, and was born at Kot Karor, near Multān, in A.H. 565 (A.D. 1169-70) His father died when he was a child; he grew in wisdom and studied in Turān and Irān. He received his doctrine from Shaykh Shihābu'ddin Suhrawardi at Baghdad and reached the degree of vicegerent. He was on terms of great friendship with Shaykh Farid (u'ddin) Shakkarganj, and lived with him for a considerable time. Shaykh (Fakhru'ddin) I'rāqi and Mir Husayni were his disciples. On the 7th of Safar, A.H. 565 (7th November 1266), an aged person of serene aspect sent in to him a sealed letter by the hand of his son Sadru'ddin. He read it and gave up the ghost, and a loud voice was heard from the four corners of the town: 'Friend is united to Friend.' His resting place is in Multān.

QUTBU'DDIN BAKHTYAR KAKI

Was the son of Kamālu'ddin Musa and came from Ush of Farghānah. He lost his father when very young and privileged by the vision of (the Prophet) Khizr was keenly desirous of meeting with a spiritual guide till the arrival in Ush of Khwājah Mu'inu'ddin. At the age of eighteen he received his doctrine and became a vicegerent. He profited by the instruction of many saints at Baghdad and other places. In the desire of [P. 215] meeting with a holy director he came to India and for a time attended Shaykh Bahāu'ddin Zakariyā. He arrived in Delhi in the reign of Shamsu'ddin Iltutmish. The Khwājah (Mu'inu'ddin) went there on a

[&]quot;Ferishta who has a long monograph on him, says that he left seven million tankahs to his son Sadru'ddin, besides other furniture and goods which the latter gave away on the very first day of possession. Being asked why he so disposed of wealth amassed by his father and given in due measure to the poor, he replied that his father had sufficiently conquered himself to have no fear of an improper use of it, whereas he himself, not so advanced in sanctity, dreaded the temptation.

visit to him and after a little, left him and returned. He was of great service to the people in general. He died on the 14th of Rabii' I, A.H. 633 (Saturday, 27th November, A.D. 1235). His tomb is in Delhi where it is visited by all classes.

SHAYKH FARIDU'DDIN GANJ I SHAKKAR

Was the son of Jamalu'ddin Sulayman, a descendant of Farrukh Shāh Kābuli. His birthplace was the village of Khotwal, near Multan. In his early youth he followed the common course of studies. At Multan he met Khwaiah Outbu'ddin, went with him to Delhi and was instructed in his doctrine. Some authorities state that he did not accompany him to Delhi, but took his leave on the way and hastened to Qandahār and Sistān, where he set himself to the garnering of knowledge. He then came to Delhi and put himself under disciplinary rule. He had many warrings with the spirit in which he eventually triumphed. When Khwajah Qutbu'ddin was on the point of death, there were present Qāzi Hamidu'ddin Nagori, Shaykh Badru'ddin Ghaznavi and many other holy men. They agreed that the habit and other personal belongings of the dying man should be committed to Shaykh Faridu'ddin. The Shaykh who was then at the town of Ihansi, on hearing this, went to Delhi, and taking possession of the trust, returned. He was the source of blessings to many people. He bade farewell to this fleeting world on the 5th of Muharram, A.H. 668 (Monday, 5th September, 1269), at (Pāk) Pattan in the Panjāb, which at that time was called Ajodhan.26

Ferishta gives various accounts of the derivation of his epithet Ganj i Shakkar, (the treasure-house of sweets). Once on going to see his spiritual director, being weak from fasting, his foot slipped and he fell in the mud, it being the rainy season. Some of the mud entered his mouth and was changed into sugar. His director, on his arrival, had preter-natural intuition of the event, and told him that the Almighty had, probably, designed him to be a store-house of sweet things and would preserve him in this condition. On his return home, he found that this epithet had spread

SHAYKH SADRU'DDIN AARIF

Was the son of Shaykh Bahāu'ddin. During his father's life-time he reached the highest degree of sanctity. Sayyids Fakhru'ddin I'rāqi and Mir Husayn yere his disciples. He died in Multān, where he is buried, in A.H. 709 (A.D. 1309).

NIZAMU'DDIN AULIYA.

His name was Muhammad and he was the son of Ahmad Danval who came from Ghaznin to Badaon in A.H. 632 (A.D. 1234-35), where Nizāmu'ddin was born. For a time he went through the ordinary course of studies and received the epithet of Nizām al-Bahhāth, or the Controversialist, and Mahfil Shikan, the Assembly-router. At the age of twenty he went to Ajodhan and became the disciple of Faridu'ddin Gani i Shakkar and obtained the key of the treasury of inward illumination. He was then sent to Delhi to instruct the people, and many under his direction attained to the heights of sanctity, such as Shaykh Nasiru'ddin Muhammad Chiragh i Dilhi, Mir Khusrau, Shaykh Alāu'l Haqq, Shaykh Akhi Sirāj, in Bengal, Shaykh Wajihu'ddin Yusuf in Chanderi, Shaykh Yakub and Shaykh Kamal in Malwah, Maulana Ghiyās in Dhar, Maulanā Mughis in Ujjain, Shaykh Husain in Gujarāt, Shaykh Burhānu'ddin Gharib, [216] Shaykh Muntakhab, Khwaiah Hasan, in the Dekhan. He died in the forenoon of Wednesday, the 18th Rabii II. A.H. 725 (3rd April 1325). His tomb is in Delhi. 1

among the people who designated him by it. Another account is that meeting with some banjaras who were taking salt to Delhi, they asked him to bless their bales that they might sell with profit. He did so, and on their arrival the sacks were discovered to be full of every

full of sugar.

21 "In Ghiyāspur," says Ferishta, "which is one of the quarters of new Delhi". He relates that Ghiyāsu'ddin Tughlak Shāh who then reigned at Delhi, though outwardly treating Nizāmu'ddin with consideration, was in reality displeased with him. When about to return from his expedition to Bengal he sent a message to the Shaykh directing him not to await his arrival at Delhi, and that henceforth he was no longer to remain in Ghiyāspur. The Shaykh

SHAYKH RUKNU'DDIN

Was the son of Sadru'ddin Aärif and the successor of his eminent grandfather [Bahā-ud-din Zakariya]. At the time when Sultān Qutbu'ddin (Mubārak Shāh Khilji, A.H. 717 (A.D. 1317), regarded Shaykh Nizāmu'ddin with disfavour, he summoned Shaykh Ruknu'ddin from Multān in the hope of disturbing his influence. On his arrival near Delhi he met Shaykh Nizāmu'ddin. Qutbu'ddin on receiving the Shaykh (Ruknu'ddin) asked him "Who among the people of the city was the foremost in going out to met him?" He replied: "The most eminent person of his age." By this happy answer he removed the king's displeasure. His resting place is Multān.

SHAYKH JALALU'DDIN TABRIZI

Was the disciple of Said Tabrizi. After some wanderings, he fell in with Shaykh Shihābu'ddin Suhrawardi and by his zealous service attained the office of vicegerent. He was on terms of intimacy with Khwājah Qutbu'ddin and Shaykh Bahāu'ddin Zakariyā. Shaykh Najmu'ddin Sughra, who was Shaykh u'l Islām at Delhi, bore enmity against him and maliciously incited a disreputable woman to accuse the Shaykh of incontinence. Through the miraculous powers of Shaykh Bahāu'ddin Zakariyā, the falsehood of the charge was established. He then went to Bengal. His tomb is in the port of Dev Mahal.

SHAYKH SUFI BADHNI.

His birthplace was Oudh. He lived a life of extraordinary abstraction, heedless of all save the worship of Cod.

replied, hanuz Dilhi dur ast: Delhi is still far off. Before the king's arrival in Delhi while at Afghänpur, the building which had been raised by Aläf Khan for his reception, fell upon the king and crushed him in the ruins, in Rabii' I., A.H. 725. The proverb Dilhi dur ast owes its origin to this event.

It is said that Khwājah Qutubu'ddin and he, with a number of others, were taken prisoners by the Mughals. Hunger and thirst drove the captives to the greatest straits. It was then that the Khwājah, by supernatural power, drew forth from his wallet warm cakes (kāk), with which he supplied each one of the party, while the Sufi gave them all to drink from his broken water-vessel (badhnā). From this circumstance the Khwājah was called Kāki, and the other Badhni.

KHWAJAH KARAK,

One of the greatest of the ascetics. He lived apart from worldly intercourse and passed his days in ruined places. Khwājah Qutbu'ddin Ushi sent him the habit of a recluse, which he took and threw into the fire. The bearer reviled him to the Khwājah who replied, "Go and demand it back, so that thou mayest know what has in reality happened." When he made his request, Khwājah Karak said, "Go, and take out a cloak from the fireplace, but only your own." When he went to look, he found that habit among many others, and repented of his conduct. His tomb is at Karrah, Mānikpur. [P. 217]

SHAYKH NIZAMU'DDIN ABU'L MUAYYAD.

He stood in the relation of a disciple to his maternal uncle Shaykh Shihābu ddin Ahmad Ghaznavi and flourished during the reign of Shamsu ddin Iltutmish. Khwājah Qutbu ddin Ushi and Shaykh Nizāmu ddin Auliyā, both considered an interview with him as a great happiness.

SHAYKH NAJIBU'DDIN MUHAMMAD

Was the disciple of Shaykh Badru'ddin Firdausi of Samarqand, who was the khalifah or vicegerent of Shaykh Sayfu'ddin Bākharzi, who held the same relation to Shaykh Najmu'ddin Kubra. From thence he came to Delhi and for

a time directed the consciences of men, and there died. Some say that he and Shaykh I'mādu'ddin Tusi were the disciples and vicegerents of Shaykh Ruknu'ddin Firdausi.

Qazi Hamidu'ddin Nagori

Was the son of Atāu'ddin of Bokhārā, where he was born. In the reign of Mu'izzu'ddin Sām he came to Delhi with his father, and for three years held the office of Qāzi at Nāgor. Unexpectedly the desire of a life of retirement seized him. Abandoning the world he journeyed to Baghdad and became the disciple of Shaykh Shihābu'ddin Suhrawardi. There he entered into intimate friendship with Khwājah Qutbu'ddin and after travelling to Hijāz came to Delhi. He died on the night of the 5th of Ramazān, A.H. 644 (Sunday, 9th November, A.D. 1246) without any previous illness. He is buried in Delhi.

SHAYKH HAMIDU'DDIN SUWALI OF NAGOR

Was the son of Shaykh Ahmad. In his early youth he was handsome and rich, but in pursuit of the truth he abandoned the world and applied himself to the practice of austerities. He wore the mantle of discipleship under Khwājah Mu'inu'ddin and attained a high degree of perfection. He was styled Sultān u't-Tāriķin, the King of Recluses. He rolled up the carpet of life on the 29th Rabii' II, A.H. 673 (31st October 1274). His resting place is in Nāgor.

SHAYKH NAJIBU'DDIN MUTAWAKKIL.

Was the brother and disciple of Shaykh Faridu'ddin Ganj i Shakkar. Shaykh Nizāmu'ddin used to say: "When I left Badāon for Delhi desiring to pay my respects to Ganj Shakkar, I met Najibu'ddin and was much benefited by his society." He died on the 9th of Ramazān, A.H. 660 (27th July 1261). [P. 218]

SHAYKH BADRU'DDIN

His birthplace was Ghaznah. In a dream he received the discipleship of Khawājah Qutbu'ddin Ushi, and abandoning all, undertook the toil of a journey in quest of the holy man. In Delhi his desires were fulfilled and he received the office of vicegerent. Qazi Hāmidu'ddin, Shaykh Farid u'ddin Ganj i Shakkar, Sayyid Mubārak Ghaznavi, Maulānā Majdu'ddin Jurjāni, Shaykh Ziyāu'ddin Dihlavi, and other eminent personages received the blessing of his instructions. In his old age when he was unable to move, the sound of a hymn would excite him to ecstasy and he would dance like a youth. When asked how it was that the Shaykh could dance notwithstanding his decrepitude, he replied: "Where is the Shaykh? It is Love that dances." His resting-place is at the foot of his own master's grave.

SHAYKH BADRU'DDIN ISHAQ

Was the son of Minhāju'ddin Bokhāri, but some say he was the son of Ali-b-Ishāq, of Delhi, where he was born. He went through the usual course of studies, but some speculative difficulties not being solved in this country he set out for Bokhārā. At Ajodhan, in intercourse with Ganj i Shakkar, his doubts were removed, and becoming his disciple he set himself to mortify his senses. The Shaykh conferred on him the distinction of being both his vicegerent and his son-in-law. He was buried in that place.

SHAYKH NASIRU'DDIN CHIRAGH-I-DIHLAVI, OR THE LAMP OF DELHI

His name was Mahmud and his birthplace Delhi. He was the disciple and vicegerent of Shaykh Nizāmu'ddin Auliya. He departed from this world that all must leave on the 1st of Ramazān, A.H. 757, (2nd Sept. 1356).

SHAYKH SHARAF (U'DDIN) OF PANIPAI

His patronymic was Abu Ali Qalandar. He live I de a recluse and in one of his writings he says of himself . "At the age of forty I came to Delhi and received instruction under Khwajah Qutbu'ddin. Maulana Wajihu'ddin Paili, Maulana Fakhru'ddin Näfilah. Sadru'ddin. Maulānā Nasiru'ddin, Maulana Mu'inu'ddin Daulatabadi, Maulana Najibu'ddin Samargandi, Maulānā Qutbu'ddin of Mecca, Maulana Ahmad Khansari and other learned men of the day gave me a license to teach and to pronounce judicial decisions, which offices I exercised for twenty years. Unexpectedly I received a call from God, and throwing all my learned books into the Jumna, I set out on travel. In Roumelia I fell in with Shamsu'ddin Tabrizi and Maulana Jalālu'ddin Rumi who presented me with a robe and turban and with many books, which in their presence I threw into the river. Subsequently I came to Pānipat and there lived as a recluse." His tomb is there.

SHAYKH AHMAD.

His birthplace was Nahrwālah, commonly known as Pattan. He became the disciple of Hamidu'ddin Nagori and attained the high rank of a vicegerent; Shaykh Bahāu'ddin Zakariyā who was difficult to please, much commended him. He was buried at Badāon.

SHAYKH JALAL.

Was the son of Sayyid Mahmud-b-Sayyid Jalālu'ddin Bokhāri. He was universally known as Makhdum i Jahāni-yān (lord of mankind).

He was born on the Shab-i-Barāt, 14th Shaabān, A. H. 707, (7th Feb., A. D. 1307). He was the disciple of his father and received a vicegerency from Shaykh Ruknu'drin Abu'l Fath Suhrawardi. It is said [219] that he journeyed much

and had intercourse with Imam Yafai and many others. He visited Shaykh Nasiru'ddin Chiragh i Dihlavi, and became a vicegerent in the Chisht family. He put off his earthly body on Thursday, the Id-i-Qurban 10th Zil Hijjah, A. H. 785, (2nd Feb., A. D. 1383). He was buried al Uchh, near Multan.²²

SHAYKH SHARAFU'DDIN MUNIRI.

Was the son of Yahya-b-Isrāil, the head of the Chishtis. He was instructed under Ganj i Shakkar. His childhood passed, he practised a life of austerity in the hills, and in the desire of seeing Shaykh Nizām Auliyā, he went to Delhi with his eldest brother, Shaykh Jalālu'ddin Muhammad. The Shaykh meanwhile had died, but others affirm that he saw him and by his direction went to Najibu'ddin Firdausi, and after discipleship became his vicegerent. Shaykh Shamsu'ddin Muzaffar of Balkh and Shaykh Jalālu'ddin Awadhi, called also Jamāl Qitāl, received the vicegerency from him. He left many works, and amongst them his writings on the mortification of the spirit are in use as exercises. His burial-place is in Behār.

SHAYKH JAMALU'DDIN HANSAWI.

Was the descendant of Abu Hanifah of Kufah. His profession was to deliver discourses and pronounce judical decisions, but renouncing this office he became the disciple of Shaykh Farid Ganj i Shakkar and reached a high degree of virtue. To whomsoever the Shaykh Farid gave a certificate of vicegerency, he would send him to Jamalu'ddin on whose approval the certificate took effect. If he did not approve the Shaykyh would say that what Jamal tore up Farid could not repair. He was buried in Hansi.

Jalāliya Fakirs, and his memoirs, called the Kitāb-i-Kutbi, have been written by one of his disciples.

SHAH MADAR.

His title was Badii'u'ddin. High and low throughout Hindustan have great devotion to him and attest his great sanctity. They say that he was the disciple of Shaykh Muhammad Tayfuri Bistami. He never wore garments of rich texture and he held aloof from men. Every Monday his doors used to be open and a crowd of suppliants collected. As the people respectfully kept back, it was his custom to recite some story in which those who sought advice received their answer; and whoever heard the response which befitted his case, he rose blessing him. Strange tales are told of him. The Madāri order take their origin from him. His resting-place is in Makanpur.

On the anniversary of his decease every year, crowds of people from distant parts flock thither, carrying banners of all colours, and recite his praises. Qāzi Shihābu'ddin in the reign of Sultān Ibrāhim Sharqi had a quarrel with him of which he found reason to repent.

SHAYKH NUR QUTB-I-AALAM

[220] Was the son of Shaykh Alāu'l Haqq. His true name is Shaykh Nuru'ddin Ahmad-b-O'mar Asad, and he was born at Lähor. He was the disciple and vicegerent of his eminent father, who received the vicegerency from Shaykh Akhi Sirāj. He in some degree attained to the knowledge of the Ineffable Mystery and became a mystic of exalted degree, as his works and some of his letters, in themselves, testify. Shaykh Husām-u'ddin Mānikpuri was his vicegerent. He died in A. H. 808 (A.D., 1405), and was buried at Panduah.

BABA ISHAQ MAGHRABI

Was born at Delhi and was the disciple of Hāji Shaykh Muhammad Kimi. His line of succession through some few intermediaries, traces back to Junayd. Shaykh Ahmad Khattu thus writes: "I went to Delhi in his company. He showed me his old dwelling and said: "At the age of twelve I set out in search of spiritual help from saintly souls and chosing the vocation of a recluse received instruction from many eminent persons, and in the city of Kim, in Mauritania, and in intercourse with Shaykh Muhammad who had made the pilgrimage to Mecca, I attained to the desire of my heart, and became a vicegerent." He returned to Delhi in the reign of Sultān Muhammad who received him with much honour. Khwājah Mu'inu'ddin instructed him in a vision to retire to Khattu in seclusion, and he followed this direction.

SHAYKH AHMAD KHATTU.

His title was Jamalu'ddin and he was born at Delhi, in A. H. 737 (A.D. 1336), of a noble family of that city. He was the disciple and vicegerent of Bābā Ishāq Maghrabi. His name was Nasiru'ddin. By a freak of fortune he was carried away from his dwelling in a tempest of wind. After a time he was blessed with the instruction of Bābā Ishāq Maghrabi and garnered a store of secular and theological learning. In the reign of Sultān Ahmad Gujarāti (A.D. (1411-43), he came to Gujarāt where all classes received him with respect and were loud in his praise. He subsequently travelled in Arabia and Persia and met many eminent doctors. He was buried in Sarkhech, near Ahmadābād.

SHAYKH SADRU'DDIN

Was the son of Sayyid Ahmad Kabir-b-Sayyid Jalālu'-ddin Bokhāri, and was commonly known as Rāju Qitāl.³³ He was the disciple and vice-gerent of his father and received also the latter distinction from his brother Makhdum-i-

²³ See Ferishta under Jalālu'ddin Husayn Bokhāri, for the history of the family.

Jahāniyān and Shaykh Ruknu'ddin Abu'l-Fath. Sultān Firoz held him in great honour. He slept his last sleep in A.H. 806 (A.D. 1403).

SHAYKH ALAU'DDIN MUHAMMAD

Was the grandson of Shaykh Faridu'ddin Ganj i Shakkar, and son of Badru'ddin Sulayman. He was a man of holy and commendable life and attained to great spiritual eminence. On his decease Sultan Muhammad Tughlak built a mausoleum over his remains. ([P. 221]

SAYYID MUHAMMAD GESUDARAZ (LONG HAIR)

Was the disciple and vicegerent of Shaykh Nasiru'ddin Chirāgh-i-Dihli. He became proficient in theology and secular knowledge and by the direction of his spiritual guide went from Delhi to the Dekhan, where he was received with honour by high and low. He died in A. H. 825 (A.D. 1421-2), and was buried at Kulbargah. [Gulbarga]

QUTB-I-AALAM.

His patronymic was Abu Muhammad, and his title Burhānu'ddin. He was the son of Shāh Muhammad-b-Sayyid Jalālu'ddin Makhdum-i-Jahāniyān, and was born in A.H. 790 (A.D. 1388). He was the disciple of his illustrious father and received the vicegerency from Shaykh Ahmad Khattu. In the reign of Sultān Muhammad (Shāh Karim, A.D. 1443-51), the descendant of Sultān Muzaffar Shāh by two removes, by order of his father he came to Gujarāt and there became eminent in secular and speculative learning. He died in A.H. 857 (A.D. 1453). His tomb is in Batwah, near Ahmadābād.

SHAH AALAM.

His name was Sayyid Muhammad, he was the son of Qutb-i-Aālam and was born on the 9th of Zu'lqaadah,

A.H. 817 (18th January 1415). He was the disciple of his father from whom he received the vicegerency and attained to eminent sanctity. Extraordinary miracles are related of him. His days came to an end on the 20th Jumāda II.. A.H. 880 (21st Oct. 1475). He lies buried at Rasulābād, near Ahmadābād.

SHAYKH QUTBU'DDIN

Was the son of Shaykh Burhānu'ddin-b-Shaykh Jamālu'ddin of Hānsi and the disciple and vicegerent of Shaykh Nizāmu'ddin Auliyā. He lived apart from men and took no presents from princes. Sultān Muhammad in person went to Hānsi and brought him to Delhi. He is buried at Hānsi.

SHAYKH ALI PAYRAV

Was the son of Maulana Ahmad Mahayami. He became proficient in worldly and spiritual knowledge and explained the mysteries after the manner of Shaykh Muhyi'ddin Arabi. He has left many works on theology, but most of them are no longer extant.

SAYYID MUHAMMAD JAUNPURI

Was the son of Sayyid Badh Uwaysi. He received instruction under many holy men and was learned in spiritual and secular knowledge. Carried away by extravagance he laid claim to be a Mahdi and many followers gathered round him and numerous miracles are ascribed to him. He is the origin of the Mahdavis. From Jaunpur he went to Gujarāt and was much in favour with Sultān Mahmud the Great. The narrow-mindedness of worldlings made India intolerable to him and he resolved to pass into Persia, but died at Farrah and was there buried.

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QAZI KHAN.

His name was Yusuf and his birthplace Zafarābād. He was the disciple and vicegerent of Shaykh Hasan Tāhir, surnamed Kamālu'l Haqq. He was also the disciple of Hāji Hāmid who was the vicegerent of Husamu'ddin Mānikpuri. He acquired secular and theological learning. His spiritual guide, during his own lifetime, charged him with the superintendence of his vicegerents, and at his death entrusted to his care his own son Abdu'l Aziz. On the 15th of Safar, A.H. 900 (13th November 1494), he rested from the troubles of the world.

MIR SAYYID ALI QAWAM.

His birthplace was Siwanah. He was the disciple and vicegerent of Bahau'ddin Jaunpuri Shattari. Some say that he was instructed by Shaykh Qasa Shattari, while others affirm that his connection with all spiritual families can be correctly proved. In the year A.H. 905 (A.D. 1499), he passed from earth. His restingplace is Jaunpur.

QAZI MAHMUD

Was the son of Shaykh Jālindha-b-Muhammad Gujarāti. He was born in Birpur. He was the disciple of his father and received the mantle of vicegerency from Shāh Aālam. Divine love filled his heart and many an edifying discourse fell from his lips. From the age of eleven he was spiritually illumined, and wonderful accounts are given regarding him. On the 13th Rabii' II. of the year A.H. 942 (A.D. 1535) in which the Emperor Humāyun defeated Bahādur (Shāh) of Gujarāt, he passed to the other world and lies buried in Birpur.

SHAYKH MAUDUD AL-LARI

Was the disciple of Bābā Nizām Abdāl. He went through the usual course of studies for a time under Maulānā

Abdu'l Ghafur of Lär and sought spiritual guidance from many souls. He was thoroughly versed in the methods of exposition and exegesis of the schools and skilled in the complicated problems of philosophy, and he had met Shāh Niamatu'llah Wali and Shāh Qāsim Anwār. He slept his last sleep in Ramazān A.H. 937 (A.D. 1530).

SHAYKH HAJI ABD'UL WAHHAB-AL-BOKHARI.

Shaykh Jalālu'ddin Bokhāri had two sons. Makhdum-i-Jahāniyān was the son of Sayyid Mahmud and this (Shaykh Hāji) was descended from (the other son), Sayyid Ahmad. He was the disciple and pupil of Sayyid Sadru'ddin Bokhāri. He was versed in secular and speculative science. He died in A.H. 932 (A.D. 1525-26). [P. 223]

SHAYKH ABDU'R RAZZAQ

Was born at Jhanjhāna²⁴ and was the disciple and vicegerent of Shāh Muhammad Hasan and the son of Shaykh Hasan Tāhir. At first he went through the usual course of studies which he abandoned for a higher aim. He died in A.H. 949 (A.D. 1542), and was buried at Jhanjhāna.

SHAYKH ABDU'L QUDDUS.

He asserted himself to be a descendant of Abu Hanifah. He was the disciple of Shaykh Muhammad-b-Shaykh Aärif-b-Shaykh Ahmad Abd'ul Haqq. He acquired secular and spiritual learning and became eminent in theology. Many of his mystical sayings are recorded. The Emperor Humāyun with a few of the learned, visited him in his cell and an animated controversy took place. He folded up the carpet of his life in A.H. 950 (A.D. 1543). He was buried at Gangoyah, 25 near Delhi.

²⁴ In the Muzaffarnagar dist., U. P.
²⁶ Gangoh, is a town in the Sahāranpur dist., U. P. It consists of an old and new querter, the former founded by the legendary

SAYYID IBRAHIM

Was the son of Mu'inu'ddin-b-Abdu'l Qādir Husayni. His birthplace was Iraj. He was the disciple of Shaykh Bahāu'ddin Qādiri Shattāri. He was proficient in all learning and rarely equalled for his good deeds. He had travelled much, and in the reign of Sultān Sikandar Lodi (A.D. 1517-40) went to Delhi. Shaykh Abdu'llah of Delhi, Miyān Lādan, Maulānā Abdu'l Qādir the soapmaker, and other celebrated doctors acknowledged his sanctity. He yielded up his fleeting life in A.H. 953 or 958 (A.D. 1546-51). He was buried at Delhi.

SHAYKH AMAN.

His name was Abdu'l Malik, son of Abdu'l Ghafur. He was the disciple of Shaykh Muhammad Hasan. By the direction of his master, he received various instruction under Shaykh Muhammad Maudud al-Lāri. He died on the 12th Rabii' II., A.H. 958 (20th April, 1551)

SHAYKH JAMAL

Was the son of Shaykh Hamzah and his father's disciple. He chiefly led a retired life though among worldly occupations. He was buried at Dharsu.

I think it fitting to conclude these notices with an account of (the prophets) Khizr and Elias, and thus supplicate an enduring remembrance.

KHIZR.

His name was Balyan, the son of Kalyan, the son of Faligh (Phaleg), the son of Aabir (Heber), the son of Shalikh (Sale), the son of Arfakshad (Arphaxad), the son of Sam,

hero Rājā Gang and the latter by Shaykh Abdu'l Quddus who gives his title to the western suburb, where his tomb still stands among other sacred shrines.

(Sem), the son of Nuh (Noe). Some [P. 224] call him Kalyāan-b-Malkān, others Malkān, the son of Balyān, the son of Kalvan, the son of Simeon, the son of Sam, the son of Noe.26 His patronymic was Abu'l Abbas. He was called Khizr because he sat upon a white skin which through the blessed influence of his feet turned to green. He was born in the time of Moses within two parasangs of Shirāz, or according to another opinion in the time of Abraham. Some place him shortly before the mission of Abraham and others, a considerable time after. Shaykh Alau'ddaulah in his U'rwat (li Ahli'lkhalwat wa'ljalwat)27 (ansa viris solitariis et multum conspicuis oblata) says of him, "he has many wives. and children are born to him and he gives them names, but no one can find a trace of him. It is now one hundred years and seven months that he has withdrawn himself from the world, and no children of his survive. In his early profession of broker he used to buy and sell and secure profit, and borrow and give in pledge; he is also learned in alchemy and knows where the treasures of the world lie buried, and by the command of God expends them in the service of the people, and never acts solely for his own benefit. He delights in music and dances, and will often pass a day and a night together in an ecstatic trance. A thousand years ago he renewed his youth, and subsequent to that time this occurs after every one hundred and twenty years." The Shaykh continues: "In this year the period of renewal takes place and from the epoch of the Hijrah up to this day the renewal has occurred seven times. He associates, and prays with

The generations of Sem to Abram in Gen. xi. descend through Arphaxed, Sale, Heber, and Phaleg. The further generations through Reu and Serug are here displaced for the fictitious substitutes.

This work is in Persian by Shaykh Alau'ddaulah Ahmad-b-Muhammad Simnani and was completed on the 23rd Muharram, A.H. 721 (A.D. 31st January 1321), in the town of Sufiyabad. [Hāji Khalifah.]

the (saints called) Qutb and Abdāl. They say that once in Medina some camel-men were having a fight with stones. A piece of stone struck Khizr on the head and cut it open. The wound chilled and became inflamed and his illness lasted three months. His prophetic office is disputed though many believe it. He accompanied Zu'l Qarnayn (the two-horned Alexander) in search of the water of life, and obtained the boon of length of days. Some say that both Elias and Khizr obtained the water of life, and others maintain that Khizr is a spirit who assumes various bodily forms, and they deny him to be of mortal race.

ELIAS

Was the son of Sem, the son of Noe, and grandfather of Khizr. Some authorities give his father's name as Yāsin and some give Nusayy and different other names. Others again derive his genealogy thus,—that he was the son of Phineas, the son of Eleazar (l'izār), the son of Aaren the brother of Moses. There is also a disagreement regarding his prophetical office. The Qutbs, Abdāls, and Khizr, stand to him in the light of disciples and revere him. He is tall of stature, with a large head; is reserved in speech and absorbed in thought. He has a solemn and awe-inspiring exterior, and the mysteries of all things are revealed to him. It is said that he was raised up for the defence of the faith of Moses

world from end to end, the word Qarn signifying a horn, a term applied also to the extremities of the universe. It is given to him

in the Quran (Sur. xviii. vv. 82, 84, 92).

saints are providentially raised to prove the truth of the prophetic mission, and are the sources of grace to the faithful and an assurance of victory to them over the infidels. They are 4,000 in number; do not recognise each other, nor know their own dignity and are hidden both from themselves and mankind. Three hundred among these have the office of binding and loosing, and are called Akhyār (the Good). Forty others are called Abdāl (Just). Seven others are termed Abrār (Pious). Three others are Nuqaba (Leaders) and one is termed Qutb (Pillar), or Ghaus (Defender).

and was sent as an inspired guide to the people of Baalbak; when he found that his admonitions were of no avail, he asked for his deliverence from the Almighty, and his prayer was heard. One day he went up into a hill with Eliseus, the son of Akhtub, and a fiery chariot with its equipage and harness appeared, and leaving Eliseus as his successor he mounted the chariot and vanished from sight. [P. 225]

Extraordinary accounts are told of these two personages Khizr and Elias. The first mentioned roams chiefly over dry land and brings those who have strayed into the right path; the latter keeps by the coasts. Some reverse these conditions. Each has ten holy persons as their assistants, and both are said to have lived for many years and associate together. Some of the learned, however, do not believe in their existence. Elias is prayed to for the prevention of calamities, and Khizr for their remission after they have befallen.

PRAISE BE TO GOD

That a general review of the state of Hindustan has been now presented and the modes of thought and the customs of its people explicitly recorded. As time pressed and my mind was ill at ease, I did not formulate the proofs of their doctrine nor compare them with the systems of Greece and Persia. Neither did I set down the various conflicting opinions among the Hindus, nor express the thoughts that occurred

so "And when he was there and sat under a juniper tree he requested for his soul that he might die and said, "It is enough for me, Lord, take away my soul: for I am no better than my fathers."

Thus spoke Eliseus as he fled from Jezabel to Bersabee of Juda. Abul Fazl confounds Samaria with Heliopolis, and, perhaps, from the similarity of names, places the slaughter of the false prophets of Baal at Mount Carmel in Baalbak. Mount Carmel is still remembered as the Jabal Mär Elyäs. Eliseus was the son of Saphat of Abelmeula. Tabari gives Elias the genealogy assigned by Abu'l Fazl and calls Eliseus the son of Akhtub. See Tabari, Zotenberg, p. 419, 10.

thereon to this bewildered member of the synod of creation. Were my spirit not too much oppressed by the gloomy toil of these pages and the deciphering of the characters of manuscripts, and did fortune favour and continue its aid, I would first arrange these systems of philosophy in due order and weigh them with those of the Grecian and Persian Schools, contributing somewhat of my own impartial conclusions in measured approval or disapproval, as my fastidious judgment dictated.

[A. F. disappointed by the talk of his 5 Muslim and 9 Hindu philosepher companions.]

Before I had left my obscure home and had approached the gracious threshold of majesty which is the abode where truth meets with recognition, and had mixed with the learned of all creeds, it had been my constant wish that the Bountiful Giver of all desires would vouchsafe to me the companionship of five intelligent and well-disposed persons, namely, a scholar of literary attainments; a profound philosopher; a mystic of holy life; an accomplished rhetorician; and a thinker of speculative and lofty spirit. It was herein my desire that each of these through his own perspicacity and just views of the divine Government, should not regard the truth as captive to his own discoveries, but ever suspicious of his own liability to error, advance in his inquiries with a bold step so that in the common pursuit of truth, the opinions of each might be lucidly set forth. The prescriptive duties of investigation might, in such circumstances, be exercised, and convincing argument distinguished from specious fallacy and proof from all beside it, in the hope that from the heartlacerating thorn-brakes of discord there might be a happy transition into the garden of unity. When from seclusion I became engaged in public affairs, the five wishes of my aspiring mind grew to fourteen, and nine Hindus increased the contemplated list. I found the majority of them, bowever, of a retrograde tendency, spinning like a silk-worm.

a tissue round themselves, immeshed in their own conclusions, and conceding attainment of the truth to no other, while foxlike, artfully insinuating their own views. In dejection of spirit [P. 226] as one crazy, I nigh came unto losing the control of my reason and breaking the warp and woof of life. On a sudden the star of my fortune blazed in the ascendant and the Imperial grace interposed in my favour, and thus rescued in some measure from vain imaginings, I found peace in the pleasant pastures of universal toleration (sulh-i-kul).

I trust that by the happy destiny of this God-fearing monarch this union will be realised, and my long-cherished desires bloom with the radiance of fulfilment.

O Lord! Unto my soul its sight restore,
And let my feet Thy stair of Truth explore.
The treasures of Thy clemency set free
And bid my spirit find its goal in Thee.
Grant through life's busy ways still at my side,
Thy grace may aid me and Thy mercy guide.

BOOK THE FIFTH.

COMPRISING THE HAPPY SAYINGS OF HIS MAJESTY,

AND THE CONCLUSION,

With a brief notice of the Author.

(P. 227.) As I have now succinctly described the Sacred Institutes, in acknowledgment of my own obligations and as a gift of price to the rest of mankind, it appears fitting that I should record somewhat of the sayings of His Imperial Majesty in relation both to secular and spiritual concerns, in order that his words and actions may become known to far and near.

The following are among his utterances:-

There exists a bond between the Creator and the creature which is not expressible in language.

Each thing has a quality inseparable from it and the heart is influenced by some irresistible attachment to the power of which it submits and builds thereon the foundation of its sorrows and joys. Whosoever by his brilliant destiny withdraws his affections from all worldly concerns, attains to the Divine love which is above all others.

(P. 228.) The existence of creatures depends on no other bond than this. Whoever is gifted with this wisdom shall reach a high perfection.

Whosoever habituates himself to preserve this sacred relation, will be withheld from it by no other occupation.

Hindu women fetch water from their rivers, tanks or wells, and many of them bear several pitchers one above the other upon their heads and converse and chat freely with their companions, walking the while over any inequalities of ground. If the heart in like manner preserves the balance of its pitchers, no harm will befall them. Why should men be inferior to these in their relations with the Almighty.

When this interior affection both in its immaterial and material aspects is thus strengthened, who can sever the attachment of the rational soul to the Supreme Being?

From the practice of real asceticism the transition is easy to unlawful mendicancy. Since a thing is best comprehended by contrast with its opposite, the latter also thus comes to be pleasurably regarded.

The intellect will not with the full assent of reason, confessedly oppose the divine law, but some do not believe in the divine books, nor credit that the Supreme essence that is tongueless will express itself in human speech, while others again differ in their interpretation of them.

The divine grace is shed upon all alike, but some fromunpreparedness in due season and others from incapacity are unable to profit thereby; the handiwork of the potter evidences this truth.

The object of outward worship which they affect to call a new divine institute, is for the awakening of slumberers, otherwise the praise of God comes from the heart not the body.

The first degree of dutiful obedience is not to scowl with knitted brows when trials befall, but regarding them as the bitter remedies of a physician, to accept them with a cheerful countenance.

That which is without form cannot be seen whether in sleeping or waking, but it is apprehensible by force of imagination. To behold God in vision is, in fact, to be understood in this sense.

Most worshippers of God are intent on the advancement of their own desires not on His worship.

As the dark hair turns to grey, the hope arises that this hue which is never far distant, may be kept burnished by the

wondrous workings of destiny, in order that the rust of the heart may be cleansed with it and its vision illumined

Some there are who maintain that men walk in opposition to the will of God, and that their salvation depends on their renunciation of this evil habit; but he who is spiritually illumined knows that none can effectually oppose His commands, and physicians from this reflection provide a remedy for those that are sick.

Each person according to his condition gives the Supreme Being a name, but in reality to name the Unknowable is vain.

(P. 229.) The object of an appellative is the removal of ambiguity, but this is not predicable of the All Holy Essence.

There is no need to discuss the point that a vacuum in nature is impossible. God is omnipresent.

All that men account good and bad and virtue and vice, arises from the wondrous phases of God's grace: the discordant effects result from human action.

To impute the existence of evil to Satan is to make him a co-partner of the Almighty. If he is the robber, who is responsible for his being one?

The legend of Satan is an old-world notion. Who has the power to oppose the will of God?

A peasant was seized with a desire to seek the Lord. His spiritual guide learning his love for his cow, placed him in a confined space and directed him to exercise himself in meditation on that object. After a time he called him forth to test him. As the man had been absorbed in that contemplation, he persuaded himself that he had horns, and replied that his horns prevented his exit. His director seeing his single-mindedness, by degrees weaned him from his error.

The superiority of man rests on the jewel of reason. It is meet that he should labour in its burnishing, and turn not from its instruction.

A man is the disciple of his own reason. If it has naturally a good lustre, it becomes itself his director, and if

it gains it under the direction of a higher mind, it is still a guide.

Commending obedience to the dictates of reason and reproving a slavish following of others need the aid of no arguments. If imitation were commendable, the prophets would have followed their predecessors.

Many whose minds are diseased persuade themselves into an affectation of health, but the spiritual physician recognises the impress on their brows.

As the body becomes sickly from indisposition, so the mind has its disorder; knowledge decays until a remedy is applied.

For a disordered mind there is no healing like the society of the virtuous.

To read the characters of men is a thing of great difficulty and is not in the power of every one.

The soul notwithstanding its superiority, takes the tone of the natural disposition by association with it and the brilliancy of its lustre thus becomes dimmed with dirt.

[P. 230.] Through dullness of insight the concerns of the soul which are the source of happiness are neglected, while the pampering of the body which enfeebles the spirit, is eagerly practised.

Men through attachments to their associates acquire their disposition, and much of good and of evil thus results to them.

When his understanding is still undeveloped, man is in constant change of mood; at one time taking joy in festivities, at another sitting disconsolate in the house of mourning. When his vision is raised to higher things, sorrow and joy withdraw.

Many in the conceit of their imagination and entangled in the thornbrake of a blind assent to tradition, believe themselves to be followers of reason, whereas if it be carefully regarded they are not in its vicinity.

Many simpletons, worshippers of imitative custom, mis-

take the traditions of the ancients for the dictates of reason, and garner for themselves eternal perdition.

Acts and words are variously the effects of good sense, or of desire or of passion, but through the withdrawal of impartial judgment the facts are noisily misrepresented.

When rising from sleep which is a semblance of death, one should be earnest in giving thanks for a renewed life by seemly thoughts and virtuous actions.

Conscience requires that rectitude and probity which is commendable in the sight of all men, should be associated with appropriate action.

One should first labour for one's own edification and then turn to the acquisition of knowledge in the hope of lighting the lamp of wisdom and extinguishing the risings of dissension.

Alas! that in the first flush of youth our inestimable lives are unworthily spent. Let us hope that in future they may virtuously terminate.

The vulgar believe in miracles, but the wise man accepts nothing without adequate proof.

Although temporal and spiritual prosperity are based on the due worship of God, the welfare of children first lies in obedience to their fathers.

Alas! that the Emperor Humāyun died so early and that I had no opportunity of showing him faithful service!

The sorrows of men arise from their seeking their fortune before its destined time, or above what is decreed for them.

(To his son.) My good counsel is your brother. Hold it in honour.

(P. 231.) Hakim Mirzā' is a memorial of the Emperor Humāyun. Though he has acted ungratefully, I can be no

Akbar's brother, king of Kābul. He rebelled against Akbar, invaded India and besieged Lahor in the 11th year of Akbar's reign. See Akbarnamah, Eng. tr., vol. ii. 407-412. vol. iii. 532-543.

other than forbearing. Some bold spirits asked permission to lie in ambush and put an end to that rebel. I could not consent, thinking it remote from what was befitting in his regard. Thus both that distinguished memorial of majesty escaped from harm, and my devoted friends were shielded from peril.

The concerns of men are personal to themselves but through the predominance of greed and passion they intrude upon (those of) others.

It is meet that worldlings should lead a busy life in order that idleness may be discouraged and the desires may not wander towards unlawful objects.

It was my object that mendicancy should disappear from my dominions. Many persons were plentifully supplied with means, but through the malady of avarice it proved of no avail.

The world of existence is amenable only to kindness. No living creature deserves rejection.

The impulse of avarice, like pride, is not consonant with magnanimity, and, therefore, should not be suffered to enter or influence the mind.

The office of a spiritual director is to discern the state of the soul and to set about its reform, and lies not in growing the locks of an Ethiop and patching a tattered robe and holding formal discourses to an audience.

By guidance is meant indication of the road, not the gathering together of disciples.

To make a disciple is to instruct him in the service of God, not to make him a personal attendant.

Formerly I persecuted men into conformity with my faith and deemed it Islām. As I grew in knowledge, I was overwhelmed with shame. Not being a Muslim myself, it was unmeet to force others to become such. What constancy is to be expected from proselytes on compulsion?

Clemency and benevolence are the sources of happiness and length of days. Sheep that produce but one or two young ones in a year are in great numbers, while dogs not-withstanding their prolificacy are few.

The phrase is remarkable that one sits down [when asked] to show the road, but one rises to rob it.²

The difficulty is to live in the world and to refrain from evil, for the life of a recluse is one of bodily ease.

Although knowledge in itself is regarded as the summit of perfection, yet unless displayed in action it bears not the impress of worth; indeed, it may be considered worse than ignorance.

(P. 232.) Men from shortsightedness frequently seek their own advantage in what is harmful to them: how much the more must they err in regard to others.

Men through blindness do not observe what is around them, intent only on their own advantage. If a cat defiles its claws in the blood of a pigeon they are annoyed, but if it catches a mouse they rejoice? In what way has the bird served them or the latter unfortunate animal done them wrong?

The first step in this long road is not to give the rein to desire and anger, but to take a measured rule and align one's actions thereon.

When the light of wisdom shines, a man distinguishes what is truly his own. What he has is only borrowed.

In a storehouse, mice and sparrows and other animals have a common interest but from ill-nature each thinks the place his own.

Most people avoid the society of those they dislike, and do not let the displeasure of God occupy their thoughts.

It is my duty to be in good understanding with all men. If they walk in the way of God's will, interference with them

² Alluding to the Persian idiom. Ba-rāhnumāi nishistan wa ba-rāhzani barkhāstan.

would be in itself reprehensible: and if otherwise, they are under the malady of ignorance and deserve my compassion.

An artisan who rises to eminence in his profession has the grace of God with him. The worship of God is the occasion of his being honoured.

Sleep and food are a means for the renewal of strength in seeking to do the will of God. Miserable man from folly regards them as an end.

Although sleep brings health of body, yet as life is the greatest gift of God, it were better that it should be spent in wakefulness.

A man of penetration finds no (preordained) injustice. He regards adversity as a chastisement.

A wise man does not take heed for his daily sustenance. The analogy of bondsman and servant is an exhortation to him.

Happy is he who hath an ear wherewith to hear and an eye to see, for as truth cannot be overthrown, [even] a blind man in possession thereof will not choose a bad path.

Children are the young saplings in the garden of life. To love them is to turn our minds to the Bountiful Creator.

(P. 233.) To bestow in alms a coin which bears the impress of the name of God is very reprehensible.

In our prayers we should avoid the asking of temporal blessings in which the humiliation of another person is involved.

As to the seeking after God being thought to consist in controlling the natural bent of the spirit, most people find the solution of their troubles therein; were it otherwise, fruition would in many become a stair to further gratification.

The material world is analogous to the world of the spirit, for as in the one what is given in trust is again reclaimed,

^a The latter part of this sentence is corrupt in the reading. My rendering is, therefore, conjectural,

so in the other, works are required in accordance with knowledge.

In the receiving of admonition there is no respect of age or wealth. No distinction is recognized between the tender in years or the poor and others in the necessity of listening to the truth.

The prophets were all illiterate. Believers should therefore retain one of their sons in that condition.

Since the poet builds on fiction, his creation cannot be seriously accepted.

A rope-dancer performs with feet and hands, a poet with his tongue.

He who happily introduces the verses of another in his own compositions or appositely quotes them, discovers the other's merit and his own.

A certain seeker after God was addicted to gluttony. He went to an adviser of practical experience, who gave him a bowl made of (the shell of a dried) pumpkin which he was told to fill in measuring his daily food and also to grind its edge a little (daily) and apply (the paste) to his forehead as a sectarian mark. At the same time, to throw him off the scent, he taught him a prayer to be recited. In a short time his failing was cured.⁵

Would that we did not hear of such differences of opinion among professors of secular learning, nor were confounded by contradictory commentaries and explanations of tradition.

^{4 &}quot;Who shall follow the appostle, the illiterate prophet."
Qurān, vii; and again "It is he who hath raised up amidst the illiterate Arabians an apostle from among themselves." Sur. lxii.

Thus, starting with his accustomed quantity of food on the

Thus, starting with his accustomed quantity of food on the first day, the amount of it was reduced imperceptibly day by day and the patient felt no sudden privation. I have heard of a Bengali Vaishnav sādhu who reduced his food in old age by measuring out his daily portion of rice in a half cocoanut shell, whose edge he used to rub against his curry-stone once daily, thus decreasing its capacity imperceptibly. Jarrett missed the point of the anecdote in his translation, which I have rejected. (J. S.)

Discourses on philosophy have such a charm for me that they distract me from all else, and I forcibly restrain myself from listening to them, lest the necessary duties of the hour should be neglected.

There are but three causes of aberrant judgment, viz., incapacity of mind; the society of enemies in the guise of friends; the duplicity of friends that seek their own interest.

Would that none other than the prudent had the reading and writing of letters, in order that the base might have no opportunity of fabrication for their own purposes, or of persuading short-sighted simpletons by every specious lie.

The detection of fabrication is exceedingly difficult, but it can be compassed by weighing well the words of the

speaker.

Although I am the master of so vast a kingdom, and all the appliances of government are to my hand, yet since true greatness consists in doing the will of God, my mind is not at ease in this diversity of sects and creeds, and my heart is oppressed by this outward pomp of circumstance; with what satisfaction can I undertake the conquest of empire? How I wish for the coming of some pious man, who will resolve the distractions of my heart.

On the completion of my twentieth year, I experienced an internal bitterness, and from the lack of spiritual provision for my last journey, my soul was seized with exceeding

sorrow. [P. 234.]

A darvesh on the northern bank of the Rāvi, entered his cell and allowed no one to frequent it. On being asked the reason, he replied, that he was engaged in a special devotion, and that until the death of Abdu'llah Khān, governor of Turān, he would not leave it, nor allow any one access to

^{*}See Vol. I. XXX. and 468; this prince had written to Akbar regarding his apostasy from Islām, and Mirān Sadr and Hakim Humām were sent to him on an embassy to explain matters with an ambiguous Arabic verse to the effect that, as God and the Prophet had not escaped the slander of men neither could His

him. His majesty said, "If he is one whose prayers are heard, then let him gird up his loins for my welfare, and refrain from this foolish prayer."

If I could but find any one capable of governing the kingdom, I would at once place this burden upon his

shoulders and withdraw therefrom.

If I were guilty of an unjust act, I would rise in judgment against myself. What shall I say, then, of my sone, my kindred and others?

The Giver of desires has committed to my charge many a noble fortress. No one has thought of provisioning them, yet confiding in the strength of God, no further apprehension alarms me.

Whoever seeks from me permission to retire from the world will neet with cheerful acquiescence in his desires. If he has really withdrawn his heart from the world that deceives but fools, to dissuade him therefrom would be very reprehensible; but if he only affects it from ostentation, he will receive the requital thereof.

If in ailments of the body which are visible, its physicians have made and do make such errors of treatment, in the disorders of the soul which is invisible and its remedies scarce

attainable, what medicine will avail?

It was the effect of the grace of God that I found no capable minister, otherwise people would have considered my measures had been devised by him.

On the day when the Almighty wills that my life should

cease, I also would not further prolong it.

My constant prayer to the Supreme Giver is that when my thoughts and actions no longer please Him, he may take my life, in order that I may not every moment add to His displeasure.

Majosty. I am not sure whether I have seized the sense of the concluding lines. I infer that Akbar wished it to be known that he had no grudge against Abdu'llah. [Jarrett] [The translation of the last sentence has been changed by me. J. S.]

The solution of difficulties depends on the assistance of God, and the evidence of the latter is the meeting with a wise spiritual director. Many persons through not discovering such a one, have their real capabilities obscured.

[P. 235.] One night my heart was weary of the burden of life, when suddenly, between sleeping and waking, a strange vision appeared to me, and my spirit was somewhat comforted.

Whosoever with a sincere heart and in simplicity of mind follows my institutes will profit, both spiritually and temporally, to the fulfilment of his wishes.

The source of misery is self-aggrandizement and unlawful desires.

The welfare of those who are privileged to confidential counsel at the court of great monarchs has been said to lie in rectitude and loyalty; no self-interest or mercenary motive should intervene; and especially in times of the royal displeasure, if no conciliatory language will avail, they should be silent.

A special grace proceeds from the sun in favour of kings, and for this reason they pray and consider it a worship of the Almighty; but the short-sighted are thereby scandalized.

How can the common people possessed only with the desire of gain, look with respect upon sordid men of wealth. From ignorance these fail in reverence to this fountain of light, and reproach him who prays to it. If their understanding were not at fault how could they forget the Surah beginning "By the sun," &c.?

The XCl. of the Kurān. "By the sun and its rising brightness; by the moon when she followeth him: by the day when it showeth its splendour: by the night when it covereth him with darkness: by the heaven and him who built it: by the earth and him who spread it forth how is he who hath purified the same, happy, but he who hath corrupted the same is miserable."—Sale.

The reason why the hair of the head turns grey first is because it comes before the beard and the whiskers.

I have heard no good reason from the Hindus for the sounding of the gong and blowing the conch at the time of worship. It must be for the purpose of warning and recollection.

When it rains, if light breaks from the west, the air will clear, for, radiance from the quarter whence darkness proceedeth is a harbinger of light.

The reason why under the Muhammadan law an inheritance seldom passes to the daughter notwithstanding that her helplessness seems deserving of greater consideration, is that she passes to her husband's house and the legacy would go to a stranger.

The meat which is nearer the bone is sweeter because it contains the essence of the nutriment.

Fruit in a plentiful season is never so luscious and sweet, because the source of supply of these qualities is proportionately subdivided.

The tales of the ancients, that, in certain places of worship fire from heaven was present, were not credited, and it was held to be exaggeration, it not being known that a mirror or the sun-crystal⁸ being held to the sun would produce fire.

For all kinds of animals there is a fixed breeding season. Man alone is constantly under the impulse of desire to that end. Indeed, by this providential multiplication of the species a greater stability is given to the bond of union upon which the foundation of social life depends.

[P. 236] Eating anything that dies of itself is unlawful. There is a natural repugnance to it.

[&]quot;The Surya-kānta or 'sun-loved,' a sunstone or crystal, cool to the touch and supposed to possess fabulous properties because, like a glass lens, it gives out heat when exposed to the rays of the sun. Monier-Williams, S. D.

A man's being eaten after he has been killed is the just requital of his own baseness.9

The prohibition against touching anything killed by the act of God, the cause of which is unknown, is in order to respect the dead.

Blood contains the principle of life. To avoid eating thereof in to honour life.

The birth of ugliness from beauty is not surprising. Indeed, if a man were to beget a different kind of animal, it would not be extraordinary, for as a matter of fact forms are designed from concepts, and since these are capable of being imagined, their production may take place.

If the love of the husband prevail, he but idolises his own partialities and begets a daughter; if the wife has the stronger affection, the image of her husband is oftenest present, and a boy appears.

As to what is said in ethical treatises, that an enemy should not be despised, the meaning is that since friendship and enmity are but phantasms of the divine dispensation, one should overlook the intervening enemy and view the Deity beyond.

Many a disciple surpasses his master, and his attitude to him must be one of deference and submission.

Miracles occur in the temples of every creed. This is the product of mental enthusiasm, for the truth can be but with one.

A gift is the deposit of a pledge and a lightening of an obligation from a former debt.

The origin of wearing the sacred thread (in a Brāhman), is that in ancient times they used to pray with a rope round their necks, and their successors have made this a religious obligation.

Or perhaps 'his own gormandising nature.' (Khwari.)

In Hindustan no one has ever set himself up as a prophet. The reason is that pretensions to divinity have superseded it.

When any one is said to be of a good, or low origin, what is meant is, that one of his ancestors attained to spiritual or temporal distinction, or was known to fame from connection with some city or profession. It appears to me that good-breeding should involve good works.

It is said that greater friendship is shown by the receiver of a gift than by the giver; but I consider that in the giver it is personal. He does not give but to a worthy object, and this can be evidenced in a receiver only by a gift.

(P. 237.) In Hindu treatises it is said that, in the acquisition of learning or of wealth, a man should so toil as though he were never to grow old, or to die." But since the luxurious, from fear of these two sources of despair, withhold themselves from labour, it appears to me that in acquiring these twin needs of a worldly career, we should regard each morrow as our last, and postpone not the work of one day to the next.

The Hindu philosopher says that in the garnering of good works, one should have death constantly in view, and, placing no reliance on youth and life, never relax one's efforts. But to me it seems that in the pursuit of virtue, the idea of death should not be entertained, so that freed from hopes and fears, we should practise virtue for the sake of its own worth.

It is strange that in the time of our Prophet no commentaries on the Qurän were made, so that differences of interpretation might not afterwards arise.

wealth, as if he were never to grow old, or to die: but he must practise virtue as if Death had already seized him by the locks." Introd. Hitopadesa. Sir W. Jones' Trans. [corrected here by J. S.]

¹⁰ Cf. Benjamin Franklin's Autobiography, ch. vi. An old maxim I had learned . . . says, "He that has once done you a kindness will be more ready to do you another, than he whom you yourself have obliged." [J. S.]

11 "The wise man must fix his thoughts on knowledge and

(Regarding the saying), "the love of a cat is a part of religion," if the noun of action is not in construction with the agent, as Mir Sayyid Sharif put it to escape a difficulty, it would not be humane to avoid a cat or regard it with repugnance. The silence of Maulānā Saadu'ddin from this (obvious) reply is, therefore, not to be defended.¹²

'What the ancients have said, viz., that the heaviest trials fall on the prophets, next upon the saints, and by proportionately diminishing degrees upon the virtuous, does not commend itself to me. How can the elect of God be thus punished?' Some of the philosophers suggested to his Majesty that these were trials sent by God. The king was amazed and said: 'How can trials be justifiable by one who knows both what is hidden and what is manifest?'

Every sect favourably regards him who is faithful to its precepts and in truth he is to be commended. If he be engaged in worldly pursuits he should pass his days in righteousness and well-doing, and in garnering the needs of the time;

¹² The ephemeral controversies of the Court which Abu'l Fazl seemed to regard as enduring to all time, and of which the subjects and actors have long been forgotten, are to be elucidated only on conjecture. The saying alluded to in the text appears to be a parody on the tradition, the love of country is a part of religion. Some traditions regarding the cat have been preserved and will be found in the Hayat u'l layawan [Vita animalium: auctore Shaykh Kamālu'ddin Mhd b-Ben Isa Demiri, anno, A.H. 808 (A.D. 1405) mortuo, Haj Khall. One of these, on the authority of Salman al-Farsi, says that "the Prophet gave an admonition respecting the cat, i.e., its humane treatment. Abu Hurayrah, the wellknown companion, who received his epithet (tather of the kitten), on account of having always a kitten with him, narrated a tradition that a woman was punished in hell for maltreatment of a cat. Ayesha asked him if this was true. He replied, he had heard it from Mumammad's own lips. She rejoined that a Muslim woman could not have been so punished on account of a cat, and that the culprit was an infidel. He should, therefore, be careful how he repeated these traditions. In explanation of the grammatical point, I suggest that what is meant is the duty of mankind in the humane treatment of cats, and, no doubt, all other animals; but if the word 'love' be in construction with a definite agent, and it be said that "the love of Zayd towards a cat is a part of religion," the application is censurable.

and if of a retired habit, he should live in warfare with himself and at peace with others, and regard praise and blame indifferently.

Some are of opinion that the greater the number of intermediaries between him that seeks the truth and him that has reached it, the more the grace of God abounds. But this is not so: rather the attainment thereto is dependent on attrahent grace and good works.

It is strange that the Imamis make beads of the earth of Karbala, and believe that it is mixed with the blood of the Imam (Husayn).

Whoever bestows his garments upon ignoble people, upon rope-dancers and buffoons, it is as though he went through their antics himself.

He alone whose knowledge is superior in degree to that of the author of a work should make selections therefrom, otherwise it is not a choice of passages but showing his own merit. [P. 238.]

The legend of Alexander's stratagem against Porus¹³ does not carry the appearance of truth. A man raised to power by the Almighty does not act in this manner especially when he thinks his end drawing near.

Now when Sikandar was approaching Fur (Porus), eager for the fray the warriors advanced. They lit the naphtha in the steeds: Fur's troops were in dismay. The naphtha blazed: Fur's troops recoiled because those steeds were iron. Whereat the elephants when their own trunks were scorched, fled likewise... Thus all the Indian host and all those huge high-crested elephants were put to flight. (Warner's translation of Shahnamah, vi. 115-116. Jarrett entirely missed the context. J. S.)

arrived from Hind before the world-lord and informed him at large of how the elephant contendeth in warfare! 'It will rout two miles of horse. No cavalier will dare to face that beast.' Then the Shah (Alexander) assembled all the master-smiths . . . who made a horse with saddle and rider complete, of iron . They charged it with black naphtha, and then ran it on wheels before the troops . . . He bade to make a thousand such and more . . . Now when Sikandar was approaching Fur (Porus), eager for the

One should write out a quatrain of Omar Khayyām, after reading an ode of Hāfiz, otherwise the latter is like drinking wine without a relish.

Men give the names of eminent men to their sons. Although it is done by way of good augury, it is not respectful. And what is most curious is that this is chiefly practised by theologians who do not believe in metempsychosis; while the Hindus who do, refrain from it.

It is a remarkable thing that men should insist on the ceremony of circumcision for children who are otherwise excused from the burden of all religious obligations.

If the reason of the prohibition of swine (as food), be due to its vileness, lions and the like should be held lawful.

Burial of the dead is an ancient custom: otherwise why should a traveller on the road of annihilation bear a load. He should return as he came.

One day Qalij Khān brought a register to His Majesty, and said, "I have named this the Khulāsatu'l Mulk" (the Abstract of the Kingdom). His Majesty replied: "This name would more befit a province, a district, or a town: it should rather be called i laqiqatu'l Mulk" (the Real State of the Kingdom). Qalij Khān then represented his own capacity in affairs. Others who were present raised objections: During the discussion his knowledge of mathematics was questioned; on this he was silent, but introduced religion. His Majesty uttered the following verse:

"Hath earth so prospered 'neath thy care, That heaven thy vigilance must share?"

On one occasion at a meeting for philosophical discussion, one of the poets in the assembly uttered the following couplet:

"The Messiah his friend, Khizr his guide, Joseph riding at his rein,

Oh! would that my sun might meet with this honour."

His Majesty said "instead of 'my sun' if you read 'my knight', it would be more appropriate." Discerning judges were loud in applause.

One day the following quatrain of Mulla Tālib Isfahāni, in an elegy on Hakim Abu'l Fath and congratulatory on the arrival of Hakim Humām, " was quoted in His Majesty's presence:

"My brothers in their love what concord show!

This homeward comes ere that doth journeying go.

That went, and behind him all my life he bore,

This comes, and coming doth that life restore."

His Majesty remarked that the word dumbalah (behind) was prosaic and it would better run, ze raftanash (from his going). The critics much approved.

(P. 239.) Solicitation is reprehensible from every man, especially from those who are disinterested and of lofty spirit for these defile not their hands save with necessities: therefore to solicit of them is to dishonour oneself and them.

Difference of capacity is the cause of the continuance of mankind.

The truth is such that where it reaches the ear it must penetrate the heart. Conviction is irresistible.

The severe illness of the young suggests the doctrine of metempsychosis.

What the divine books say, that great sinners in ancient times were changed into monkeys and boars, is credible.

If the idea were merely that souls were transfused into a few determinate shapes, this would be unworthy; but if the strange workings of destiny joined them to mineral, vegetable and animal life in serial progression till they were exalted to a high dignity, where would be the wonder?

Some of the ancients say that the punishment of each continues through various bodies, and that a body is thus

¹⁴ See Vol. I, p. 474.

prepared for the expiation of each period—this corroborates the above.

To light a candle is to commemorate the (rising of the) sun. To whomsoever the sun sets, what other remedy hath he but this.

The darkness of smoke is due to the absence of light and its own worthlessness.

When the time of death approaches, a certain sadness supervenes, and when it is at hand, a faintness also ensues. This, indeed, indicates that the gift and withdrawal of life are in the hands of God.

The ear is the sentinel of the voice. When the speaker becomes deaf he loses the need of speech.

Although thieving is worse than fornication when it is practised when the faculties are first developed and in old age, yet because the commission of the latter grave sin contaminates another as well as the doer thereof, it involves the greater guilt.

It is not right that a man should make his stomach the grave of animals.

The killing of an innocent man is a benevolence towards him, for it is committing him to the mercy of God.

The authority to kill should be his who can give life, and he who performs this duty at the command of right judgment, does so with reference to God. [P. 240.] When an inheritance passes, while a daughter is alive, to the brother's child, it having been transmitted to the deceased from his father, there is justification, otherwise how can it be equitable?

A city may be defined to be a place where artisans of various kinds dwell, or a population of such an extent that a voice of average loudness will not carry at night beyond the inhabited limits.

A river is that which flows throughout the whole year.

Kingdoms are divided from each other by rivers, mountains, deserts or languages.

In cold climates such as Kābul and Kashmir guns should be made thicker than ordinary, so that dryness and cold may not crack them.

A moderate breeze differs relatively in reference to a mill or a ship, but what is commonly understood by this term is one of sufficient force to extinguish a lamp.

The interpretation of dreams belongs to the world of augury. For this reason it is established that none but a learned man of benevolent character should be entrusted to draw a good omen thereform.

Rhetoric consists in the language being commensurate with the capacity of the hearer, and that a pregnant meaning shall be pithily expressed in a manner intelligible without difficulty. Eloquence requires the delivery to be accompanied with elegance of diction.

One moral may be drawn from the instances of the ruler of Egypt (Pharaoh), and Husayn Mansur (Hallāj) namely that presumptuous contemplation of one's self (khud-bini) and gazing at God (Khudā-bini) are things different from each other.¹⁵

I know of but myself. Burn me then, Hamam, bricks of clay, and build me a tower, that I may mount up to the God of Moses, for, in sooth, I deem him a liar . . . But we seized on him and his hosts and cast them into the sea: Behold, then the end of the wrongful doers. (Quran, xxviii. 38-40).

Abul Mughith Husain bin Mansur, surnamed Hallaj (from his

Abul Mughith Husain bin Mansur, surnamed Hallāj (from his profession of cotton-carding) was a celebrated ascetic and preacher. "He is considered by the Sufis to be one of their most spiritual leaders, who, they believed, had attained the fourth or last stage of Sufism (perfect union with the Divine spirit). He was condemned by the Khalif of Baghdād, Muqtādir and was put to death because he used to proclaim Ana-l-Haqq, i.e., 'I am the Truth' or in other words, 'I am God,' . . . on 26th March 922 A.D. (Beale, Dictonary, 243.) Full life in Encycl. Islam, ii. 239-240, in which L. Massignon writes,—Among the doctrines of this sect is that of "the existence of an uncreated Divine spirit, which becomes united with the created spirit of the ascetic (so that), the saint becomes

Dignity is the maintenance of one's station.

A wise man was asked the reason of the long life of the vulture and the short existence of the hawk. He replied, "The one injures no animal, and the other hunts them.

On this His Majesty remarked, "If the penalty to a hawk that lives only on animal life, be a brief span of existence. what shall happen to man who notwithstanding abundant provision of other kinds, does not restrain himself from meat? Nevertheless, the thought that harmless animals are lawful and animals of prey forbidden food, is full of suggestion.

Learning to speak comes from association, otherwise men would remain inarticulate. But when the experiment was tried it was shown through the instance of a dumb man, how, though silent in such a case, he might make himself understood by strangers.

(P. 241.) Whosoever imprecates upon another the vengeance of God will not be heard. It was this reflection that comforted a man who had been cursed by others.

Since I used nitre (for cooling water), I recognise the rights of salt (fidelity) in water also.15

When I came to India I was much attracted by the elephants, and I thought that the use of their extraordinary strength was a prognostication of my universal ascendancy.

Men are so accustomed to eating meat that were it not for the pain, they would undoubtedly fall to on themselves.

Would that my body were so vigorous as to be of service to eaters of meat who would thus forego other animal life,

the living and personal witness of God, whence the saying Ana'l Haqq, I am the creative truth." This corresponds exactly to the Hindu vedantist's realisation so'ham 'I am He'.

Prof. Browne calls Hallaj "a dangerous and able intriguer," and this was also Akbar's estimate of the man. (J. S.)

¹⁶ This is a conceit on the well-known eastern duty of protecting a guest who has eaten of one's salt. This protection does not extend to the offer of water, but the use of nitre gives water this salt and its consequent rights.

or that as I cut off a piece for their nourishment, it might be replaced by another.

Would that it were lawful to eat an elephant, so that one animal might avail for many.

Were it not for the thought of the difficulty of sustenance, I would prohibit men from eating meat. The reason why I do not altogether abandon it myself is, that many others might willingly forego it likewise and be thus cast into despondency.

From my earliest years, whenever I ordered animal food to be cooked for me, I found it rather tasteless and cared little for it. I took this feeling to indicate a necessity for protecting animals, and I refrained from animal food.

Men should annually refrain from eating meat on the anniversary of the month of my accession as a thanksgiving to the Almighty, in order that the year may pass in prosperity.

Butchers, fishermen and the like who have no other occupation but taking life, should have a separate quarter and their association with others should be prohibited by fine.¹⁷

A merchant was approaching his end and his four sons were about to quarrel over his property. He directed them with due counsel, and told them that he had providently bequeathed them equal portions and had left these, one for each, in the four corners of his house, and that when he died they were to take their several shares. When his instructions were carried out, one found gold, another grain, and the other two paper and a bone respectively. Not com-

observed in North India in 399 A.D.,—"Only the Chandilas are fishermen and hunters, and sell flesh meat . . . They are [held to be] wicked men, and live apart from others." [Legge's tr. ch. xvi.] Yuan Chwang noticed the same practice about 629,—"Butchers, fishers, dancers, executioners, and scavengers, and so on, have their abodes outside the city." [Bk. II. 5, Beal's tr. i. 74.] J. S.

prehending this they began to make a disturbance. The King of Hindustan, Sālivāhana, thus interpreted it: "By the bone is meant that cattle should be demanded (by its holder) of the first, and by the paper, a money credit of the second." When the whole was computed, the shares were thus found to be equal.

Hasan Sabbāh¹⁸ was once on journey by sea with a numerous company. Suddenly a storm arose, and consternation seized the people. He himself was cheerful, and when questioned thereon, he announced to them that [P. 242] they would be saved. On reaching land all of them were assured that the future was revealed to him. In point of fact he was undisturbed through his assurance that the will of God could not be altered, and his announcement of the good tidings of their security was caused by this reflection, that if they were drowned no one could save them; had they thought otherwise they would have taken to (vain) supplication.

Ali, called also Khārwā¹⁹, used to say that he had seen a person in Baliā whose upper part consisted of two bodies, each possessing a head, eyes, and hands, with but a single body below. The man was married, and a jeweller by profession.

In the year [968 A.H. = 1560 A.D.] that Bayram Khān received permission to depart for Hijāz, a hunting

This was the famous chief of the Persian Ismailians and known in the history of the Crusades under the name of the 'Old man of the Mountain', by which is meant, the mountainous district from Isfahān to Zanjān, Qazwin, Hamadān, Dinawar and Qirmisin. Founder of the sect of Assassins. The legends about his life are given in Sargudhast-i-Sayidnā. He ended his reign and life in A.H. 518 (A.D. 1124) Enc. Isl. ii. 276.

"For Khārwā the variants are Khāura and Hārā, and for Baliā,

Malibar and Balisa. For the man's name I suggest Kharjah 'a certain man whose mother is called amm-i-Kharijah who is also the mother of several tribes.' [Richardson's Dict.], and for the place Malibar. This would make Akbar's story an Arab sailor's yarn like those given in Ajaib-ul-Hind about India's coastal ports. (Devic's French trans., 1875.) [J. S.]

leopard killed a doe near, Sikandrah; a live young one was taken from its stomach. I separated the flesh from the bone myself and gave the leopard its fill. In doing so something pricked my hand. I thought it was a piece of a bone. When carefully examined, an arrow-head was found in its liver. The doe must have been hit by an arrow when young, but by God's protection it had touched no vital part, and did not hinder the animal from waxing strong and becoming pregnant.

A mouse will take an egg in its paws and lie on its back, while the others seize him by the tail and drag him into his hole. It will also give a twist to its tail while inserting it into a bottle and draw out opium or whatever else may be inside. There are many such instances of their ingenuity.

If a wolf opens its mouth impelled by desire to seize its prey, it can do so. At other times it cannot open it however much it may wish. When captured it utters no sound.

The difference between stone and salt²⁰ lies in this, that the former is not soluble in water and the latter dissolves.

Once in a game preserve, a tame deer had a fight with a wild one. The latter was cleverly caught. Some of the spectators quoted the following line: "We have never seen any one who could overtake a deer by running." The point was thus explained, that ahu "a deer" in Persian, means also "a defect," and this is not (required to be) secured by pursuit and effort.

The marriage of a young child is displeasing to the Almighty, for the object which is intended is still remote, and there is proximate harm. In a religion which forbids the re-marriage of the widow, the hardship is grave.

^{2*} I hazard the emendation of mang into namak. [J. S.]

Marriage between those who are not related is commendable in order that heterogeneity may become kinship, and between relations, the more remote the affinity the closer is the concord; and what has been recorded of the time of Adam, viz., that as sons and daughters were born to each, the son of one was given to the daughter of another, sustains this view.

As to the kinship between cousins being within the permitted degrees under the Muhammadan law, this was established in the beginning and was analogous to (the custom in) the time of Adam's birth. [P. 243]

It is improper to consort with a woman when moved by concupiscence, or with one too young or too old,—most of the latter cease to be capable of child-bearing after 55,—with a pregnant woman or a female during her monthly course . . . [Reason given in every case, not translated. Akbar followed the Hindu maxim, putrārthe Kriyate vāryā, i.e., a man takes a wife with the object of having sons. J. Sarkar.]

To seek more than one wife is to work one's own undoing. In case she were barren or bore no son, it might

then be expedient.

Had I been wise earlier, I would have taken no woman from my own kingdom into my seraglio, for my subjects are to me in the place of children.

The women of Hindustan rate their dear lives at a

slender price.

It is an ancient custom in Hindustan for a woman to burn herself however unwilling she may be, on her husband's death and to give her priceless life with a cheerful countenance, conceiving it to be a means of her husband's salvation.

It is a strange commentary on the magnanimity of men that they should seek their deliverance through the self-

sacrifice of their wives.

A monarch is a pre-eminent cause of good. Upon his conduct depends the efficiency of any course of action. His

gratitude to his Lord, therefore, should be shown in just government and due recognition of merit; that of his people, in obedience and praise.

The very sight of kings has been held to be a part of divine worship. They have been styled conventionally the shadow of God, and indeed to behold them is a means of calling to mind the Creator, and suggests the protection of the Almighty.

Sovereignty is a supreme blessing, for its advantages extend to multitudes, and the good works of such as have attained to true liberty of spirit also profit these.

A monarch should not himself undertake duties that may be performed by his subjects. The errors of others it is his part to remedy, but his own lapses who may correct?

Sovereignty consists in distinguishing degrees of circumstance and in meting out reward and punishment in proportion thereto. This quality of appreciation adds dignity to the pursuit of happiness and is the chief source of success.

What is said of monarchs, that their coming brings security and peace, has the stamp of truth. When minerals and vegetables have their peculiar virtues, what wonder if the actions of a specially chosen man should operate for the security of his fellows. [P. 244.]

In the reciprocity of rule and obedience, the sanctions of hope and fear are necessary to the well-ordering of temporal government and the illumination of the interior recesses of the spirit; nevertheless a masterful will, never suffering the loss of self control under the dominance of passion, should weigh well and wisely the measure and occasion of each.

Whoever walks in the way of fear and hope, his temporal and spiritual affairs will prosper. Neglect of them will result in misfortune.

Idleness is the root of evils. The duty of one who seeketh his own welfare is to learn a profession and practise

it. It is imperative in prefects never to be remise in watchfulness.

The anger of a monarch like his bounty, is the source of national prosperity.

Tyranny is unlawful in everyone, especially in a sovereign who is the guardian of the world.

Divine worship in monarchs consists in their justice and good-administration: the adoration of the elect is expressed in their mortification of body and spirit. All strife is caused by this, that men neglecting the necessities of their state, occupy themselves with extraneous concerns.

A king should abstain from four things: excessive devotion to hunting; incessant play; inebriety night and day; and constant intercourse with women.

Although hunting suggests many analogies of kingly action, certainly the foremost of them is that the granting of life [to the doomed] becomes a habit.21

Falsehood is improper in all men, and most unseemly in monarchs. This order is termed the shadow of God. and a shadow should throw straight.

Superintendents (Dāroghahs) should be watchful to see that no one from covetousness abandons his own profession.

Shāh Tahmāsp, king of Persia, one night forgot a verse. His torchbearer quoted it. He punished the speaker somewhat, and said, "When a menial takes to learning he does so at the expense of his duties."

A king should not be familiar in mirth and amusement with his courtiers.

A monarch should be ever intent on conquest, otherwise his neighbours rise in arms against him. The army should be exercised in warfare, lest from want of training they become self-indulgent.

instances in Mughal Indian history of the Emperors ordering the encircled deer in a qumurgha hunt to be set free. [J. Sarkar.]

A king should make a distinction in his watch over the goods, the lives, the honour and the religion of his subjects of those who are led away by greed and passion will not be reclaimed by admonition, they must be chastised.

He who does not speak of monarchs for their virtues will assuredly fall to reproof or scandal in their regard.

The words of kings resemble pearls. They are not find pendants to every ear.

CHAPTER XIII.

CONCLUSION

[The author toiled hard for seven years in completing this book.]

(P. 245.) Praise be to God that this royal treasure of record, this register of knowledge, the syllabus of the volume of wisdom, the summary of administrative writings, the tablet of instruction in the school of learning, the exemplar of ceremonial among men of understanding, the code of polity of the imperial court, this patent of morality in the audiencehall of justice and mercy, has been brought to completion. Much labour had to be endured and many difficulties overcome before the inception of this antidote for the world's constitution, this prophylactic for those envenomed by sensuality and suffering could be successfully undertaken. Many a dark night passed into morning and many a long day grew to eve, ere this mine of the diadem of eternal happiness, this pearl of the throne of everlasting sovereignty could be publicly displayed. What warring of the capacity with the natural constitution took place, how many a struggle between myself and my heart drove me to distraction ere the count of this investigation fleeting as the world, the result of this search deluding as the waters of a mirage, could be set down! Prayers were poured forth before the Almighty throne, supplications were offered up on the threshold of divine light, in order that this amulet on the arm of the wise, this magic spell of those who love knowledge, written in my heart's blood, might have the spirit of life breathed into its lettered form.

> What toil endured through love that work so planned, Watered by tears and blood, should rooted stand!

Alas! Alas! that one nurtured by the divine bounty and long suffused by the radiance of truth, should defile his tongue with murmurs of toil and labour, and record his harrowing of soul and his travail on the tablet of illustration!

[The author's gratitude to Akbar for his encouragement and guidance during the composition of this book: its high value to mankind.]

It is through the wondrous workings of His Majesty's favour and the spell of his enduring prerogative that this dissertation has been set forth and a great work brought to its conclusion. That cynosure of divine unity to the virtuous, by the efficacy of a direct intention and the probity of unswerving rectitude appointed a treasurer to the stores of his wisdom and sagacity, and gave him access to the recesses of his sanctuary. That gem of singlemindedness, in honour of the Supreme Being and in thanksgiving for ever increasing bounties, brought forth a work of knowledge by a (P. 246) master-spirit of wisdom for the profit of inquirers, and a royal mandate from the tabernacle of sanctity for the seekers of happiness. By a sublime favour he endowed this fortunate and loyal nature with the capacity of reading and understanding it, and by his all-embracing condescension permitted me to reproduce somewhat thereof as came within my limited intelligence and to be honoured with the stewardship of the divine bounty. Far and near. friend and stranger, participate therein, and all classes of mankind illumine their minds with the splendour of truth. Thanks be to God that in these noble maxims of conduct, the visible world finds its remedy, and the things of the invisible are by them harmoniously regulated!

The light that o'er seven spheres celestial plays, Wins all its radiance from imperial rays.

The blind need now no more a staff to take,

While those that see find luminous their ways.

The garden of prosperity blooms unto good-will and for joy has come a day of festival. The eye opens in cheerfulness and the night of sorrow has passed. Many a truth in the orders of nature and grace, and many incidents of binding and loosing have been set down in despite of fraudful concealers of the truth, and an illumination of wisdom is displayed for the guidance of the sightless and faint of heart and for the purblind that lose their way. Through a lofty destiny for which sincere loyalty is another name, a new canopy of wisdom has been erected, and the duty of thanksgiving which is the final cause, has reached its accomplishment.

In honour of my liege, the king, With all true loyalty I bring A cypress set in garden fair, Wherein shall trysting all repair, And with full draughts of wine elate, Its happy growth commemorate.

[Firdausi wrote his Book of Kings in 30 years, but earned obloquy by demanding from his royal master payment in gold commensurate with the size of his epic. Abul Fazl, in a nobler spirit has written his Book of Akbar in seven years out of pure gratitude to his master, who has made his subjects happy and prosperous and set up a model of wise and beneficent government before all mankind.]

Notwithstanding the coming and going of so many leaders of the caravans of knowledge and the gathering together of treatises from the schools of learning, to-day only can the purity of the jewel of wisdom be assayed and its weight tested by another scale—now only is sovereign intellect arrayed on the throne of empire and its sway enforced by a later ordinance. Now must the field of gift and offering be made wide and the festal melodies and paeans of success resound, but not as Firdausi, who in a

grovelling spirit, fell into the aberration of greed and made the curtain of his honour an object for the haggling of traffic. He was a seller of words and knew not their value. Thinking them interchangeable with a few pieces of metal, like shameless hucksters of the market, he lost his credit in stickling for price. He sought to make rateable worth incalculable, and the measurable measureless. This servitor at the table of multitudinous royal bounties records in this work his gratitude for transcendent favours, and signalizes the wondrous dispensations of the world-adorning Creator of the universe.

Had naught but gold this volume from me wrung, Life would have ended ere a pearl were strung: 'Twas love that planned the task, for through such strain Could only love my feeble voice sustain.

Firdausi took thirty years of labour to secure eternal execration, while I have borne with seven years of toil for the sake of everlasting glory. He fused his worth into the cast of verse which is a matrix of determinate shape, and I have strung into writing, gems of the purest water through the infinite expanse of prose. [P. 247]

My pen its point deep in my heart's blood dyes. To write such prose as far all verse outvies; For prose in its degree doth verse excel, As unbored pearls the rarest price compel.

What connection is there between the servitor of the Lord and the worshipper of gold? between thanksgiving and lamentation? Self interest let fall a veil before his clear vision in that he sought largesse in the laboratory of genius from the great ones of the earth. Had no defect obscured his sight in his dealings with others, he would not have entered so devious a path nor spoken a line for lucre, and

would have secured the possession of the jewel of magnanimity.

> When thought of self intrudes doth genius flee, And the heart blinds the eyes that may not see. The beam in his own vision what though plain, The critic quick to cavil seeks in vain; Absorbed in greed the faults of others hears, But from his own withholds unwilling ears.

But apart from this consideration that in the markets of wisdom, works that delight the heart cannot be purchased by the gold and silver of the world, and that such gems of price are not to be weighed against coin, by his grace of diction and the charm of his verse he strove to immortalize his name, and has left behind him a noble and gracious scion in the full vigour of youth that will survive to ages. To the rich and prosperous it adds another dignity: the wise that love truth it favours with another aid. The simpleminded that seek after happiness are familiarized with the gains and losses of life, and it pours out for the many who resent the disappointments of toil, the healing balm of resignation. To the faint of heart it lends courage: to those who have the craft of the fox it gives the boldness of the lion and the fury of the alligator. Upon the intolerant and narrow-minded it bestows cheerfulness and large views, and stimulates the magnanimous and raises them to the pinnacle of greatness.

Although to outward appearance he was but rendering a service to the great ones of the earth, he was implicitly bearing the jewels of his wisdom to the market of appreciation. Had he not been under the influence of cupidity, nor exposed his penetrating genius to the spoil of misplaced desire, he could never have been sufficiently grateful for the divine favour in the opportunity of winning the applause and admiration of mankind. Nay, had he possessed any

sense of justice and any knowledge of the world, besides this rare product of intellect, he would have carried some substantial offering to the throne of majesty, in order that the royal approval might be the means of displaying the quality of his jewel, and that he might bequeath as a gift of price, a memorial to his successors in the pursuit of intellectual fame.

Praise be to God! that by the divine grace and providential assistance, I have not set my heart upon the composition of this work with a view to approbation or to listen to my own praises, into which pitfall of the imagination so many have sunk, nor suffered my natural constitution to be trodden under foot by ambition, not even with regard' to the large field of its acquired characteristics, far less its innate qualities in any abundance.

He who is deficient in a lofty spirit and noble sentiments is ensuared by a desire of worldly goods. But even the stranger knows that the [P. 248] odour of misrepresentation has not entered my nostrils, and the alien recognises in me a critical judge. What analogy is there between the painted silks of China and the raw yarn of a hair-rope maker? between a keen blade of Egypt and a piece of coarse iron? How can the priceless gem of truth descend to the level of worldly potsherds? Why exchange eternal bliss for the silvered inanities that soon decay? And especially at this time when by the wondrous workings of destiny and a smiling fortune, priceless jewels are but as gravel before the palace of auspiciousness, and my loyal spirit, illumined by the rays of wisdom, has found rest on the heights of joy. Were I even destitute of the goods that pass from hand to hand in the market-square of the material world, and fortune through malice or fickleness, sent not wealth to serve me, I would never entertain such a feeling nor approve in my

^{&#}x27;I should alter the punctuation of the text and place the stop after tabi'at-i-u. [Jarrett.]

own person such imprudence in affairs. On the contrary, my first thought is the praise of God, in that the deeds of majesty have been illustrated by commendable description. The second consideration of the mind with a view to human needs is that the eminent men of future time and the learned of the present, may bring up gems of purest ray from this fathomless sea to beautify the mansions of their deeds. Had I possessed a lofty spirit, I should not have descended from the summit of the heights of unity to the level of polytheism, but what is to be done? I quote the words used by the leader of the enlightened minds of the past, the spiritual doctor (Maulānā Rumi)—

Since I am linked with those who see awry, Idolater! I, too, must preach idolatry.

[Wise and good men work to secure the blessings of God and the good opinion of mankind at the same time, and they succeed in both by reason of their honesty, self-control, and unselfish sense of duty. Abul Fazl's success in life illustrates this truth.]

Though every one cannot comprehend the object of this fast in the morning of existence and this mirage in the noon of life, I think that all should perceive and bear in mind that the exertions of the wise and the good should be restricted to two objects, and the supreme purpose of pursuit in those of lofty penetration and wakeful destiny should not exceed these. The first is to secure the benediction of God and to lay the foundations of a stately fabric in the pleasant meads of His holy pleasure, and this is the means to eternal life and the ornature of enduring bliss. Those who choose that country

This language, considering the dedication of the volume and the eye under which it was written, cannot be taken as an expression of regret at his accredited apostasy from Islam and conversion to Hinduism, but to imply the necessity of following the language of conventionality though pledged to the support of his master's creed. Nevertheless his sincerity in his adhesion to Akbar's faith was suspected. See Vol. I: Biography xvii.

for their abode go not down unto death, and the sound of body therein behold not the face of sickness. Its vigorous dwellers know not of debility, nor those that thrive there, of decay. Wealth does not decline in poverty, and loss of vision enters not therein. This is to be obtained only by a sincere intention and the possession of the four excellent qualities together with the avoidance of the eight vicious characteristics of which books of wisdom have fully treated. The second is a good repute in this fleeting world, which signifies an enduring existence and a second life. Although this also is accomplished through the same source of enlightenment by which a virtuous disposition is formed, yet it is chiefly secured by a smooth tongue and an open hand, and sincerity of intention and rectitude of mind are not imperative. Blest is he who by the divine auspices links the first with the second, and prespers in the temporal as well as in the spiritual world. The means adopted by the seekers of truth to participate in social enjoyments and yet to win peace with some comfort to their consciences, are these, that with strenuous endeavour and by the favour of fortune, [P. 249] they separate good resolutions and virtuous conduct from the disorders of selfregard and the labyrinth of hypocrisy, and submitting their minds to the dictates of sovereign reason and the divine pleasure, live apart from the blame and praise of mankind: and the profit which these simple dealers obtain from their inestimable lives and the advantage secured by their exertions. are a perpetual remembrance and an illustrious name.

The leaders in the four quarters of the visible and invisible worlds, and the deep thinkers that betake themselves both to occupation and retirement, who through their comprehensive views and wide survey of the field of knowledge penetrate the mysteries of these two sublime principles, sustain by the grace of God the weight of the two worlds on the shoulders of their capacity, and in the strength of the Almighty arm move lightly under the burden. The harmo-

nious operation of these two opposite interests, one alone of which is rarely attainable under the most capable and states-manlike administrators even under the sanction of penal law, is by them so successfully carried out under the guidance of celestial favour that the primordial intelligence of nature itself stands amazed and the wonder-working heavens are confounded. By them, moreover, the sources of advantage and detriment, both temporal and spiritual, are commanded, and these antagonistic dual elements simultaneously co-operate in the establishment of festal conviviality of intercourse.

[Akbar's unrivalled greatness as a ruler and Abul Fazl's duty to record His Majesty's great acts and rules for the benefit of posterity.]

And for exemplar of such a one, lo! from the brow of this prosperous reign that irradiates the face of the State, what splendour is reflected and as a glory shines upon the raiser of its auspicious banner in this our happy age! For today the skies revolve at his will and the planets in their courses move by his sublimity.

Akbar, the king, illumines India's night, And is as a lamp in the court of the House of Timour.

The heart exults at his mention and the tongue vaunts his praise. May the Almighty vouchsafe long life to this incomparable wonder of the kingdom of wisdom, and eternal happiness to his subjects. This sovereign of the orders of nature and grace, by the light of his God-given intelligence and the night-beacon of his powerful will, has so organized the measureless limits of these two dominions and moves through them with such prudence and sagacity, that aspiring discerners of each form of progress look to no other than him, and each and all consider as their own this pearl of wisdom that enlightens the world. Since the time that eloquence and knowledge of affairs have existed and the highway of literary composition been frequented, so exquisite and exact a

co-operation of two antagonistic principles in a single hallowed person has never been recorded—a person who is the meeting of the oceans of church and state, the fountain head of temporal and spiritual order—who prepares the litters of travel while yet abiding in his native land—a lamp for those who gather in privacy, a solver of trammels to those who are in bonds, a balm for the open wounds of the broken-hearted. Manifold worldly cares raise no dust of defect in his heart that loves retirement, and perpetual prayer and a concentrated mind suffer no breeze of pre-occupation to play upon the necessary duties of his station. Thus he has outward obligation with liberty of spirit.

Lo! from his brow behold the pure of sight God's love and knowledge beam with radiant light. A crowned monarch—a throne's rightful heir—Lord of the world—the kingdom's founder there!

[P. 250.]

It is imperative upon the ambition of all masters of eloquence to decorate the ears and throat of the age with a description of the virtues of such a choice specimen of the court of existence and to adorn with its beauty the bosom and skirt of Time. A rare treasure will thus be prepared for future travellers in the caravans of being, and seekers from afar will come into the possession of knowledge. Although the spheres themselves in their courses by gesture and speech, tell thereof and transmit it to succeeding generations, yet by the workings of destiny accidents befall and the thread of continuity is often severed. When, however, works are written to record these wondrous deeds and they are inscribed upon the tablets of time, the hand of vicissitude less frequently affects them and they endure to distant ages. A fabric that is laid upon virtue, the summit of the porches thereof reaches

³ That is, preparing for the world to come while yet in this, or facilitating the salvation of others.

to the pinnacles of the seventh heaven, and a foundation whereon fortune builds is not sapped by revolving cycles.

Behold the recompense of noble toil

That guards the Cæsars' halls from Time's despoil!

It is evident that of mighty monarchs of old there is no memorial except in the works of the historians of their age, and no trace of them but in the chronicles of eloquent and judicious annalists, yet the ravages of time obliterate them not. Of the splendour of the House of Buwayh no record exists save in the labours of the pens of Sābi⁴ and Muhallabi, and the noble pages of Rudaki, U'nsari and U'tbi alone tell of the glories of the kings of Ghazni.

Mahmud hath many a palace raised on high, That with the moon might well dispute the sky: Yet of all these no stone doth now remain. While Time doth roll o'er U'nsari in vain.

Al-Muhallabi was descended from Ibn Abi Sufra al-Azdi and was appointed Wazir by Mu'izzu'd Daulah Ibn Buwayh in A.H. 339 (A,D. 950). Ibn Khallakān says that his powerful influence and firm administration, as well as his acquaintance with literature, made him celebrated He was born in A.H. 291 (A.D. 903) and died in A.H. 352 (963), and was buried at Baghdad. A few of his verses are given by his biographer.

Rudaki flourished in the reign of Amir Nasr, son of Ahmad of the Samānide dynasty, and was extraordinarily favoured by that prince. He turned the Arabic translation of Pilpay's 'Fables' into Persian verse in A.H. 313 (A.D. 925), and was the first who wrote a Diwān or collection of odes in Persian. He died in A.H. 343 (A.D. 954). Beale. Unsari lived in the court of Mahmud of Ghazni and wrote an heroic poem on the deeds of Sultān Mahmud. He was also the author of a Diwān. He ranked not only as one of the first poets in that celebrated court, but was versed in all the learning of that age. His death is placed variously in A.H. 1040 and 1049. For U'tbi, see Vol. II.

Abu Ishāq Ibrāhim-b-Hilāl, as-Sābi or the Sabean, author of some celebrated Epistles, was clerk of the Baghdad Chancery office in which he acted as secretary to the Calibh al-Muti l'Ilāh and to l'zzu'd Daulah Bakhtyār of the family of Buwayh the Daylamite. He was born about A H. 320 (A.D. 932), and died in 384 (A.D. 994.) He wrote a history of the Buwayh dynasty under the title of Tāju'l Milal or Tāju'l Daylomiyah.

Whosoever comprehends this talisman of prudence this spell of enlightened research, and appreciates these characters of thought and this lawful sorcery, will perceive this much, that my intention is to apprize far and near of these two attributes of high sovereignty and to lay the stable foundations of an enduring dominion. By this means the writer will secure a determinate sustenance from these divine treasures and a large provision from the table of manifold graces.

This lasting work I consecrate to Fame, And to all time commemorate his name; Above its page its syllables enrolled Shall turn the pen that writes them into gold.

But if through the strange effects of self-interest such fact is unperceived and this pious intention is hidden from his view, at least this measure of knowledge will be secured and the collyrium of vision in this sufficiency will be prepared, that the design of the mind that employs the pen and the object of this benevolent purpose is the happiness of the people [P. 251] at large and the prosperity of the commonwealth.

[This history is intended to serve as a lesson-book of political science for the instruction of mankind and as a moral treatise for the practical teaching of subjects in the right conduct of life.]

The primary purpose of these annals of wisdom is the distinguishing of right from wrong, for the feet of many have been worn in the search of this recognition and have effected nothing; and secondly, to appreciate the results of virtuous and vicious conduct, of which this work is full. From the one he will learn how to garnish and sweep his house, from the other, to order the ways of his life. When he meets with prosperity and joy, finding no trace of those that have passed away, he will not admit the inroads of

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as have gone before, no exemplars thereof remain, he will not surrender himself to its sway, but among the accidents of life, seated upon the prayer-carpet of enlightenment, he will be assiduous in praise and supplication before the Supreme Giver, and from the importance and helplessness of the strong that are no more, he will perfectly comprehend the power of the Omnipotent hand. Dumb as I am and dejected of heart, what are these vain imaginings and this apparatus of chronicle and pen-craft! What connection is there between enemies of the flesh who love retirement, and the showy and affected scribblers of the world? And what analogy between those who abate the price of their own wares and the displayers of adulterated goods?

My thoughts do modestly my works decry While Gebirs, Moslems hawking run, "who'll buy?"

[Abul Fazl's early studies—his mental conflict and despair.]

How shall I write of the strange ways of fortune and the delusive workings of destiny? In the beginnings of knowledge, I was overwhelmed with sorrow at the thought of existence, and at sacred places and auspicious times I prayed for release from the flesh. But, unawares, my spirit drew me by degrees to the school of research, and in confusion of heart which leads men astray, I sought the world. The ordinary course of learning was opened before me, and my mind became stored with ample measure of knowledge which raised in me an extraordinary arrogance. Under the guidance of a happy fortune, from a perusal of the works of the ancients, my mind was convinced that men must necessarily be comprised under three classes. The first is characterized by evil disposition and conduct, and this is evidenced in the traducing of one's neighbour and disclosing his faults. The second by good intentions and virtuous puropses; and the

possessor of these they describe as half a man. From amiableness in his judgments and a large tolerance of views. he speaks charitably of all men. The third by a lofty spirit and eminent virtue: and these reveal the perfect man. The master of these qualities from transcendent elevation of mind. regards not mankind at all, and, therefore, much less virtue and vice in the abstract. Objective ideas find no entrance into his mind. His contemplation ever traverses the field of his own heart, and discovering his own defects, he labours to remedy them, and finally he adorns the sanctuary of his soul with the true principles of virtue in the hope of attaining by their means to the goal of deliverance in the fruition of eternal bliss. When I read these seductive and winning numbers on the dice-tables of wisdom. I woke somewhat from my slumber and began to inquire. Withdrawing from worldly concerns. I fell to a critical introspection and began to transcribe the roll of my sins. When I had traversed a portion of this terrible road, veils in fold on fold were suspended before my vision. It [P. 252] seemed as though I could not advance a step, and save a few venial errors which I had committed in my youth. I believed myself innocent. As the very delusion of this mocking fancy awoke me to consciousness. I was not undone by my spiritual enemies. I was compelled to turn back and alighted at the first station of abstraction from being, and made the transcription of the failings of my fellow creatures a mirrored reflection of my own. I thus became aware of many reprehensible qualities. In this ghostly and spiritual warring and distress of mind and body, leaving the recess of seclusion, I came to the court of His Majesty and the star of my fortune rose on the horizon of desire.

[Abul Fazl's mind was liberalised and his spirits exhibarated by his contact with Akbar.]

^{*} The influence of the Sanskrit Schools of Philosophy is here very distinct. This passage breathes the spirit of the Vedanta.

By his great condescension His Majesty resolved my doubts, and I surmounted the heights of the visible and invisible worlds. I was honoured with the guardianship of the treasure of truth and entrusted with the keys of familiar intercourse, as has been briefly adverted to at the close of the first and second books. My heart emptied itself forth, and a treatise on morals was composed. A new life arose in the framework of language. For a long period the provision of bodily sustenance, the furnishing of which is approved in the truth-desiring eyes of sovereign reason, made my mind uneasy. What I had read in ancient works, occasioned only further bewilderment. One morning I craved for a scintillation from the court of the lord of light, and sought the exhibition of the talisman that resolved all difficulties. And as fortune befriended me and my heart was attentive, a refulgence from the luminary of grace shed its rays and the wondrous enigma was solved, and it was made clear that daily provision was under the pledge of royal justice and the acceptance of duty by grateful servants, as I have to some extent notified at the beginning of the last book. Most strange of all, however much from time to time the desire for seclusion which innate in me renewed its impulse, the thought of increased worldly advancement likewise gained strength. With this provision secured of appropriate sustenance and due supply of bodily vigour on which the success of every undertaking depends, I withdrew from various other pre-occupations and turned my attention strenuously military matters, and like those exclusively occupied in business, whom more solernn considerations do not affect, severing not the night from day, I sat at the gate of expectation. Since in this profession centres the interest of life and

He required a large provision. His enormous appetite needed for its gratification or surfeit twenty-two sers of solid tood daily. See Vol. I. Biography, xxviii. Both Abul Fazl and his brother Faizi entered the military service, then the only profession. See Vol. I. Biography, xv.

it adorns the acquisition of perfect and accurate judgment, is uniting the coruscation of political ability with the glitter of the sword, my whole ambition was to perform some service and to dare some signal deed in honour of this chosen profession, which would astonish even experienced statesment and amaze the perusers of the history of the ancients, in order that the duties I had undertaken might be adequately fulfilled. This desire every moment increased, but the inopportuneness of the season suffered me not to speak. I had come from a religious house and a college to the royal court.

[Abul Fazl's secret longings gratified by Akbar's command to him to write the history of his reign—the other courtiers envy him.]

Those who regard outward circumstances only might impute designs to me that had never crossed my mind, and I judged from appearances that if this secret intention got wind, they would blame me and loosen the tongue of reproach. But since the luminous mind of majesty is a mirror of verities and a world-displaying cup, without representation on my part or communication, the king vouchsafed to favour and honour with a commission my obscure personality that was unassisted by patronage, and raised me to an exalted rank and to the degree of a very distinguished command." For some days among the learned at their meetings considerable [P. 253] jealousy was excited, and the courtiers had for a long time banded together in envy against me. It was a strange coincidence that I should be about the arsenal in search of a sword, while fate would force a pen into a master hand. I was examining the burnish of the lance-head while destiny

⁷ The cup or mirror of Jamshid, as well as of Solomon, Cyrus, and of Alexander, which mirrored the universe, according to Oriental tradition.

⁸ He received in 1585, the command of a thousand horse. In 1592 he was promoted to be commander of two thousand horse, and about 1595 to the command of two thousand five hundred horse, and became one of the grandees of the empire. See Vol. I. xv, xviii, and xxi.

was sharpening the point of the reed in order that the ordinances of the sovereign might be reverently proclaimed in the publication of these important records. I was a prey to conflicting emotions. Since I had not the capacity for this office, and my mind had no inclination to this kind of historiography, I was on the point of declaring my incompetence and standing aside, withdrawing from so onerous a task. But as I was impressed with His Majesty's knowledge of things that are hidden and with the obligation of responding to his favours by some signal service, I was unable to decline his command. The thought then occurred to me that His Majesty had in view my own application and industry as well as the literary capacity of my brethren, so that the materials which I might with indefatigable assiduity collect together, that accomplished and eloquent writer [Fayzı] might harmoniously set in order and thus bring to completion this stupendous task. In a little while under the strenuous support of a will of miraculous efficacy, I opened my eyes to an interior illumination, and reflected that the royal command was a magic inspiration to literary effort and a talisman for the illumining of wisdom. With a sincere mind and a lofty determination this complex of sorrow and joy set his face to the duty. My chief reliance was in this, that by the grace of the divine favour, having diligently collected the necessary facts and given material embodiment to their spiritualized form, the eulogist of the court of the Caliphate, the erudite scholar of the Imperial House, the first writer of his age, the laureate among accomplished poets, Shaykh Abu'l Fayz-i-Favzi my elder brother and superior, would graciously supervise it, and under the correction of that master of style. a fresh texture would be hand-woven into a fabric of beauty.

[Just after one-half of this book had been written, Abul Fazl's collaborator and guide, his elder brother Faizi died,

For the names of these see Vol. I., xxxiii.

but our author steeled his heart to carry his task to completion, in spite of grief and heavy administrative duties.]

Scarce half of the first book had been written, when destiny worked its spell, and that free spirit in the fulness o its knowledge, took its last journey and afflicted my hear with an exceeding grief. When, by the talisman of the royal sympathies. I was recalled from the desire of simles wandering to the city of service, manifold kindnesses were as a balm to the open wound of my soul, and I applied myse zealously to my great task. A light dawned on me as to the object of the royal command and the aim of its lofty view. I brought my mind to that consideration and with a prayer to the Almighty, I set out on the road. On the one hand lay the painful feeling of incompetency and a heart overwhelmed with affliction and stress of occupation which no materia successes however numerous could remedy, and the ulcers of which no profusion of outward gratifications could salve, - -on the other was the ebb and flow of the sea of my hear wherein human efforts were of no avail, nor could the door of its secret retirement be closed and the busy world kept out How can I describe the violent conflict of these two unusual states of mind, or with what capability express the intercurrency of this strange dual operation. The first conjured up in the clear recesses of my mind, a fanciful play of wave and leap of fountain with swirl of rain and fall of dew; i wove thousand fictions and suggested frequent supernatura interventions [P. 254] and seemed to assure him who chose it, of the attainment of the truth and the honour of presidency in the state-council of wisdom. From the second, a vision c flinty stones, of strewn fragments of brick and as of clodheaps and scatterings of blackened soil appearing from the same source of discernment, arose with a warning aspect. Coarseness of speech, scurrility, vauntings and vain babble of which the characteristics are a moral decadence and

desire of associating with the base, time after time, in a nove

guise came flaunting by. Accompanying this miserable condition and disorder of mind, the stress of helplessness and isolation now and again received a fresh impulse. Although it is the way of the world seldom to form bonds of attachment, but rather the more constantly to sever the ties of friendship, my plain speaking and discernment of hypocrisy co-operated with this worldly tendency. Some friends of Baber's household and intimates of long standing withdrew from With the burden of affairs on my association with me. shoulders and journeying over inequalities of ground and moving through perilous paths, how could I in utter loneliness, reach half way on the road, or when arrive at my destination? But by the advent to the gardens of blessedness of one or two godly friends who in this dearth of manhood were obtained by me, I triumphed over all my difficulties.

[Akbar's sympathy and interest hearten Abul Fazl in

writing this book.]

Strangely enough, with all this apparatus that inspired fear and this struggle within and without, I did not withold my hand from writing nor did my resolution flag, nay rather, every moment fresh vigour was aroused in me and this momentous conflict grew stronger and the strife of the flesh and the spirit increased until the light of truth shone forth and my difficulties were solved, the wondrous effects of the holy spirit of His Majesty were again evidenced in me, and my heart and vision were flooded with an extraordinary light. The writings of the wise of ancient times to some extent corroborated the accuracy of my own course and exculpated my sorry conscience with its ignoble tendencies. What the sages of old affirm is this, that the leader of the caravans of hallowed sovereignty is supreme over high and low, and that the pleasant mead of spiritual and temporal concerns blooms fair under the beneficent lustre of such unique wonder of the world of wisdom: moreover that the visible ruler who is the chosen among thousands of mankind to reduce to order the scattered elements of social organisation holds sway over all men, but his power extends only to their bodies and finds no access to their souls. The lords of spiritual dominion, on the other hand, have no authority save over pure consciences, as the practice of the saints in general and of all holy men illustrates. The ordinary class of professors of learning and the shallow sciolists of the world influence solely the minds of the vulgar, and the effect of their instruction is to be found only in such waste ground. But as the monarch of our time has been appointed sovereign likewise over the invisible world, his sacred inspiration has wrought these extraordinary effects in me who am rude of speech, ignorant and helpless, and raised me from the deeps of ignorance to the heights of knowledge.

With joyful omens blest, my strain Shall celebrate his glorious reign; His praises shall my pen proclaim, And here enshrine his royal name.

[How Abul Fazl secured the materials of his history.] [P. 255] My first care was to collect by the aid of heaven, all the transactions of his enduring reign, and I used exceptional and unprecedented diligence in order to record the chief events of my own time. In many of these occurrences I bore a personal share, and I had a perfect knowledge of the under-currents and secret intrigues of State, to say nothing of the ordinary drift of public affairs. And since the insinuations of rumour had prejudiced me and I was not sure of my own memory, I made various inquiries of the principal officers of State and of the grandees and other well-informed dignitaries; and not content with numerous oral statements, I asked permission to put them into writing, and for each event I took the written testimony of more than twenty intelligent and cautious persons. The flagrant contradictory statements of eye-witnesses had reached my ears and amazed me, and my

difficulties increased. Here was date of an event not far distant—the actors in the scenes and transactions actually present—their directing spirit exalted on the throne of actual experience—and I with my eyes open observing these manifold discrepancies. By the blessing of daily-increasing favour I determined to remedy this, and set my mind to work out a solution. The perplexity disentangled itself and my bewildered state of mind began to grow calm. By deep reflection and a careful scrutiny, taking up the principal points in which there was general agreement, my satisfaction increased, and where the narrators differed from each other I based my presentation of facts on a footing of discriminate investigation of exact and cautious statements, and this somewhat set my mind at ease. Where an event had equal weight of testimony on both sides, or anything reached me opposed to my own view of the question, I submitted it to His Majesty and freed myself from responsibility. By the blessing of the rising fortunes of the State and the sublimity of the royal wisdom, together with the perfect sincerity of the inquirer and his wakeful destiny, I was completely successful and arrived at the summit of my wishes.

[How Abul Fazl worked up the raw materials collected for his history.]

When I had safely traversed these difficult defiles, a work of considerable magnitude was the result. But since at this formidable stage, in the arrangement of these events no minute regard to details had taken place, and their chronological sequence had not been satisfactorily adjusted, I commenced the methodizing of my materials anew, and began to rewrite the whole, and I took infinite pains especially bestowing much attention on the chronology of the Divine Era. And since I had the assistance of the highest scientific experts, this task also was with facility completed and a separate table was drawn out. When through supernatural illumination, the announcement of a new basis of computa-

tion entered the ear of intelligence, that old and tattered garment was cast aside and a robe of honour newly woven of grace, was substituted, and by the power of the Being who created speech, this great work, with all the difficulties it presented, was brought to a conclusion, and numerous expressions of satisfaction were felicitously evoked.

As this world of tribulation is not a home for the wise of heart, the more so that friends who live for the happiness to come are covered by the veil of concealment and on account of the ingratitude of the incapable, have withdrawn their hearts from participation in the false shows of its delusive scene, I looked upon each of my days as though it were to be my last, and employed myself only in the preparations for my final journey. In this sorrowful condition I hastened along my road, and the labours on the fulfilment of which I had counted were not ordered according to my desire.

[He repeatedly revised his composition to give it literary grace.] . As by [P. 256] the decree of destiny my life was still prolonged, for the fourth time I renewed the task and gave it all my solicitude. Although my first efforts were now directed to remove all superfluous repetitions, and give continuity to the easy flow of my exposition, I perceived the incomplete arrangement of my fresh materials, and the due ordering of this was undertaken. And since I was new to the road and stricken with grief and friendless, an exceeding depression of spirit came upon me, in that, with all my toil and with such excessive care these many lapses had occurred and such frequent errors had appeared. What would be the result, and where would it all end? I began a fifth revision and went over the work from the beginning. Although all my acknowledged endeavours were directed to immortalize these events and to place their issues in due order, yet as sagacious writers consider that verse is as the sevour of salt to prose, I took much pains in the introduction of a few stanzas which should be in harmonious accord with

the composition, and many a correction and emendation was made, independently of any consideration of the cavils of numberless critics. The truth is that men close their eyes in regard to their own faults and their own offspring. However much they may oppose the feeling, these defects are approved as merits. I who have made it a practice to be critical of self and indulgent towards others, could employ no collyrium regarding this question, nor devise any remedy for this defect of vision, but on this five-fold revision a rumour of this new development spread abroad. Some of my acquaintances joined in supporting me; others were as unanimous in an underhand depreciation. I formed a resolution, for the sixth time, to set my mind free of its waverings of suggestions, and to exercise the most minute and fastidious criticism; but the frequent calls upon me made by His Majesty left me no time.

I was compelled therefore to present him with this fifth revision, and was rewarded with a perpetual satisfaction.

What mine hath ever yielded gem so fair?
What tongue-born treasure can with this compare?
Beneath each letter is a world concealed,
Each word's expanse shows worlds on worlds revealed.
Its every pearl bedecks the earth and sky,
And if ye see it not—be yours the penalty.

It is my hope that by the blessings of a sincere intention and its own merits, the task which was set before my grateful heart may be happily concluded, and my mind be disburdened in some measure from the distress of its many anxieties. Within the space of seven years, by the aid of a resolute will and a lofty purpose, a compendious survey covering a period from Adam down to the sacred person of the prince regnant, has been concluded, and from the birth of His Imperial Majesty to this day, which is the 42nd of the

Divine Era, 10 and according to the lunar computation 1006, the occurrences of fifty-five years of that nursling of grace have been felicitously recorded, and my mind has been lightened in some degree of its stupendous burden. [P. 257]

The princely heart that virtue dowers, For him gems bloom instead of flowers, And hill and dale his kingdom round Shall with their monarch's praise resound.

It is my expectation to write in four volumes¹¹ a record of the transactions of the royal house during one hundred and twenty years, which are four generations, that it may stand as a memorial for those who seek knowledge in justice, and with the Institutions of His Majesty as the concluding book, I purposed the completion of the Akbarnāmah in these five volumes. By the aid of the Almighty three have been written, and many a secret of wisdom has been revealed and a treasure of truth weighed in the balance.

I bear from wisdom's inmost store
'The royal House this treasured lore,
And pray its justice and its grace
May ne'er my memory efface.
And let this loyal offering be
Accepted of its Majesty.
May God His favour grant benign,
And His acceptance deign with thine,
And raise its dignity on high
With thy name's glorious currency,
'That it from thee may win renown
And link my fortunes with the throne.

[The last two sections of the Akbarnamah are yet to be written.]

¹º The starting point of the Divine Era was Friday, the 5th of Rabii' II. A.H. 963 (19th February 1556).

11 See Vol. 1. Preface.

If destiny in its wondrous workings gives me leisure and capricious fortune, opportunity, the remaining two books shall be satisfactorily terminated and form a history of deeds replete with attraction. If not, let others, guided by grace and a propitious fate, set down, year by year, the events of this enduring reign, with a lofty resolution and unremitting industry, in right understanding, with a noble purpose and in a spirit of freedom, rendering populous the habitations of Church and State and fertilizing the gardens of grace and nature with refreshing waters. Let them not forget this obscure wanderer in the desert of aberration and in their glad work acknowledge their obligations to me who first displayed the continuous succession of this series, and suggested to them the manner of its record. But if this be not approved and they desire, by recommencing on a new method or fashion of language of the day, to compile the transactions of this never-fading dominion.

> Be it unto thy peoples' welfare, Lord, Beneath the shadow of King Akbar's sway.

CHAPTER XIV.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE AUTHOR.

[P. 258] The writer of this important work had it in his mind to draw up a memoir of his venerable ancestors and some particulars of strange incidents in his own life, and form of them a separate volume which should be a source of instruction to the intelligent who look afar; but various occupations, especially the composition of this work, absorbed his attention to the exclusion of all else. At this juncture a secret inspiration prompted the thought that the world would not welcome the detailed journals of personal biography in an isolated form, and that it would be more opportune to append an account thereof to this work and to intersperse here and there some practical and didactic comments. Accepting this happy suggestion, I have thrown off this sketch and liberated my soul,

Since to vaunt of lineage is to traffic from empty-handedness with the bones of one's ancestors and to bring the wares of ignorance to market, and is to be foolishly vain of the merits of others while blind to one's own defects, I was unwilling to touch the subject or indulge in such idle vapouring. In this demon-haunted wilderness, to be linked by any chain deters advance and the irrigation of the genealogy of the outer world is of no profit to the interior spirit.

Be not, as fools, alone thy father's son;
Forget thy sire; choose merit for thine own.
What though should fire beget a scion as bright,
Smoke can be ne'er the progeny of light. [P. 259.]

In ordinary parlance genealogy signifies seed, race, tribe and the like, and the term embraces the distinctions of high and low. Any rational man recognises that the one reverts to

the other, inasmuch as among intermediaries in the line of descent some one individual has become distinguished for material wealth or spiritual eminence, and thus become celebrated by name or title or profession or place of birth; whereas the vulgar who, though accounting mankind to be the sons of Adam their primitive father, yet by attending to romantic fictions accept only these assumptions, are evidently led astray in this matter by the remoteness of the line and do not realize the actuality of that patriarch. Why then should any upright and discerning man be deluded by these fables and trusting to them, withdraw from the pursuit of truth? What availed the son of Noah his father's communion with the Almighty, and how did the idolatry of his race injure Abraham the friend of God?

Jāmi! serve God through love, nor lineage heed, For such road knows no son of this or that.

Nevertheless through the decrees of fate I am linked to worldlings and associated with those who give priority to birth above worth. Thus I am compelled to alude to it, and to furnish a table for such as them.

[Abul Fazl's ancestors in their home in Yemen. His fifth forefather settles in Sewistan as a teacher and pious man.]

The count of honourable ancestry is a long history. How may I retail their holy lives for the unworthy inquisitiveness of the moment? Some wore the garb of saints, some were immersed in secular studies, some were clothed in authority, some engaged in commerce and others led lives of solitude and retirement. For a long period the land of Yemen was the home of these high born and virtuous men. Shaykh Musa, my fifth ancestor, in his early manhood, withdrew from association with his fellows. Abandoning his home he set out on travel, and accompanied only by his knowledge

¹ Cf. Vol. I. Biography of Abul Fazl.

and his deeds he traversed the habitable globe with a step that profited by what he saw. In the ninth century by the decrees of heaven, he settled in quiet retirement at Rél, a pleasant village of Sewistan, and married into a family of God-fearing and pious people. Although he had come from the desert to a civilized town, he did not exchange his retired habits for the occupations of the world. Ever contemplative on his prayer-carpet of introspection, he wrestled in prayer with himself and spent his precious days in the ordering of the wayward spirit. His virtuous sons and grandchildren following his example lived happily, and were instructed in the esoteric and exoteric doctrines of philosophy. In the beginning of the tenth century Shaykh Khizr set out impelled with the desire of visiting the saints of India and of seeing Hijāz and the people of his own tribe. Accompanied by a few of his relatives and friends he came to India. At the city of Nagor, Mir Sayyid Yahya Bokhari of Uch, who was successor to Makhdum-i-Jahāniyān and had a large portion of the spirit of sanctity. Shaykh Abdur Razzāq Qādiri of Baghdad (who was one of the distinguished descendants of that paragon among eminent saints, Sayyid Abdu'l Qadir Jili), and Shaykh Yusuf Sindi who had traversed the fields of secular and mystic lore and had acquired many perfections of the religious life, were engaged in the instruction and guidance of the people, and multitudes were profiting by their direction. In his zeal and affection for these eminent teachers and under the attractive influence of the soil of this ancient country, that wandering exile there took up his abode. [P. 260]

[Author's father Shaikh Mubārak Nāgori—his birth, precocious genius, vast learning and long travels.]

In the year A.H. 911 (A.D. 1505), Shaykh Mubārak (my father) came forth from the realm of conception into visible personality and was clothed in the mantle of existence. Through a miraculous efficacy of will, at the age of four he

displayed the light of his intelligence and a daily-increasing illumination shone from his auspicious countenance. When nine years old he was already considerably well-informed, and at fourteen had run through the usual course of the studies and had by heart the text-books of every science. Although the grace of God guided the caravan of his wakeful fortune and he had received alms from the street of many a learned mystic, he principally attended Shaykh Atan through whose instruction he increased his interior thirst. This Shaykh was of Turkish extraction and lived to the age of one hundred and twenty. In the reign of Sikandar Lodi he had taken up his residence in that city and had attained to an eminent degree of knowledge under Shaykh Sālār of Nāgor who had studied in Irān and Turān.

Briefly to resume, Shaykh Khizr returned to Sind, his whole object being to bring some of his relations back with him to this country. He died on his journey. Meanwhile a severe famine had befallen Nāgor, and an epidemic plague added to the disaster. Except his mother, all other members of his family perished. A resolution to travel had always been uppermost in the enlightened mind of my venerable father, and the desire of seeing the eminent doctors of every land and of soliciting their godly assistance was vehement within him; but that queen of virtue, his lady mother, suffered him not, and no thought of disobeying her entered his righteous mind. In this hesitancy of spirit, he came under Shaykh Fayyazi of Bokhārā-may God sanctify his soul:and his agitation of mind increased. In his early days of study the peerless eyes of that discerning sage had fallen upon a certain servant of God with whom it was his daily fortune to receive interior enlightenment and (guidance to) eternal salvation. He solicited his direction in the choice of a settled course of life. He received the following answer: "About this time a certain person will become an acknowledged master of instruction and will be established as a guide

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to those who seek knowledge; his name is U'baydu'llah and his distinguishing epithet Khwājah-i-Ahrār, (master of the free of spirit): attend his lectures and follow the course he points out." The Khwajah at that time was footsore from his long investigations and assiduously sought the great theriac of truth. In due time he attained this eminent rank and Favvāzi learnt from him how to seek God. His seclusion was directed to be in absolute obscurity and his (spiritual) office was determined without formal delegation. Wherever the Khwajah in his allusions refers to "the dervish," he means this wonder of the world (Fayyāzi).2 For forty years he resided in Turkistan, and in deserts and mountains enjoyed the ecstasy of solitude. He had attained the age of one hundred and twenty years and the fire of his soul was burning with undiminished intensity. One night my father, in the city of my birth, was discussing the subject of religion with some godly and pious persons and many edifying matters had been brought forward, when suddenly the sound of a sigh was heard and a flash of heavenly light shone. However much they attempted to account for this, they could find nothing. The next day after much investigation [P. 261] and a diligent search, it was discovered that this mystic personage was in retirement in a potter's house. My father now for a space reposed in the light of his direction and his own distracted mind ceased to wander. For four months consecutively he enjoyed this happiness and was daily tested by the alchemy of his glance. Within a short period, the time of the Shaykh's departure to heaven drew nigh, and with his mind filled with divine truths, he gave forth his counsels of guidance for those who were seeking revelation. and in ecstasy of spirit and with a serene mind he passed away.

² This passage is so obscure from the confusion and omission of pronouns that it is with great difficulty I have been able to disentangle and determine what I conceive is its sense.

About this time that pattern of pure womanhood who had given my father his earliest instruction, departed this fleeting life. The affair of Maldeo,³ caused an interregnum; my venerable father withdrew towards the seacoast with a view to greater seclusion. His sole purpose was to travel over the country and to derive some profit from intercourse with various classes of men.

[Mubarak's encyclopædic scholarship—his teachers.]

At Ahmadābād he fell in with distinguished doctors and further improved his knowledge, and received a high diploma for every important branch of learning. He acquired a various acquaintance with the doctrines of Mālik, of Shāfiai, of Abu Hanifah, of Hanbal, and of the Imāmiyāh [Shi'a] school, both in the principles of law and the law itself, and by strenuous application acquired the dignity of a mujtahid. Although traditionally from his ancestors he belonged to the theological school of Ahu Hanifah yet he had always adorned his conduct with discretion, and avoiding a servile following of opinion, submitted only to demonstration and took upon himself the things which the flesh resisted. Thus by his greatness of soul and fortunate destiny he passed from the knowledge of the visible to the understanding of the invisible, and the pleasure-ground of the material world led the way to the kingdom of truth. He had read treatises on Sufism and transcendental theology, and had perused many works on contemplation and worship, especially the verities of Shaykh-b-Arabi, of Shaykh-b-Fāridh

disturbances" without further comment. I think he misapprehends the sense. Abul Fazl must refer to the affair subsequent to the final defeat of Humāyun by Sher Shāh, near Kanauj, in A.H. 947 (A.D. 1540). Humāyun fled to Sind, and failing in his attempts there marched by way of Jesalmer to Nāgor and Ajmer then ruled by Maldeo the most powerful of Hindu Rājahs. This prince determined to seize him and make him over to Sher Shāh. Warned in time Humāyun fled at midnight to Amarkot.

and of Shaykh Sadru'ddin of Iconium. Many doctors of physics and ontology honoured him with their countenance. and many successes attended him and uncommon precepts of direction added to his fame. Among the chief divine graces vouchsafed to him was that he became a disciple of the Khatib Abu'l Fazl Kāzarun. This personage from his appreciation of merit and knowledge of men, adopted him as a son and diligently instructed him in various knowledge. and made him commit to memory the subtleties of the Shifa,4 the Ishārāt, the Tazkirah and Ptolemy's Almagest. Thus the garden of learning was refreshed with irrigation and the penetration of his vision was further increased. That learned man at the instance of the princes of Guiarat, had come from Shirāz to the country, and the groves of wisdom received a renewal of bloom. He had acquired learning under divers theologians of the time, but in the great branch of mystical contemplation he was the disciple of Maulana lalalu'ddin Dawwani. That learned doctor had first received the leading principles of science from his own father, and subsequently, in Shiraz had attended as a pupil the lectures of Maulana Muhyi'ddin Ashkbar, or the Weeper, and Khwajah Hasan Shah Baqqal, these two theologians being among the principal pupils of Sayyid Sharif Juriāni. He for a time also frequented the school of Maulana Humamu'ddin Gulbari who was proficient in drawing horoscopes and there lit the lamp of erudition, [P. 262] and through good fortune thus acquired a wonderful extent of knowledge. He had also

^{&#}x27;The Shifā and Ishārah are two works of the famous Avicenna, i.e., Abu Ibn Sina (980—1037 A.D.), whose full name was Abu Ali al-Husayn-b-Abdu'llah; the former on logic according to Hāji Khalifah, but Ibn i Khallakān states its subject to be philosophy (hikmat), a term wide enough in application among Orientals to include medicine, and may signify science in general. The Ishārat i'la i'lm 'il Mantik (indicium ad scientiam logicæ), is on the same subject and by the same author. There are many works under the title of Tazkirah. The reference is probably to the great work of the grammarian Abu Ali Hasan-b-Ahmad al-Fārisi, who died in A.H. 989 or 1581 A.D. Ency. Islam. ii. 419.

made a thorough study of philosophical works the principles of which he explained with much elegance, as his treatises on that subject evidence and commendably illustrate. In the same city of grace, my venerable father had the good fortune to attend upon Shaykh U'mar of Tattah, who was one of the greatest saints of the time, and that night-illumining jewel possessing the power of an exquisite discernment, inspired him transcendentally with elevation of soul and sublime knowledge. He also fell in with many doctors of the Shattari. Tayfuri, Chishti and Suhrawardi orders, and profited by their instruction. In the city likewise, he made the acquaintance of Shavkh Yusuf, who was one of the most ecstatic and inspired of mystics, and through him was filled with new wisdom. He was ever absorbed in the ocean of the divine presence, and omitted no minute particular of ceremonial worship. From the holy influence by which he was surrounded, his desire was to erase altogether from the expanse of his mind the impressions of knowledge, and withdrawing entirely from the conventional obligations of intercourse, to become absorbed in the contemplation of the divine perfections. But that reader of the secrets of the heart's recesses discovering his intention dissuaded him therefrom, and he courteously communicated to him that a ship was about to sail, and that he should visit Agra, and if his difficulties were not there overcome, he should proceed to Iran and Turan, and wherever the spirit led him or a call directed him, thither should he go and occupy himself with secular teaching.

[Mubarak comes to Agra in 1543 and marries.]

Conformably to this direction in the first of the (Persian) month of the Urdibihisht (April), in the Jalali year 465, corresponding to Saturday, the 6th of Muharram 950 A.H. (A.D. 10th April 1543), he happily alighted in that prosperous seat of empire which may God guard from all adversity! In that delightful residence he happened to become acquainted with Shaykh Alau'ddin Majzub or the ecstatic,

who could read the tablets of the heart and the secrets of the tomb. This saint, in one of his returns to consciousness from an ecstatic trance, informed him that it was God's will that he should remain in that city and abandon further wanderings, and he announced to him good tidings and comforted his roving spirit. He took up his residence on the banks of the Jumna, in the vicinity of Mir Rafii'u'ddin Safawi of li.5 He here married into a Quraysh family distinguished for wisdom and virtue, and lived on terms of intimacy with its head, the chief of the quarter; and this upright personage, looking upon the arrival of that nursling of wisdom as a rare distinction, received him with warmth of affection and cordiality. Since he was a man of much wealth, he wished my father to share his mode of life; but by the guidance of fortune and grace, he did not consent, and preferring the threshold of reliance and an independent mind. he pursued a life of interior recollection combined with worldly pursuits. The Mir was one of the Hasani and Husayni Savvids. Some account of his ancestors is given in the works of Shaykh Sakhāwi. Although their birthplace was originally the village of Ii of Shiraz, yet for a long time past they preferred to live at Hijaz, and some members of the family have been continually settled in both places where they have been the givers and recipients of benefit. Although he had studied [P. 263] philosophy and theology under the direction of his own parents, he nevertheless, as a pupil of Maulana lalālu'ddin Dawwani, reached a higher distinction therein. in Arabia he studied the various branches of traditional lore under Shaykh Sakhāwi of Cairo in Egypt, who was a disciple

Blochmann has "luju (Shirāz)," but Yāqut gives no such name. The text has distinctly Ij and Yāqkut locates Ij in the district of Dārābjird, and states that the Persians pronounce it "Eek." One Dārābjird he places in the district of Istakhr adjacent therefore to Shifāz. Abul Fazl intends this locality, as he shows lower down. The present ruins of Dārābjird formed the ancient citadel of Pasargadae which contained the tomb of Cyrus.

4.

of Shaykh Ibn-i-Hajr al-Asqalāni,⁶ and when he died in A.H. 954 (A.D. 1547), my father retired to his own seclusion.

[Mubārak sets up as a teacher at Agra.]

He continued his efforts in the regeneration of his soul while attending to the perfect propriety of his exterior conduct, and was assiduous in his worship of God. He employed himself in teaching various sciences and made the expounding of the opinions of the ancients an occasion for withholding his own, and gave no tongue—that fatal member—to the expression of desire. Some few prudent and virtuous persons of whose sincerity he was assured, he admitted to his society and appreciated their merits, but from the rest he held himself excused and avoided association with them. In a short time his house became the resort of the learned where high and low were honourably received. Among gatherings of friends, there were also conclaves of the envious, but these did not depress him, nor those elate. Sher Khān, Salim Khān and other grandees proposed for him a stipend from the State revenues and to settle on him a suitable freehold, but as he possessed a high spirit and lofty views he declined and thus raised his own reputation.

As he was gifted with an innate aptitude for the direction of men, and held a divine commission for the enunciation of truth, while at the same time he had the concurrence of the saints of his time and the affection of his well-wishers daily increased, he undertook the guidance of those who frequented his lectures and sought enlightenment, and he denounced all evil habits. Self-interested worldlings took offence and entertained unseemly intentions. As he had no desire to oppose any hostile discussion and allowed no thought of acrimony or servility to enter his mind, he did not the less continue to

⁶ Shihābu'ddin Abu'l Fazl Ahmad-b-Ali-b Hajr al Asqalāni, the well-known author of the Isābah fi tamyiz is-Sihābah (recta institutio de distinctione inter socios prophetæ). He died in A.H. 852 (A.D. 1449). Ency. Islam, ii. 379, under Ibn-Hadjar.

speak the truth boldly and to reprove evil doers, and did not attempt to win over quarrelsome seceders. And this occasioned that the Almighty miraculously blessed him with true friends and spiritually-minded sons. Although he employed his hours in teaching philosophy, during the time of the Afghans he lectured little on theology. When the lofty crescent-bearing standards of Humayun shed a new splendour over Hindustan, some students from Iran and Turan attended the school of that knower of the mysteries of the spirit and of the world, and his lectures grew in repute, and the field of the thirsty in the drought-year of discernment overflowed with water, while timid travellers encamped in the pleasure-ground of repose. Affairs had now scarcely got into train when the evil-eye fell on them, and I-lemu' now rose in the ascendant. The well-disposed withdrew into obscurity and retired in disappointment. My venerable father with a stout heart, continued firm in his own seclusion, and by the favour of. God, Hemu sent messengers with expressions apology, and through the interposition of a man of my father's excellent character many were released from the oppression of anxiety and entered the meads of joy.

⁷ Hemu was a shop-keeper whom Salim Shah had made Superintendent of the markets, and who was raised by Muhammad Shah Aadili to the highest honours and entrusted with the whole administration. He certainly proved his great capacity, for he suppressed the revolt of Sikandar Sur in the Punjab, crushed Muhammad Sur in Bengal, captured Agra from the Mughal troops. and defeated Akbar's general Tardi Beg at Delhi. He was, however, eventually beaten at Panipat by Bayram Khan on the 5th November 1556, after a desperate battle in which he fought with the greatest bravery. He had been shot in the eye by an arrow in his howdah, and though in great agony, he drew the arrow with the eye-ball out of its socket and wrapt it in his handkerchief, and continued the fight to encourage his troops. He was taken prisoner and carried before Akbar. Bayram recommended the king to slay him with his own hand and fulfil a meritorious act. Akbar lightly touched him with his sabre and became entitled to the honours of a Ghāzi—a slayer of infidels. The deed itself he suffered Bayram to execute, who decapitated Hemu at a single blow. Saladin. a tru Ch-ti - rould have part a callant a for

[Abul Fazl's recollections of the famine and plague in Hindustan in 1556.]

In the beginning of the year of the accession of His Majesty to the imperial throne, as though wild rue. [P. 264] were set on fire upon the State with the view of arresting the evil-eye, a great famine occurred, which raised the dust of dispersion. The capital was devastated and nothing remained but a few houses. In addition to this and other immeasurable disasters, a plague became epidemical. This calamity and destruction of life extended throughout most of the cities of Hindustan. Still that enlightened sage remained in his seclusion and the dust of tepidity settled not in the serene chamber of his mind. The writer of this work was then five vears old.9 and the luminary of discernment so blazed before the arch of his vision that its expression cannot enter the mould of language, nor, if expressed would it find access to the narrow hearing of mankind. He has a perfect recollection of this event, and the evidence of eve-witnesses confirms his testimony. The distress of the times ruined many families and multitudes died. In that habitation about 70 people, in all, male and female, high and low, may have survived. Contemporaries marvelled at the easy circumstances and general cheerfulness of the dervishes and attributed it to magic

It is popularly supposed that a fumigation with wild rue and its seeds which are set alight, arrest the malignant effects of the evil-eye. The term used is "the eye of perfection". The praise of any object in the possession of an Oriental is regarded as ominous by him and as bringing a nemesis with it, for all perfect things decline after reaching their zenith.

He was born at Agra on the 6th Muharram 958 (14 January

<sup>1551).

10</sup> I presume this means the quarter in which his family resided. There is no mention of these distresses in Ferishta. Abul Fazl makes a brief allusion to it in the Akbarnāmah. He says that there was great scarcity throughout Hindustan, and especially in Delhi where the famine was extreme, and although money might be obtained, food-grain was not to be had; men were driven to feed on human flesh, and parties were formed to carry off any solitary person in order to eat him. Text, Vol, II. 35.

and incantation. Sometimes a ser of grain would be obtained. which was set to boil in earthenware vessels, and the warm water distributed amongst these people. Most strange of all was that there occurred no difficulty of provision in my father's house, and except the worship of God no other thought disturbed his mind, and save an examination of his own conscience and a perusal of the travels of the spirit no other occupation employed him, until the mercy of God was youchsafed unto all and a universal affluence lit the countenance of joy. The royal standards shone again with splendour and by a daily increasing justice filled the world with a new radiance. The palace of wisdom grew in amplitude and the wares of knowledge rose to a high price. Science in its many branches and learning of every kind were now diffused. New elucidations, high and lofty views and important discoveries were published abroad and all classes of men received countless benefits from the treasury of intellect. The quiet retirement of-that discerning nature became the resort of the learned of the universe, and the highest topics were matters of discussion. But the envy that had been chilled now warmed to life, and the malevolence of the wicked increased. My father steadily followed his own course disregarding the fashion of the times and sitting at the gate of independence pursued not the road of prescribed conventionality. Men of little influence and envious, losing patience followed the path of detraction. Most of them accused him of attachment to the Mahdawi doctrines." and uttered the most absurd fictions. They stirred up the simple and ignorant, and did their best to produce keen annoyance by their evil intrigues. The chief instrument in their hands was the affair of Shaykh Alāi.

[Affair of Shaikh Alāi, a follower of Mir Sayyid Md. of Jaunpur, who was regarded as the predicted Mahdi.]

¹¹ See Vol. I. Biog. iii, iv. ff. for the Mahdawi movement and the history of Shaykh Alāi. On the Mahdawi sect, Ency. Islam, iii. III. On the Mahdi, ibid, iii. III-II5. [J. S.]

There is a sect in India who regard Mir Sayyid Muhammad of launpur as the predicted Mahdi and go to extreme lengths in this assertion, and forgetting the other demonstrations¹² of this mission besides doctrine, works, and blameless moral conduct, adopt this movement. In the reign of Salim Khān, a youth called Shaykh Alāi, irreproachable in his character and conduct, fell into this whirlpool, and came into that auspicious city (of Agra), originally for the purpose of seeing my venerable father with a view to a life of seclusion and retirement. Certain seditious men who sought [P. 265] but a pretext, were loud in their frivolous accusations and gave occasion to scandal. The learned of the day who are ignorant pretenders and sell poisonous herbs under show of antidotes, rose up in malice against him and conspired to put him to death, and even obtained judicial decrees. My father did not concur with them and found neither reason nor tradition on their side. They sought to bring the dispute before the Emperor of Hindustan, and strove for their own undoing. The king assembled a council of the learned of the time, and great efforts were made to obtain a legal sentence. My venerable father was also summoned to attend. When his opinion was asked, he gave it against the crafty pretenders who sought but their own advancement. From that day, they maliciously imputed to him an attach-

Amongst these are that he must be of the tribe of the Quraysh and of the family of Fātima. His countenance will be open and his nose aquiline, and he will fill the earth with equity and justice as it has been filled with tyranny and oppression. A rival, also of the Quraysh, will be raised up to oppose him, who will levy war against him and obtain aid of his uncles of the tribe of Kalb. During the reign of the Mahdi, heaven and earth will be pleased with him and there shall be abundant rains, and the earth will give forth her fruits and men's lives will pass pleasantly, and he will continue on the earth seven, eight or nine years, and dying, will be prayed over by the Muslims. Other tokens have been predicted, such as the black ensigns coming from the direction of Khorāsān; but these were additions made in the interest of the Abbasides and for the glory of that house. See also Blochmann's extract from the Rauzat u'l Aimmah. Vol. I. Biog. iii.

ment to that cause, and on so trifling a point as to whether the mission of the Mahdi is a tradition of authority or otherwise, 13 out of sheer malignity, they proceeded to such lengths that he was ruined. Some evil-minded men reviled him for the Shiah tendencies which they presumed he held, not understanding that knowledge is one thing and profession is another.

[Theologians opposed to Mubärak denounce Mir Muhammad as a heretic. Before Islam Shah Sur Mubārak defends the Mir's doctrines as orthodox.]

At this very time they also made a suspect of one of the Sayyids of I'raq14 who was among the choicest souls of the age, whose character and conduct were alike virtuous and his precepts harmonized with his actions; but by the royal favour their arm was shortened from reaching him. One day in the royal presence, they represented that no religious authority should be accorded to the Mir, and that since his views were repudiated, it would be inconsistent to recognize his leadership in religious functions. They adduced some cases in point from ancient Hanafi tréatises in support of their contention that the teaching of I'raq dignitaries (ashraf), ought not to be accepted. The prospects of the Mir were gloomy. As he was on terms of fraternal religious intimacy with my father, he laid the whole truth before him, and my father comforted him with judicious counsel and encouraged him to confront more boldly the suggestions of the wicked,

only on one authority are in contradistinction to traditions supported by several contemporary and concurrent narrators.

a disciple of Mir Sayyid Muhammad of Jaunpur. See Vol. 1. Biog. v. Badauni's own version of the persecution of Shaikh Muhärak is given in Vol. II, text p. 198-200, where he says that Muhärak first took refuge with Shaikh Salim Chishti of Fathpur, who merely sent him money by some of his disciples and advised him to go away to Gujrat; Muhārak next appealed to Mirza 'Aziz Kokah, who praised the Shaikh to Akbar and secured the Emperor's pardon for him. [J. S.]

and in refutation of the traditionary authority that had been cited against him, he stated that they had not understood its drift. What had been brought forward from the Hanafi works referred not to Persian but to Arabian I'raq, and many passages he quoted in confirmation thereof; and further that they had not distinguished between dignitaries par excellence (ashraf i ashraf) and the nobles (ashraf), for the degrees of royal rewards and punishments are assigned distributively to four classes. The first is the pre-eminent (ashraf i ashaf), such as doctors, divines, Sayyids, and holy men. The second is termed ashrāf, the noble, that is the officials and land proprietors and the like. The third is styled awsat, or the intermediate, which is understood as comprising the industrial and commercial professions. The fourth comprises the inferior orders who do not rise to the preceding degree, such as the mob and the low rabble. Each of these orders is subject to a separate code of sanctions regulating the acknowledgment of honourable service and the penalties of misconduct. And, indeed, if every evil-doer was to receive the same punishment, this would be a deviation from justice. The Mir was emboldened by this assurance and much rejoiced, and in order to clear himself and expose the ignorance of his traducers, he submitted the opinion of the Shavkh for the royal consideration. Those wicked men with their evil machinations were confounded. When they discovered the source of their confusion, they were inflamed with jealousy. Similar instances of assistance such as this were divulged and contributed to the turbulence of the ignorant. Praise be to God that all men agreed in this, that there is no [P. 266] creed that may not in some one particular be in error, nor yet any such that is entirely false, and therefore, that if any one, according to his conviction, speaks favourably regarding a doctrine which seems at variance with his own faith, his motives should not be misunderstood, nor should people rise to decry him. After a long controversy, this point was abandoned and they

reverted to the accusation of his Shiah tendencies; but by the protection of God the detractor was covered with shame, his infamy exposed and he was overwhelmed with confusion: nevertheless, in his recusancy and blindness he took no admonition and continued to seek his occasion, confirmed in his malice, until the wondrous ways of destiny and the caprice of fortune were manifested, and a vast dispersion came as an exemplary warning.

[In 1570, Shaikh Mubārak sets up as a public teacher in Agra. The bigots in envy form a plot to ruin him.]

In the fourteenth year of His Majesty's reign, corresponding to A.H. 977 (A.D. 1569-70), my father came forth from his retirement, and great troubles presented themselves. of which I shall briefly make mention as a hortatory instruction. Although the hornet's-nest of envy was still in commotion, and the viper's hole alive with the brood, the night-lamp of friendship dim and even the good intent on molestation had closed the door of estrangement, as has been already alluded to, at this time I say, when learning was regarded with honour and the distinguished of the day were his disciples and the numbers at his lectures were in full attendance and my father, according to his custom. denounced all evil habits and exhorted his friends and wellwishers to avoid them, the learned doctors and divines of the time who regarded his beautiful soul as a mirror to their own defects, maliciously conspired to restore their position. Labouring under the convulsions of their tortuous purposes, they represented to themselves that if they could but adduce some particular instance to convince His Majesty who loved justice, it would signally re-establish their former titles to esteem and result in a condition disastrous (to my father). Oppressed by grief and vexation, they continued their intrigues and boldly advanced in a course of detraction and by their sophistries and crafty insinuation they led astray many of the courtiers with their show of affected regrets.

Some amongst the evil-disposed they roused by an appeal to their bigotry.

Although for a considerable period this unseemly conduct had continued, yet by the aid of virtuous and truthful individuals, the conspiracies of the wicked had always been defeated. At this juncture, however, this honest and trusty band were remote, and the chief of these intriguers at court set himself to gratify his malice. These shameless wretches and unclean spirits of evil found their opportunity. My venerable father had gone to the house of a servant of God and I had the happiness of accompanying him. That overweening braggart15 with his affected haughtiness was also present at the visit and began his crafty discourse. The conceit of learning and exuberant youth possessed me. I had never before set foot outside of college to be present at any public functions, but his vain words drove me to open my lips and I spoke so much to the point that he was ashamed and the spectators were amazed. From that day, he vowed to avenge his being convicted of ignorance, and emboldened those who had lost heart. My venerable father was unconscious of their designs and I in my pride of knowledge, gave no heed. At first those worldlings without religion, like crafty schemers, convened assemblies ostensibly in the interests of truth and religion, and by persecuting assaults on those who sought but quiet, many were hunted to death. [P. 267] Whenever a monarch, well meaning and with every good intention, leaves the direction of religion, education and justice entirely to a body who are outwardly respectable, and himself assumes in their regard the mantle of indifference, the influence of the truthful and righteous wanes and the crooked-moving white-ants of learning and the

This must refer to Makedum-u'l-Mulk, whose bold opposition to Akbar's religious pretensions caused his dismissal from court, his banishment from the kingdom and finally his removal by poison at the instigation of Akbar, if the Sunnis are to be believed See the notice of his life in Vol. 1. Biog. vii.

courtiers unite in intrigue against these few and bigotry has full sway. And it comes to pass that families are subverted and reputations totally ruined. At such a time when these wretches had gained credit for virtue, like a bride that is falsely passed off for a virgin and proves a harlot, and when graceless worldlings were triumphant, and the sordid and blind of heart were united in purpose, sympathetic friends remote, the honest of speech secluded, and the gatherings of contention of the profane frequent, these conspiracies were hatched and compacts of persecution made.

[In a dark night Shaikh Mubārak and his two elder sons flee from their home, on hearing a treacherous friend's false report of an impending attack by their enemies.]

One of the double-faced and fickle, a fallen angel of malevolent cunning who had insidiously crept into the lecturerooms of my venerable father under a show of sincerity and was in collusion and understanding with that body, was found and despatched at mid-night inspired with impious deceits and spells to infatuate. That clever imposter at dead of night with a trembling heart and tearful eyes, a pallid colour and dejected countenance, hastened to my elder brother's chamber and his evil spells disturbed that simple soul and seduced one ignorant of guile and deceit. The purport of his information was this: "The principal men of the day have been for a long time hostile, and the faithless and ungrateful without shame. They have now found this opportunity and mean persecution. Many of these turbaned divines are witnesses and having appointed a prosecutor, have incited him to procure an investigation on colourable pretexts into their slanders. Every one knows the influence these men have at court and how many eminent men for their own aggrandizement they have had put out of their way, and what highhanded persecutions they have enforced. I have a friend in their secret counsels. Even now at midnight he informed me of this, and I have in trepidation come to you lest when

day breaks it may be too late to mend matters. Now my advice is that they should convey the Shaykh to some concealment without any one's knowledge and let him for a few days live retired until his friends can assemble and he can represent his case fully to His Majesty." That good soul [Faizi] took alarm and with much agitation went to the Shaykh's chamber and informed him of the case. He "Though my enemies may be powerful, the answered: Almighty is vigilant and a just monarch now rules the world. If a handful of godless unprincipled men are unrighteously filled with envy, the obligation of pledges is still binding and the door of investigation is not closed. Moreover, if the decrees of God for my injury have not been issued, though all are united against me they can avail nothing and can do no evil nor inflict harm upon me; but if the will of the Creator be this, I will cheerfully and gladly give my life and withdraw from the possession of this fleeting existence." As my brother was scarce master of himself and afflicted with grief, mistaking truth for self-deception as he had mistaken a false pretext for condolence, he drew his dagger and said, "Practical business is one thing and religious mysticism is another; if you do not go I will at once kill myself; for the rest, look you to it. I shall not await here the day of ruin." The paternal bond and fatherly affection induced compliance with his wish. At the command of that serene sage I was also awoke.

Under compulsion, then, in the darkness of that night, three persons set out, having no appointed guide and unequal to the fatigues of travel. My venerable sire, reflecting on the accidents of fortune, maintained silence, while between myself and my brother, than whom one more inexpert at the time in political dealings or worldly business one could not imagine, a conversation continued and we spoke of our place of retreat. Whomsoever he mentioned I objected to and whom I named he disapproved.

With outstretched arm against me comes the foe; No trusty friend averts the threatened blow. Throughout the world man and his works I see, But not a trace bespeaks humanity.

[The helpless fugitive family of Mubarak remove from place to place but find no friendly shelter.]

Driven to extremity, after a thousand difficulties we arrived at the house of a person regarding whose fidelity my brother was assured and of whom I, fasting in the morn of existence and of little account in the market of this elemental frame, had not the least suspicion. At the sight of his peaceful and dignified visitors, the man was surprised and regretted our coming and was in hesitancy how to act. At last he found a place for our lodging. When we entered the house it was more forbidding than his own heart. A strange scene took place and an exceeding sorrow filled our minds. My elder brother hung round me saying, "Notwithstanding my greater experience. I have been mistaken, and thou with little knowledge of men hast judged aright. Now what is to be done and what is the course proposed, and where may we take refuge?" I replied, "Nothing has as yet happened; let us return to our own home and let me be the spokesman, and perhaps the badges of office of these worldlings will be removed and the trouble that threatens be overcome." My father applauded and approved the counsel, but my brother would not consent and said, "Thou hast no knowledge of this business nor perceive the fraud and diabolical malignity of these men. Let us leave this place and discuss as we go along." Although I had not traversed the desert of experience nor the good and evil ways of men, a divine inspiration suggested a person to my mind and I said, "It has occurred to me that if things go fairly well, such a one will help, but in a time of serious trouble it will be difficult for him to join us." As time was pressing and our minds in perplexity we set out in his direction. Footsore we proceeded through ways clogged with mud and reflected on the vicissitudes of fortune. Loosing hold of the "strong handle" of reliance in God, trudging onwards disspirited and thinking the world in pursuit, we advanced each step with difficulty, breathing with effort, oppressed with exceeding sorrow and believing the day of the resurrection of the wicked at hand.

At dawn we reached his house. At the news he met us with cordiality and found us a suitable lodging and our

many cares were somewhat abated. [P. 269]

[Shaikh Mubārak's enemies get a royal warrant issued to arrest him for trial according to the Qurānic law against heresy.—Akbar orders his release—Mubārak's enemies still

persecute him.]

In this retreat after two days, we learnt that these envious agitators had lifted the veil of shame and openly divulged the intentions of their foul minds and like crafty intriguers on the morning of that night they represented their case to His Majesty and perplexed his august mind. An order was issued from the imperial palace that affairs of state should not be transacted without consultation with them, that this was a question of faith and religion the issue of which lay entirely in their hands, that the fugitives should be summoned before the judicial tribunal and whatever the illustrious law decided and the heads of the government determined should be carried out. The royal persuivants were set on and despatched in search, and when they learnt what had happened they made every effort at discovery. Some evildoers, plotters of villainy, accompanied them and not finding us in our dwelling and believing a vain report, they surrounded the house and finding my brother Abu'l Khayr in the house they took him to the court and reported our flight with a hundred embellishments, and made it an occasion of shameless accusations. By an extraordinary favour of heaven His sagacious Majesty was apprised of this gathering of interested detractors and their manner of insinuation, and replied,

"Why is all this hostility shown against an obscure dervish and learned ascetic, and what is the object of this senseless clamour? The Shaykh constantly travels and has now probably gone abroad for recreation. Why have they brought this boy? and why interdicted the house?" The boy was at once released and the prohibition against the house removed. The breeze of favour now blew upon that dwelling. Since some difficulties were in the way and apprehension was uppermost and various rumours contradicted the above, we fugitives disbelieving it remained in concealment. The base villains covered with confusion now thought that as their victims were without house and home, this was the time to carry out their designs and that some dark-minded miscreants should be engaged to kill them wherever they met them, lest they should learn what had happened and introduce themselves to the royal court and secure justice by the lustre of their talents. Concealing, therefore, the answer of the King, they put forth some alarming and awe-inspiring language as though uttered by his august lips and thus terrified unsuspecting and time-serving friends. And they issued some plausible documents misleading men into wrong conclusions and thus held them back from intended assistance. After a week, the master of the house too becoming discouraged, began to be vexatious and his servants discontinued their former civility. The minds of the fugitives were under apprehension, and their agitated hearts were convinced that the first report had no foundation, that the King was investigating and the world in pursuit, and that the master of the house would undoubtedly surrender them. An exceeding grief overwhelmed them and a great fear entered their hearts. I said: "Judging for myself, of this much I am assured that the original rumour is correct, otherwise they would not have released my brother nor would the guards over our house have been removed. May not this supposed incivility [P. 270] be only outward? In a time of security whenever an ill rumour was heard, even good men, led away by it, rose against us: now if a man like the master of the house, is afraid, what is there to wonder at? and if he intended to apprehend us, there would have been no change in his outward demeanour and he would not have delayed. The fabrications of malevolent reprobates have undoubtedly bewildered him and have induced his men to this, so that seeing this discourtesy we should leave the house and relieve his mind of anxiety." Thus reflecting we were somewhat recovered and set ourselves to devise some plan, and a dark day dawned more distressful than the first night, and gloomy was the prospect before us. They applauded both my first opinion and this statement of my views and recognized me as a counsellor and trusted adviser and overlooking my youth they promised not to oppose my advice in future.

[Wanderings of the persecuted Shaikh Mubārak and his sons—the dangers and privations they underwent when

fleeing from the bigoted heresy-hunters.]

When evening drew on, with hearts filled with a thousand anxicties and wounded bosoms and minds oppressed with sorrow, we went forth from that dreadful abode of woe, without a helper in sight, with fainting limbs, no place of refuge visible nor any prospect of peace. On a sudden in that gloomy haunt of demons, a flash shone and gladness smiled again. The house of one of the disciples appeared in sight and there for a while we rested. Although his abode was darker than his heart and his heart blacker than our first night, we reposed a while and recovered from bewilderment; but though at the end of our resources and in the depths of depression, our minds continued active and our thoughts were roused to reflection. As we found no place of rest and nothing to comfort us I remarked that we had of late seen all that our best friends and oldest pupils and most steadfast disciples would do for us. The most advisable course to pursue was now to take ourselves away from this city of

hypocrisy which was a dungeon inimical to learning and injurious to perfection, and to withdraw from these doublefaced friends and unstable acquaintances whose loyalty rests on the breeze of spring and their performance on a rushing torrent. Perhaps a corner of privacy might be obtained and a stranger take us under his protection. There we might learn somewhat of the condition of His Majesty and discover the measure of his anger or clemency. It was possible to fall in with some kindly and upright friends and get a savour of the state of the times. If the occasion be favourable and fortune propitious we may again see better days, and if not, why the expanse of the world has not been contracted. Every bird has its perch and the corner of its nest and there is no commission of perpetual residence in this region of penalty. A certain noble, having obtained an assignment of land in the neighbourhood of the city had here settled; we might decipher the impressions of truth from the daily journal of his circumstances and the odour of his friendship be inhaled by the sense of a penetrating brain. Let us therefore abandoning all else, betake ourselves to him that we may repose somewhat in that inaccessible spot. Although the amity of worldlings has no fixed centre or constancy, there is this much at least that he has no further intercourse with those people. My good brother, changing his garments, set cut at once on the road and hastened in that direction. Our friend was delighted at the news [P. 271] and cordially welcomed our advent as a piece of good fortune. And since it was a time of insecurity, he brought some soldiers16 with him so that no harm could come to us on the road and we should not be at the mercy of evil-disposed pursuers. In the midnight of despair that ready and vigilant friend arrived and conveyed the good tidings of comfort and brought the message of repose. On the instant we changed our garments

Lit. Turks, but I apprehend the meaning is any guard of armed men. They were probably Mughals.

and started on our journey and by divers roads arrived at his dwelling. He displayed great geniality and did us the highest service and an exceeding contentment was the harbinger of our happiness. For ten days we rested in his house and were safe from the warfare of the world, when suddenly a disaster more overwhelming than the preceding fell upon us from the firmament of fate. For, verily, the man was summoned to the royal court, and with the same strong potation with which the second man had been intoxicated, they finished this one's business and he became more hopelessly drunk than the former. He straightway rolled up the parchment of acquaintance.

One night, leaving that place we came to another friend. He welcomed our auspicious arrival as a privilege. But as he lived in the vicinity of an evil-disposed and turbulent person, he fell into great bewilderment and exceeding anxiety nearly drove him distracted. When the house was all asleep, we set forth without any definite destination in prospect and however much we thought and pondered we found no resting place and therefore with an agitated heart and minds oppressed with sorrow, we returned to his house. Strangely enough the men of the house were not aware that we had left it. For a short space we who had severed the cord of reliance on God, took repose and thus forgot our troubles. My brother expressed his opinion that our leaving the place was an impulse of fear not a counsel of wisdom. However much I represented to him that the man's vacillation was a sufficient guide and the change of manner in his servants a clear proof, it was of no avail and as the signs of dissatisfaction in our host increased, no other remedy was at hand. When that light-headed, improvident and overreaching individual reflected in his mind that these people ignorant of the inconvenience they cause, will take no hint and will not vacate the house, at daybreak without taking counsel with us or saying a kind word, he marched off and his venal servitors loading

their tents took their departure. Here were we three left stranded in the wilds, in the neighbourhood of which a cattlemarket had been established. A strange predicament it was -no place to abide in-no idea of whither to go-and no veil to conceal us. On every side were double-faced friends. determined enemies, base and cruel men, and time-servers banded together in pursuit, and we sitting in the dust of helplessness, in a wilderness without shelter, with gloomy prospects, in present distress and sunk in prolonged grief. However, in any case it was necessary to rise and proceed. Through that concourse of miscreants we passed on: the protection of God hung a veil before the eyes of men, and under the divine assistance and guard we went forth from that place of terror, and abandoning the fears of companionship and all trust in men, we escaped from the reproach of strangers and the God-speed of friends. We happened to come upon a garden where some kind of refuge offered itself. Our lost vigour returned and our hearts were greatly strengthened. And now it suddenly became manifest that nome of our graceless pursuers frequented the place. Wearied with our search we rested for a while. Then [P. 272] with minds distracted and outwardly woebegone we came forth. n whatever direction we went, some unforeseen calamity illed us with gloom and our places were scarcely warm ere we set forth again in the wilderness of danger, until at length in this restless wandering and blind vagrancy the gardener recognised us and our condition became desperate. We were nigh expiring and resigning the bond of life. That good man with many expressions of good will restored our drooping spirits and charitably took us to his house and endeavoured o console us. Although my dear brother was still in the same wretched state and every moment grew paler, my spirits on the contrary rose. I read the signs of probity in the counenance of that genial person. My venerable father himself in communion with God was on the prayer-carpet of prudence

and watched the course of events. Some part of the night had passed when the master of the gardener came forward with great cordiality and lengthened the tongue of reproval saying, "What! with such a friend as I am here, do you alight in this place of confusion! Why have you plucked your skirts from me?" and he acted in a manner which we could not have anticipated. I answered: "In this storm, which is according to an enemy's desire, we sought withdrawal from all our sincere friends and loyal well-wishers lest any injury befall them on this account." He was somewhat confused and said: "If you are not contented to stay in my house, let us see what can be done." He indicated to us a place of safety; the appearances of sincerity were evident from his language and following his wish, we chose a quiet nook and there alighted. We found here a retreat such as we desired, and from that place we despatched truthful accounts to people of just and commendable dispositions and to faithful friends, and each one became cognizant of our condition and set about remedying it and thus our pulses were quieted.

[A noble intercedes for Shaikh Mubārak. Akbar sum-

mons the Shaikh to his presence.]

We remained a little more than a month in that restful place and my good brother went from Agra to Fathpur, meaning when he reached the royal camp, to make our devoted partisans more zealous in our behalf. One morning that all-loving and circumspect soul returned with a thousand anxieties and troubles, bringing distressing news. It seems that one of the chief nobles and grey-beard elders of the imperial court on the information of these envious wretches, became furious, and without soliciting the usual permission or paying his submissive respects, entered the presence of Majesty with brusqueness and roughly said, "Has the world come to an end or is the day of resurrection at hand that in this court malicious fanatics have their way and good men are confounded? What ordinance is this that we have;

and what ingratitude is this now shown?" My brother who loved peace, acknowledging his good intentions said, "To whom dost thou allude and what dost thou want of this person? Hast thou seen a vision? or is thy brain distracted?" When he mentioned the name. His Majesty was surprised at his wrong impression and said: "All the chief men of the day seem determined to persecute and do him to death and have passed judicial decrees against him. They give me no peace (P. 273) for a moment. Although I know that the Shaykh is in such and such a place (mentioning our retreat), I purposely take no notice of it, and I answer each one of them with a rebuke. Thou art clamorous without knowing and dost overstep due limits. Let some one go to-morrow morning and summon the Shaykh to the presence and an assembly of the divines shall be held." My good brother as soon as he heard of this disturbance came post-hate, and without any one's knowing, as before, we changed our clothes and set out and an anxiety more painful than on any previous occasion of disappointment, filled our minds with misgiving. Although it was in some degree evident how far people were in accord with us and what representations had been made by them to His Majesty and the extent of his knowledge of our circumstances,-knowledge that could read the invisible—nevertheless a greater apprehension disquieted us. Without our host's being aware, that very morning we began our journey. The blazing light of the sun, the dark plots of the wicked, the crush in the streets of the city, the movements of the spies, the absence of friends, the lack of these to share our burdens-what power has a pen of wood to tell but a fraction of this situation? and where even eloquent lips would stammer, what craft can lie in its divided tongue? At last with many heart-sinkings we turned into unbeaten tracks and escaped in some measure the turmoil of the city and the eyes of enemies.

[Painful wanderings of Shaikh Mubarak and his sons

in search of a safe refuge—no friend bold enough to shelter them—their privations and residence in hiding.]

Since the condescension of His Majesty had newly become manifest, we now proposed to get together some horses and from those wilds to hasten on to the city of auspiciousness and alight at the residence of a certain person of whose integrity we had had long experience. Then perchance this turmoil might abate and the King put forth the hand of clemency. Of necessity, then, like prudent men, we prepared the requisites of travel and on a night darker than the minds of the envious and more protracted than the machinations of the vain of speech, we set out on the road. Withal the inexperience of the guide and his crooked proceedings, in the dawn of morr.ing we arrived at that gloomy place. Our not very cordial host though he did not deny us, yet told such a tale of discomfiture as cannot be expressed, and by way of consideration for us said that the occasion had now passed and that His Majesty's august mind was somewhat irritated; had we come before, there would have been no detriment and our difficulties would easily have been overcome: that he could point out a village, in the neighbourhood, in the obscurity of which we might pass a few days until the hallowed pleasure of the King might incline to favour. Putting us into a conveyance he sent us off in that direction. We became a prey to a variety of sorrows. When we reached the spot, the land-proprietor in dependence on whom we had been sent, was absent. We alighted without a shelter in that ruin in the midst of civilization. The overseer had occasion to read a document and discovering the signs of intelligence in our appearance, he sent for us. As we were pressed for time we hurried along the road of refusal and it shortly appeared that this village belonged to one of those said stony-hearted miscreants. The man in his stupidity had sent us here. With much disquietude and full of anxiety we flung ourselves out of the

place and taking an unknown guide we made for a village in the dependency of the capital city of Agra whence some savour of friendliness had reached us. Travelling for three kos, on the same day by devious paths we reached our destination. That good man shewed us every courtesy, but it was discovered that there also one of those vain schemers had a farm and that at times he visited the place. Retiring [P. 274] thence, at midnight with downcast hearts we set out for the city and reaching Agra, the capital, at daybreak we discovered the abude of a (supposed) friend. Here for .. space in this dust-heap of disappointment and dormitory of oblivion, this place of depravity abounding in demons. his defile of ignorance, we reposed, but it was not long pefore he began to speak of those malevolent enemies of God and shameless intriguers. In the companionship as we were, of such a lying, crazed and quarrelsome fanatic, our minds were verily oppressed by a new grief and exceeding pewilderment. And since our feet were worn with tramping. our heads with thoughts of night-travel, our ears with the ound of "come in", and our eyes with the pricking of leeplessness, an extraordinary anguish filled our spirits and weight of grief was in stewardship of our hearts. Of necessity we thought of other plans and the master of the louse also, occupied himself in finding a place for us.

[A good householder kindly entertains Mubarak and his one of two months, while they seek for some friend at Court who would speak for them to the Emperor. Mubarak and Faizi are presented to Akbar.]

Two days we spent in this interior agitation, and passed the hours in thinking each moment was our last until the recollection of a certain well-disposed person occurred to the saintly mind of that serene sage (my father), and by the aid of the master of the house and his assiduous search he was discovered and a thousand happy announcements brought us recurity. Straightway we went to that abode of peace and

received comfort from the cordiality and genial reception of its master. The breeze of prosperity now blew upon the garden of our hopes and the face of our circumstances was newly refreshed. Although he was not one of the infallible guides to truth, he possessed a large share of virtue. In obscurity he lived with good repute; he was rich though possessing little, cheerful in his poverty, and though old in years, youth shone from his aspect. We here had a delightful retreat and we again began our correspondence and sought to repair our fortunes.

For two months we continued to abide in this home of comfort and the door of our desire was unclosed. wishers seeking justice came to our rescue and men of experience and high position girt themselves in our aid. With speech of persuasive friendliness and sweet words of reconciliation they won over the seditious intriguers and ignoble wrong-doers, and next they brought before His Majesty the exemplary conduct of the Shaykh and made their representations in an engaging and conciliatory spirit. His Majesty in his foresight and knowledge of character, vouchsafed the most gracious answers and in his generous impulse and magnanimity desired his attendance. As I was inexperienced in worldly affairs, I did not accompany him, and that illumined sage with my elder brother set the face of supplication to the royal court. At once the hornets' nest of the ungrateful was quiet. The disturbed world was at peace. The courses of instruction and the quiet sanctuary of holy recollection were established as before, and the age again displayed the ways of the just.

Love's quarrels of the past, O night, bring never back their pain.

Nor secrets of the heart reveal as yesterday again,
For wearily the hours crept by, thou knowest, with
lagging feet,

But give, O, give me back the days of love and union sweet.

[Shaikh Mubărak gives spiritual teaching to young Abul Fazl—takes him to join a party of divines on a grand pilgrimage to the saints' tombs around Delhi, though he disapproved of such ostentation and mystic ecstacies. Abul Fazl comes out of his school-boy seclusion into busy society.

About this time my venerable father went on a pilgrimage to holy Delhi and took me with him, accompanied by some of the disciples of his saintly conferences. Since the time he had taken up his abode in the metropolis he was so much absorbed in spiritual contemplation in that hermitage of light that he had had no leisure to observe the marvels of the earth. Suddenly this desire took possession of his heart and he loosened the skirt of resolve, and honouring me with unique consideration, he made me, who over and above the earthly bonds of sonship was attached by spiritual ties, a partaker of his secret.

To recount briefly; once at early dawn, when his heart was lifted up to heaven and he was upon the carpet of praise and supplication, between sleeping and waking, Khwājah Qutbuddin U'shi and Nizāmu'ddin Awliyā appeared to him, and upon this numerous divines gathered together and a conference was held for consultation as to what it was advisable to do, and it was proposed to visit their tombs by way of propitiation (of the spirits of the two saints) immediately and there perform a religious ceremonial after their ordinances." My venerable father after the manner of his saintly ancestors, preserved an exact outward decorum and indulged not in the hearing of songs nor the vanity of silk attire, and did not approve of the ecstasies of music and dance affected by the Sufis. He spoke against the followers of this practice and he used constantly to say that on the assumption of the in-

¹⁷ The text (p. 275) reads bazm-i-masālihat ārāstah āmad, which Jarrett translates as "a feast of reconciliation was celebrated". I suggest the emendation maslihat (=advice, consultation) and take bazm to be Abul Fazl's usual bombast for an ordinary meeting. My other changes here are consequential. (J. Sarkar.)

difference between rich and poor, praise and blame, earth and gold, which was one of the principles on which this system proceeded, it contained within itself the volatility of unrest and he regarded it as a place of blacksliding unto the wise. He commanded a rigid abstention therefrom, withdrew from it himself and restrained his friends. truth, on this night, these slumberers on the couch of vigilance who looked on this ceremony as they would on their last journey, went into such exhaustive proof of the innocence of their intention and the morality of the act that they carried away the concurrence of my father. In that happy journey many of the tombs of those who sleep in that land of roses were passed, and hearts were filled with light, and blessings were vouchsafed (whereof if the narrative were detailed, men would regard it as an idle fiction and in suspicion might impute the stain of sin), until I was carried from the hermitage of seclusion to the court of wordly intercourse and the gate of prosperity was opened and I obtained the summit of distinction. The condition of the inebriate with greed and those who were a prey to envy became gloomy and my heart was pained and compassionated their confusion. I made a steadfast vow to the Almighty and I promised myself that the wronging of these blind souls who are as a lamp without light and an invisible sign, should be effaced from the path of my upright heart and I would allow no feeling but kindness to enter therein. By the aid of the grace of God ! enforced this resolve and gained new satisfaction and my mind new vigour. Men abandoning evil-doing took to sociability and drew the breath of repose. My venerable father occupied himself in admonition and exposed the quarrelsomeness, the crooked ways, the untruth and the unworthiness of men and enjoined the chastisement of evildoers. I was inclined to be reticent about speaking of these close secrets and was ashamed to reply to my venerable father. Eventually I was compelled to represent what had happened to him to His Majesty and relieved the ebullition of my father's spirit. Many of his anxieties were now relieved and his long open wounds were healed.

[P. 276] To make a long story short, when the imperial standards advanced to the capital of Lahore for reasons of state, and my heart was sore at parting from that preceptor of truth, in the thirty-second year of the reign, corresponding with the lunar year 995 (A.D. 1586-87), I invited his gracious visit. On the 23rd of the 3rd month (Khurdād) of the Divine Era and the thirty-second year of the reign, coinciding with Saturday, the 6th of Rajab of the above lunar year (31st May, 1586), that knower of all things material and spiritual fulfilling my desire, cast the shadow of his beneficence on me who though engaged in the world preferred solitude, and honoured me by special kindnesses. He ever found delight in seclusion, and renouncing all else passed his days in self introspection and in the renovation of the ever-capricious spirit.

Inasmuch as he troubled himself little about worldly knowledge, his conversation was always regarding the essence and attributes of God and he took heedful warning and led an independent life apart and gathered the skirts of liberation of spirit until his august health lost its elementary equilibrium. Although he had often suffered in the same way before, he learnt on this occasion, that it was his last journey and summoning this bewildered creature addressed me in words of salutary advice and went through the last obligations of farewell. As all that he said was between us alone and he shared with me in confidence his inmost thoughts, I kept down my anguish of heart and with many efforts commanded some self-restraint and by the miraculous efficacy of that leader in the world of sanctity, to some extent was calm. After seven days, in full consciousness and at the very dawn of the 24th of the 5th month (Amurdad) of the Divine Era, on the 17th of Zi'lqaadah, A.H. 1001" (Tuesday, 4th August, 1593) he passed into the gardens of paradise. The luminary of the firmament of knowledge became obscured and the light of an understanding that knew God grew dim. The back of Learning was bowed and the days of Wisdom itself passed away. Jupiter withdrew his robe from his head and Mercury destroyed his pen.¹⁹

Gone from the world is he its peerless sage That to its gaze oped Wisdom's heavenly page. Where shall his orphaned kin such marvel find, The Adam and Messiah of his kind!

This has been to some extent evidenced in what has gone before.

[Abul Fazl's birth—his early intellectual brilliancy—diversified education—hard study for ten years.]

As I have now recounted somewhat of my ancestors, I proceed to say a few words regarding myself and thus unburden my mind, in order to refresh this narrative and loosen the bonds of my tongue. In the year 473 of the Jalali era, corresponding to the night of Sunday, the 6th of Muharram 958 of the lunar reckoning (14th January 1551), my pure spirit joined to this elemental body came forth from the womb into this fair expanse of the world. At a little over one year I had the miraculcus gift of fluent speech and at five years of age I had acquired an unusual stock of information [P. 277] and could both read and write. At the age of seven I became the treasurer of my father's stores of knowledge and a trusty keeper of the jewels of hidden meaning and as a serpent, 20 guarded the treasure. And it was strange

The office of Jupiter in the Oriental planetary system is supposed to be that of a Qazi, and the robe represents his official dignity. Mercury is the heavenly scribe.

¹⁸ In the Biography of Abul Fazl (Vol. 1. aviii) Blochmann gives the date as the 4th September, but this cannot be, as the year 1001 began on Monday, 28th September 1592, and Zi'l Hijjah follows Zi'lyaadah.

The Oriental legend of the fabulous guardianship of buried treasure by a serpent has its parallel in the myth of the Hesperides.

that by a freak of fortune my heart was disinclined, my will ever averse, and my disposition repugnant to conventional learning and the ordinary courses of instruction. Generally I could not understand them. My father in his way conjured with the spell of knowledge and taught me a little of every branch of science, and although my intelligence grew. I gained no deep impressions from the school of learning. Sometimes I understood nothing at all, at others doubts suggested themselves which my tongue was incapable of explaining. Either shame made me hesitate or I had not the power of expression. I used to weep in public and put all the blame upon myself. In this state of things I came into fellowship of mind with a congenial helper and my spirit recovered from that ignorance and incomprehension. Not many days had elapsed before his conversation and society induced me to go to college and there they restored to rest my bewildered and dissipated mind and by the wondrous working of destiny they took me away and brought another back.

The temple as I entered, drew they nigh And brought their gift, a wine-cup brimming high. Its strength snatched all my senses, self from self, Wherein some other entered and not I.

The truths of philosophy and the subtleties of the schools now appeared plain, and a book which I had never before seen gave me a clearer insight than any thing I could read. Although I had a special gift which came down upon me from the throne of holiness, yet the inspirations of my venerable father and his making me commit to memory the essential elements of every branch of science, together with the unbroken continuity of this chain, were of immense help, and became one of the most important causes of my enlightenment. For ten years longer I made no distinction between night and day, teaching and learning, and recognized no difference between satiety and hunger, nor discriminated

between privacy and society, nor had I the power to dissever pain from pleasure. I acknowledged nothing else but the bond of demonstration and the tie of knowledge. Those who had a regard for my constitution, from seeing that two and sometimes three days passed without my taking food, and that my studious spirit had no inclination therefor, were amazed, and stood out strongly against it. I answered that my withdrawal was now a matter of habit and custom, and how was it that no one was astonished when the natural inclination of a sick man on an attack of illness was averse from food. If therefore my love of study induced forgetfulness, where was the wonder? Most of the current arguments of the schools, frequently misquoted and misunderstood when heard, and abstruse questions from ancient works, had been presented to the fresh tablet of my mind. Before these points had been elucidated and the attribution to me of extreme ignorance had passed to that of transcendent knowledge, I had taken objection to ancient writers, and men learning my youth, dissented, and my mind was troubled and my inexperienced heart was in agitation. Once in the early part of my career they brought the gloss of Khwājah Abu'l Qāsim, on the Mutawwal.21 All that I had stated before learned doctors and divines of which [P. 278] some of my friends had taken notes, was there found, and those present were astounded and withdrew their dissent, and began to regard me with other eyes and to raise the wicket of misunderstanding and to open the gate of comprehension. In my early days of study, the gloss of Isfahāni more than half of which had

of Saadu'ddin Masaud-b-U'marat-Taftāzāni (died A.H. 792, A.D. 1389) on the Talkhisu'l Miftāh of Shaykh and Imam Jalālu'ddin Mahmud-b-'Abdu'r Rahmān al-Qazwini ash-Shafiai (died A.H. 739, A.D. 1338). The latter work is on the analysis of grammatical signification and the explanatory science, i.e., rhetoric. Hāji Khalifah devotes several pages to its detail and the glosses that have been written on it and on its commentary, the Mutawwal. That referred to the text is by Abu'l Qāsim-b-Abi Bakr al-Laithi as-Samarqandi.

been eaten by white ants, came under my observation. The public being in despair at profiting by it, I removed the parts that had been eaten and joined blank paper to the rest. In the serene hours of morning, with a little reflection, I discovered the beginnings and endings of each fragment and conjecturally penned a draft text which I transcribed on the paper. In the meanwhile the entire work was discovered, and when both were compared, in two or three places only were there found differences of words, though synonymous in meaning; and in three or four others, (differing) citations but approximate in sense. All were astounded.

[Abul Fazl's strange mental disturbance at the age of twenty.]

The more my will was engaged, the more my mind was illumined. At the age of twenty the good tidings of my independence reached me. My mind cast off its former bonds and my early bewilderment recurred. With a parade of much learning, the intoxication of youth effervescing, the skirts of pretension spread wide, and the world-displaying cup of wisdom in my hand, the ringings of delirium began to sound in my ears, and suggested a total withdrawal from the world. Meanwhile the wise prince-regnant called me to mind and drew me from my obscurity, somewhat of which I have in its entirety and somewhat but approximately suggested and acknowledged. Here my coin has been tested and its full weight passed into currency. Men now view me with a different regard, and many effusive speeches have been made amid felicitous congratulations evoked.

On this day which is the last of the 42nd year of His Majesty's reign (A.D. 1598), my spirit again breaks away from its yoke and a new solicitude arises within me.

My songster heart knows not King David's strains:

Let it go free—'tis no bird for a cage.

I know not how it will all end nor in what resting-place my last journey will have to be made, but from the beginning of my existence until now the grace of God has continuously kept me under its protection. It is my firm hope that my last moments may be spent in doing His will and that I may pass unburdened to eternal rest.

[Thirty-two ways in which Abul Fazl has derived benefits from the grace of God.]

As the enumeration of the benefits of God is one way of expressing gratitude therefor, I here set down a few of these and invigorate my spirit:—

The first blessing which I possessed was in belonging to a noble family. It may be hoped that the virtue of my ancestors may atone for my unworthiness and prove a restoration in allaying the turbulence of my spirit, as pain by medicine, fire by water, heat by cold, and a lover by the sight of his beloved.

The second, the prosperity of the age and the general security of the times. As eminent men of old have belauded the justice of strangers, what wonder if I glory in the puissance of the monarch of the visible and invisible worlds.

The third, the happy fortune that brought me from the womb of fate into so happy a time when the august shadow of majesty has fallen upon me. [P. 279]

The fourth, my noble birth on both sides. Somewhat of my father has already been said. What shall I write of her, (my mother), the fragrance of chastity? She possessed all the noble qualities of men and always adorned her precious hours with good works. She united modesty with strength of character, and her words were in accord with her deeds.

The fifth, soundness of limbs, proportionate balance of

powers and their conformity.

The sixth, a long ministering unto those two blessed personages. It was a fortress against outward and inward disasters, and a fence against material and spiritual calamities.

The seventh, excellent health, and the antidote of bodily vigour.

The eighth, a good house.

The ninth, freedom from care as to means, and and circumstances.

The tenth, a daily increasing delight in doing the will my parents.

The eleventh, the kindness of a father which beyond the ambition of the times loaded me with many bounties and distinguished me as the true patriarch of his house.

The twelfth, prayerfulness at the throne of God

The thirteenth, imploring the favours of pious ascenes and true seekers of wisdom.

The fourteenth, a perpetual guiding grace.

The fifteenth, the collection of books on sciences. We are out dishonourable curiosity I became acquainted with the tenets of all creeds, and my spirit was weary of their multitude.

The sixteenth, the constant incitement to study on the part of my father and his restraining me from dissipating thoughts.

The seventeenth, virtuous companions.

The cighteenth, a material love, ordinarity the disturber of households and an earthquake of moral obligations, guided me to the goal of perfection. This wonder fills me every moment with a new astonishment and from time to time I am lost in amazement.

The nineteenth, the service of His Majesty which is a new birth and fresh happiness.

The twentieth, the recovery from my arrogant presumption through the grace of His Majesty's service.

The twenty-first, attaining to a perfect peace through blessings of the august condescension. For some turned from speech to silence; others [P. 280] joined in harmony with the upright of all sects, and for the remaining evildoers, their penitence being accepted, a reconciliation was brought about. May Almighty God remove the impressions of evil by the rays of knowledge.

The twenty-second, my spiritual intercourse with the King of all those that know God.

The twenty-third, the raising of me up by His wise Majesty and the bestowal upon me of his confidence without the recommendation of men or my own seeking.

The twenty-fourth, the possession of brethren wise, virtuous, and seeking the pleasure of others.

[His brothers.]

Of my eldest brother what shall I say? who notwithstanding his spiritual and worldly perfections, took no step without my concurrence, indiscreet as I am, and devoting himself to my interests, advanced my promotion and was an aid to good intentions. In his poems he speaks of me in a manner which I cannot sufficiently acknowledge, as he says in his Eulogium:

My verse may share both great and little worth, Its theme sublime—I lowlier than the earth. A father's virtues shall it far proclaim And vaunt the glory of a brother's fame; He, touchstone of all wisdom, who inspires My strain with sweetness that a world admires; If through a riper age, I pass him by, In merit, centuries between us lie. What though the branching savin taller grows, What gardener mates its beauty with the rose?

He was born in the Jalali year 469, corresponding to A.H. 954 (A.D. 1547). In what tongue shall I indite his praise? In this work I have already written of him²² and poured forth the anguish of my heart, and quenched its furnace with the water of narration and broken the dam of its torrents and alleviated my want of resignation. His works which are the scales of eloquence and penetration and the lawns of the birds of song, praise him and speak his perfections and recall his virtues.

²² See Vol. I. p. 548.

Another was Shaykh Abu'l Barakat. He was born on the night of the 6th of Mihr Māh (September) of the Jalāli year 475, corresponding to the night of the 17th Shawwal. A.H. 960 (25th September 1553). Although he has not attained to any high distinction in learning, he has nevertheless a considerable share of erudition, and in knowledge of affairs and as a military leader and for his practical sagacity he is considered one of the foremost. He is especially distinguished for his goodness of disposition, his reverence for holy men, and his benevolence.

Another was Shaykh Abu'l Khayr. He was born on the 10th of *Isfandārmus* (February) in the fourth year of His Majesty's reign, corresponding to Monday, the 22nd of Jumāda I., A.H. 967 (18th February 1560). The highest morals and most excellent qualities distinguished his disposition. He understood the temper of the times and kept his tongue like all his other members under the command of reason.

[P. 281] The next was Shaykh Abu'l Makārim. His birth took place on the night of the 1st of *Urdibihisht* (April) in the 14th year of His Majesty's reign, corresponding to Monday, the 23rd of Shawwāl, A.H. 976 (9th April 1569). Although at first he was a little unruly, the miraculous efficacy of my venerable father's will brought him back to the path of duty and rectitude and he read much of philosophy and tradition under that discerner of the mysteries of the spiritual and material worlds. Somewhat before his study of the ancient philosophers he read with Amir Fath u'llah Shirāzi.²³ He walks with circumspection and I trust he may reach the goal of his desire.

The next was Shaykh Abu Turāb. He was born on the 1st of Bahman Māh (January), in the 29th year of the reign corresponding to Friday, 23rd of Zi'l Hijjah, A.H. 988 (27th

²³ See Vol. I. p. 33. Vol. II. p. 30

January 1581). Although he was by another mother, he has the happiness of being admitted to court and occupies himself in the acquisition of all perfections.

The next was Shaykh Abu'l Hāmid. He was born on the 6th of Day Māh (December) the 30th of the reign, corresponding to Monday the 3rd Rabii' II., A.H. 1002 (17th December 1593).

The next was Shaykh Abu Rāshid. He was born on the 5th of Bahman Māh i Ilāhi (Ianuary), the 23rd year of the reign corresponding with M. y, 1st of Jumāda I of the same year (12th January 1594).

Although these (last) two scions of the house of prosperity are of concubines, they bear on their countenances the marks of good breeding. That illustrious sage when informed of their coming birth, fixed the names they were to bear. Before they were born he died. I hope that through his inestimable prayers, fortune may wait on happiness and that they may become the recipients of numerous favours.

Although my elder brother is dead and has thrown the world into mourning, I pray that the other nurslings of joy may attain to long life in glad prosperity and the fruition both of this world and the next and be blessed with good things temporal and spiritual.

The twenty-fifth, my marriage into an honourable house and a family distinguished for learning and the respect in which it was held. This gave my outward person credit and was as a leading rein to my unruly spirit; Hindu, Kashmiri and Persian wives were occasions of great joy to me.

The twenty-sixth, the blessing of a dear and virtuous son. He was born on the night of the 18th of Day Mah (December) in the 16th year of the reign, corresponding to Monday night, the 12th Shaban 979 (29th December 1571). My father named him Abdu'r Rahman. Although he is of Hindustani extraction, he has the Greek temperament and is fond of study, has much experience of the good and evil

of life, and his countenance displays the marks of a happy fortune. His Majesty has allied him in marriage with his foster family.24

[P. 282] The twenty-seventh, the sight of a grandson. On the night of the 30th of the month of Amurdad Māh i Ilāhi in the 30th year of the reign corresponding with Friday, 3rd Zi'l Qaadah 999 (13th August 1591), in an auspicious moment, this child of happy destiny appeared and the favour of God became manifest. His Majesty gave this sapling in the garden of felicity the name of Bishutan. It is my hope that he may be blessed with the highest perfections of nature and grace and attain to the fruition of eternal bliss.

The twenty-eighth, a love for the study of moral treatises.

The twenty-ninth, the knowledge of the rational soul. For many years I had studied the principles of ontology and physics and had conversed much with the professors of these two sciences and all the proofs by indagation and evidence, inductive and occular, had come under my observation. Still the path of doubt remained unclosed and my mind was not satisfied. By the blessing of faith this difficulty was solved and I became convinced that the rational soul is a subtile divine essence separate from the body, having, however, a peculiar union with this elemental form.

The thirtieth, that from high principle, the awe of the great in place has never withheld me from speaking the truth nor interfered with my pursuit of knowledge and light, nor the fear of ruin to property, life and reputation made me falter in this resolution; thus my course has run on like a flowing stream.

The thirty-first, indifference to wordly considerations.

The thirty-second, the grace to complete this work. Although the motive of this divine book is the praise of God which I have proclaimed with a tongue under the spell of

²⁴ "Akbar married him to the daughter of Saādat Yar Kokah's brother." Blochmann, Vol. I. xxxv.

a daily increasing felicity and gratitude for His favours expressed by the language of my pen, nevertheless it is the fountain head of various knowledge and a mine of wisdom to many. To industrious workers it is a guide, and the triflers and gay will find their portion therein. To youth it will be a source of pleasure, to manhood a cause of pride. The stricken in years will there find the experience of ages. and those who lavish the silver and the gold of this world will therein recognise the ordinances of manly fortitude. To the jewel of perspicacity it is a glad weighing-place; to the grasses of freedom, a fertile soil. It is the wicket of the laboratory of skill for the morn of felicity, the deep sea of creation's gem. The favored who seek for fame will in it find the road thereto, and the godly who pursue truth will rejoice in the custody of the volume of their deeds. Merchants of every kind of ware will learn the ways of profit, and champions in the arena of valour will read therein the tablets of heroism. Those who mortify the flesh for the edification of the spirit will take therefrom the institutes of virtue, and the blessed and sincere of heart will gather thence treasures without end, while those who repose in the pleasant vales of truth will by its means attain to their desire.

A wondrous work herein behold That wisdom's treasures all enfold; So fair upon its page they show That he who reads shall wiser grow.

These various benefits announce the good tidings which my heart hears in gladness that the conclusion of my task will make for goodness and avail me unto everlasting bliss.

[Abul Fazl was both hated and admired.] [P. 283]

Although the son of Mubärak is at the present time the object of resentment and held up as a warning to mankind, and a strife of love and hate is kindled in his regard, the worshippers of God who seek truth give him the name of Abu'l Wahdat, and account him a unique servant of the Supreme Giver. The valourous in the field of bravery style him Abu'l Himmat and deem him one of the wonders of carnal self-denial. Wisdom proclaims him Abul-Fitrat, and considers him a choice specimen of that sublime house. In the writings of the vulgar herd which are noisy dens of ignorance, some attribute wordliness to him and hold him to be one of those plunged into this whirlpool, while others regard him as given up to scepticism and apostacy, and band together in reproof and condemnation.

Of me a hundred fictions rumoured fly, And the world stares if I a word reply.

God be praised that I am not moved from these honourable dispositions by watching the strange vicissitudes of life, nor turn from well-wishing both to those who blame and those who commend, and defile not my tongue with reproof or praise.

The dullard's eye to sterling merit dim.

True ring of minted gold tells nought to him.

Worth must from noble souls unhidden blaze,

As from the moon her light, from Jupiter his rays.

²⁵ The Father of Unity. i.e., professing the unity of Cod, instead of Abu'l Fazl, the father of bounty. Abu'l Himmat signifies the father of resolution, and Abu'l Fitrat, the father of understanding.

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